

# Fundamentals of discrete LTI Systems

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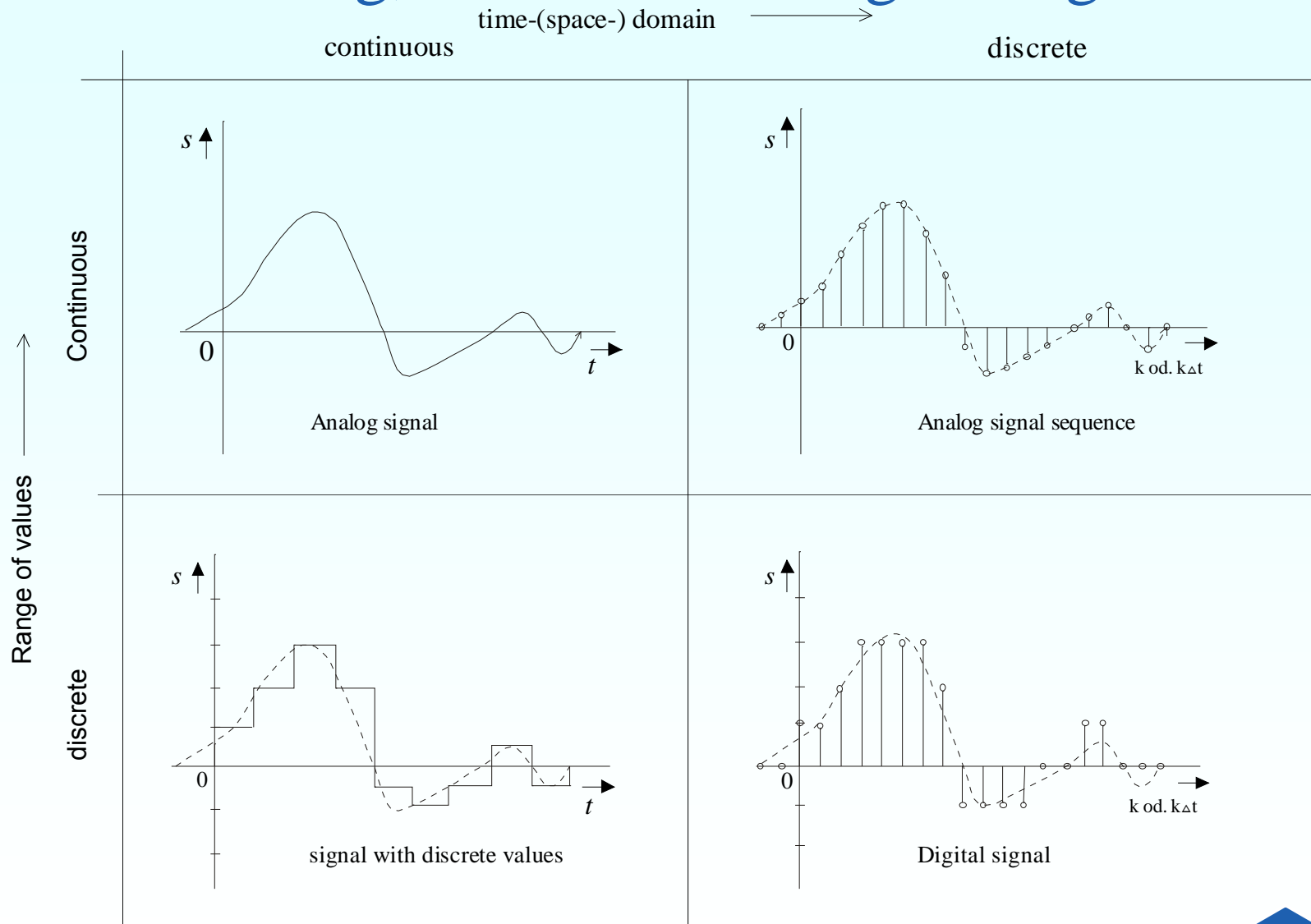
# 1 Introduction

## Signals and Systems

- **Signals** represent a physical quantity changing over time
- Signal usually contain some information relevant for the observer of the signal



# 2.1 Analog, Discrete and Digital Signals



## 2.2 Deterministic Signals in the Time Domain

### 2.2.1 The Exponential Signal

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

For voltages it holds:

$$u(t) = \hat{u} \cdot \cos(\omega t + \varphi_u) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \hat{u} \cdot e^{j(\omega t + \varphi_u)} \right\} = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \underline{u} \cdot e^{j\omega t} \right\} \quad \text{where} \quad \underline{u} = \hat{u} \cdot e^{j\varphi_u}$$

For increasing/decreasing signals:

$$e^{(\sigma + j\omega)t} = e^{\sigma t} \cdot e^{j\omega t} = e^{pt}$$



## 2.2.2 The Exponential Sequence

$$\{s(k)\} = \{z^k\} \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\{s(k)\} = \{e^{j\omega T \cdot k}\} = \{\cos(\omega T k) + j \cdot \sin(\omega T k)\}$$

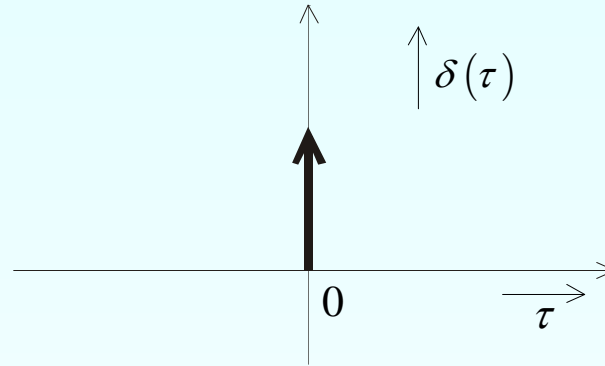
$$\begin{aligned} \{s(k)\} &= \{e^{pTk}\} = \{e^{(\sigma + j\omega)k \cdot T}\} = \{e^{\sigma k T} \cdot e^{j\omega k T}\} \\ &= \{e^{\sigma k T} \cdot \cos(\omega T k) + j \cdot e^{\sigma k T} \cdot \sin(\omega T k)\} \end{aligned}$$



## 2.2.3 The Dirac Function

Approximation:

$$\delta(\tau) = \lim_{T \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{T} \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$$



## 2.2.3 The Dirac Function

Definition:

$$\Phi(t_0) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(t-t_0) \cdot \Phi(t) dt \text{ with } \Phi(t) \text{ as an arbitrary signal}$$

Properties:

$$\delta(at) = \frac{1}{|a|} \cdot \delta(t)$$

If  $a = -1$  then:  $\delta(-t) = \delta(t)$

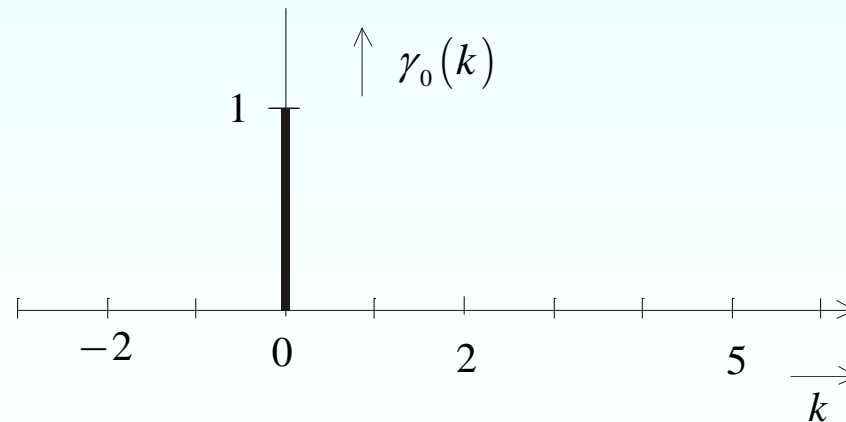
$$s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(\tau-t) \cdot s(\tau) d\tau$$





## 2.2.4 The Unit Impulse

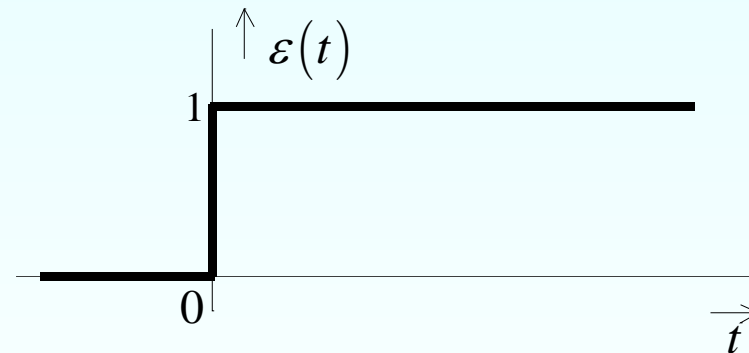
$$\{s(k)\} = \gamma_0(k) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k = 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } k \neq 0 \end{cases}$$



## 2.2.5 The Step Function

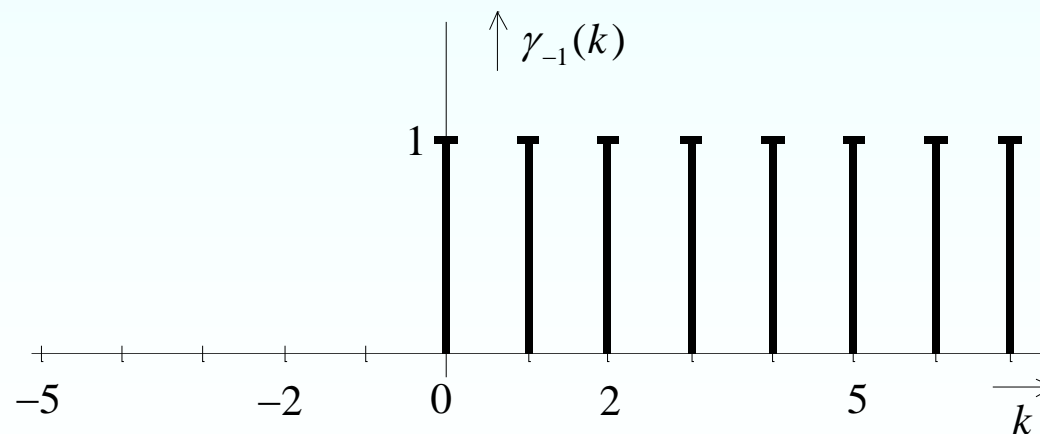
$$\varepsilon(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

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



## 2.2.6 The Step Sequence

$$\gamma_{-1}(k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } k < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } k \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



## 2.2.7 Periodic Signals

General property:

$$s(t) = s(t + nT) \quad \text{where } n = -\infty, \dots, -1, +1, \dots, +\infty$$

Transform of impulses into a periodic signal:

$$s_2(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} s_1(t - nT_0)$$

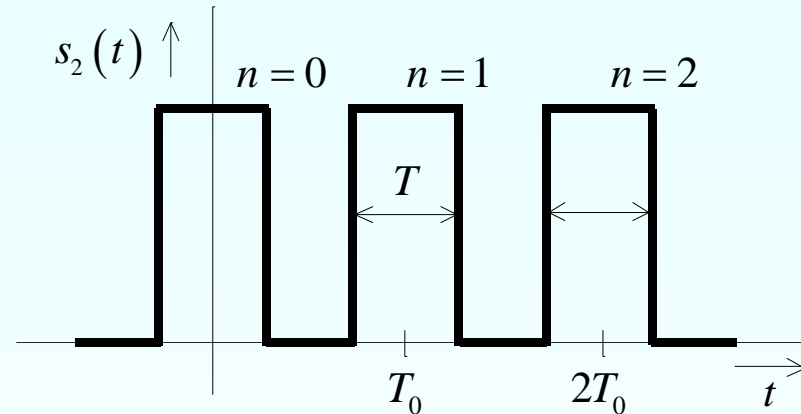


## 2.2.7 Periodic Signals

Example:

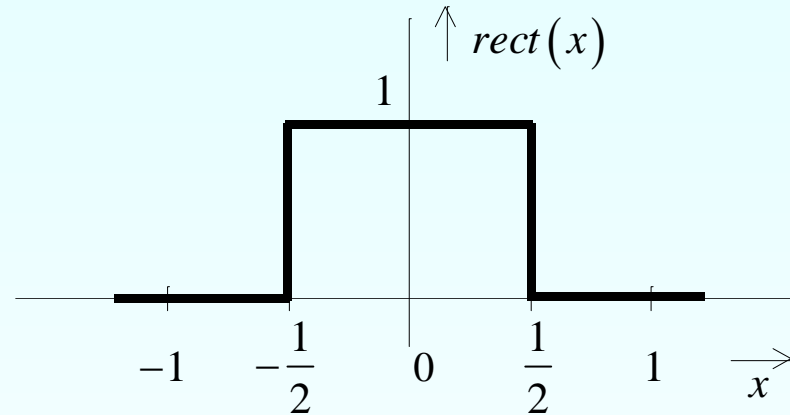
$$s_1(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow s_2(t) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t-nT_0}{T}\right) \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T} - n\frac{T_0}{T}\right)\end{aligned}$$



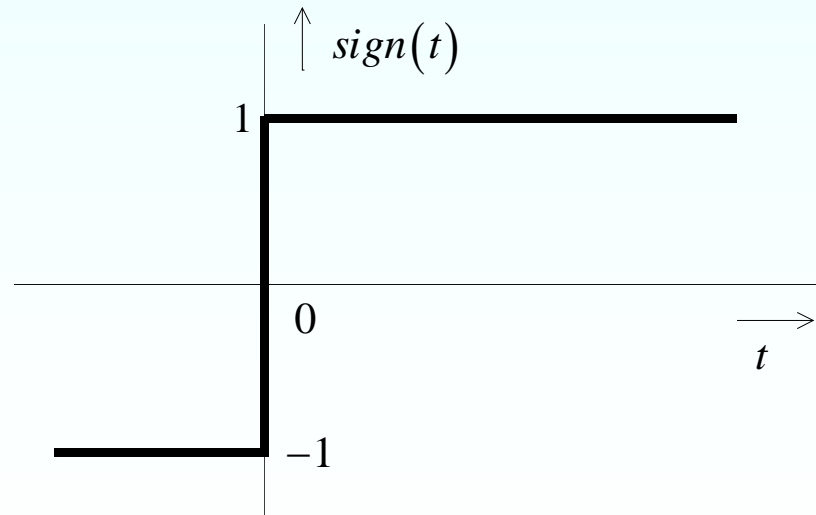
## 2.2.8 Impulse Type Signals

$$\text{rect}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } |x| \leq \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{for } |x| > \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$



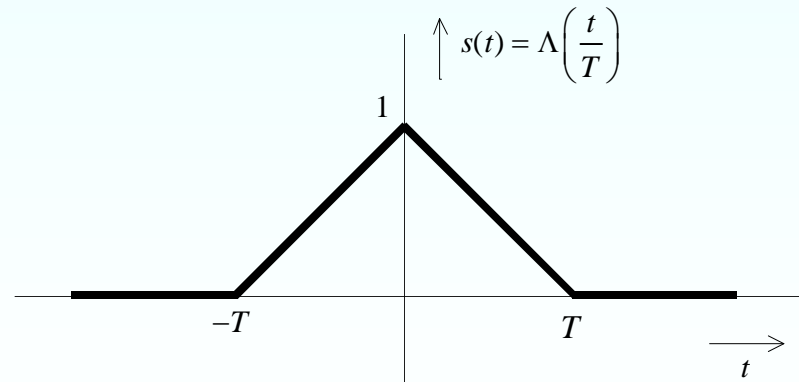
## 2.2.8 Impulse Type Signals

$$s(t) = \text{sign}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } t = 0 \\ -1 & \text{for } t < 0 \end{cases}$$



## 2.2.8 Impulse Type Signals

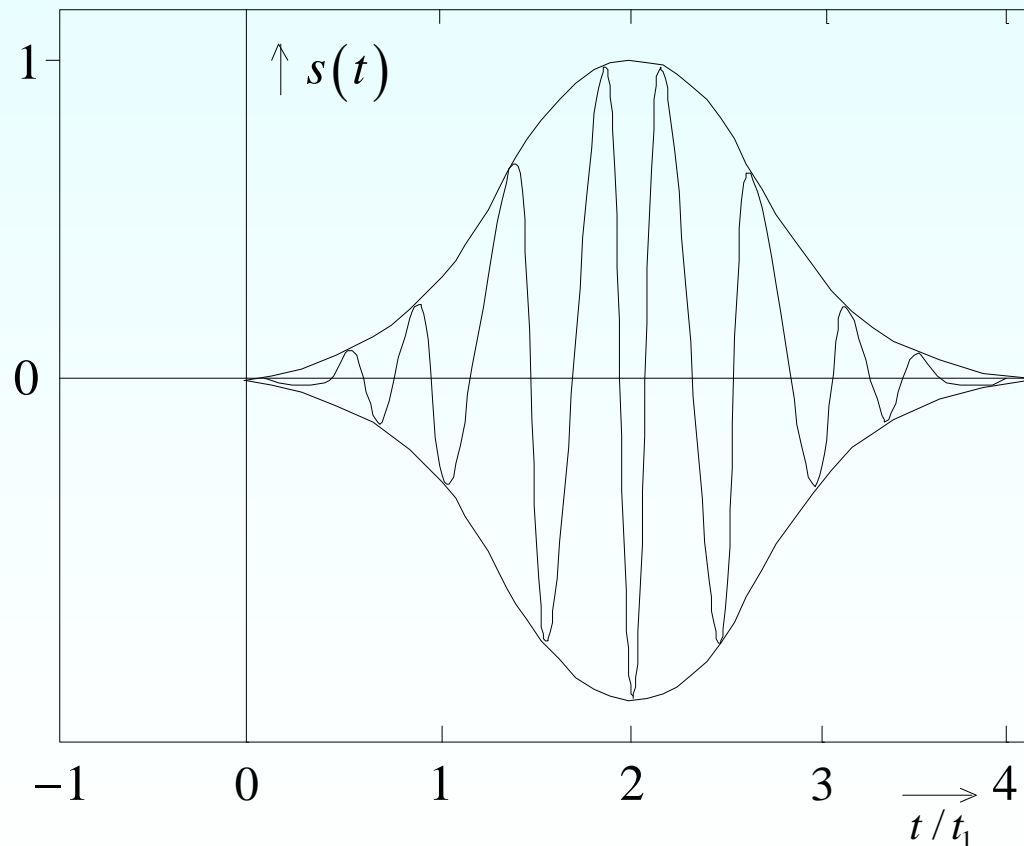
$$s(t) = \Lambda\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 - \left|\frac{t}{T}\right| & \text{for } |t| \leq T \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$





## 2.2.8 Impulse Type Signals

$$s(t) = e^{-\left(\frac{t-t_1}{t_0}\right)^2} \cdot \cos(\omega_0(t-t_1))$$



The figure shows  
 $s(t)$  for  $t_1 = t_0$

## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

Case1: Change of amplitude, compression & expansion with regard to time axis

$$s_2(t) = a \cdot s_1\left(\frac{t}{b}\right)$$

Example:

$$s_2(t) = u_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2T}\right)$$

Case2: Shift (Time delay or advance)

$$s_2(t) = s_1(t - T_\nu)$$



## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

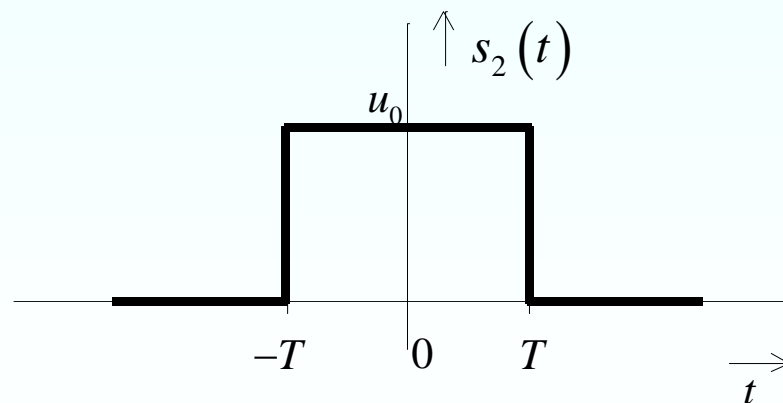
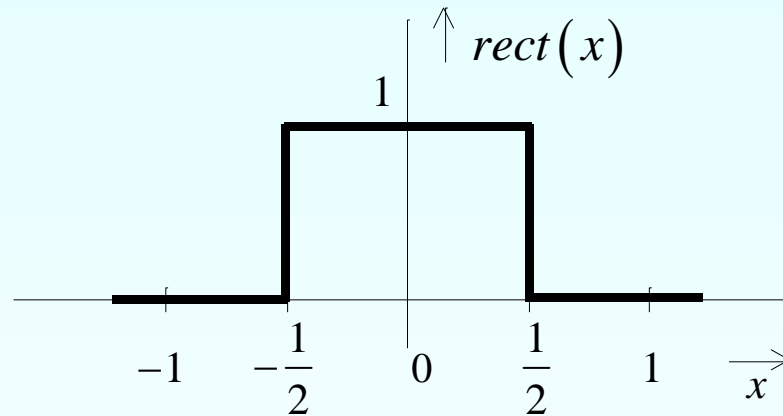
Example for expansion:

$$s_1(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$$

$$s_2(t) = u_0 \cdot s_1\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)$$

$$= u_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{t/2}{T}\right)$$

$$= u_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2T}\right)$$



## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

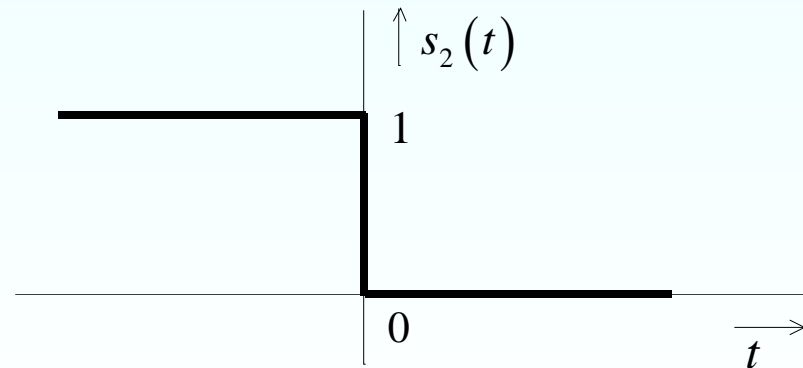
Case3: Mirroring ( $b = -1$ )

$$s_2(t) = s_1(-t)$$

Example:

$$s_1(t) = \varepsilon(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_2(t) &= s_1(-t) \\ &= \varepsilon(-t) \end{aligned}$$

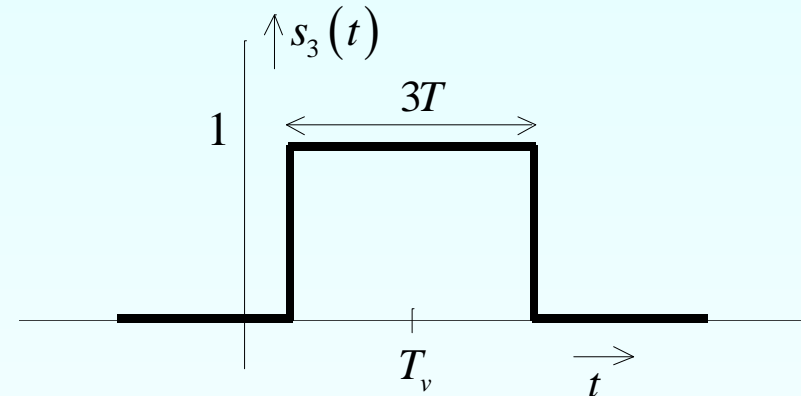


## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

Combination of expansion & shift:

$$s_1(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) \quad s_2(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{3T}\right)$$

$$s_3(t) = s_2(t - T_v) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t - T_v}{3T}\right)$$



Combination of shift & expansion:

$$s_2(t) = s_1(t - T_v)$$

$$s_3(t) = a s_2\left(\frac{t}{b}\right)$$

Replace in  $s_2(t)$  argument  $t$  only by  $\frac{t}{b}$

$$= a s_1\left(\frac{t}{b} - T_v\right)$$

and do the same in  $s_1(t)$

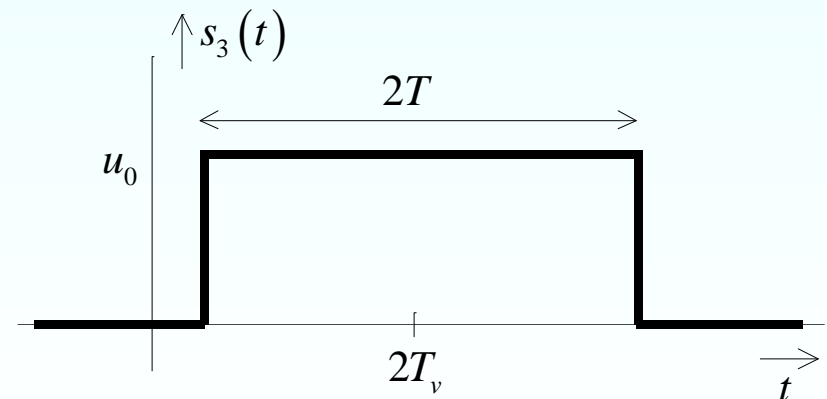
## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

Example:

$$s_1(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right); \quad a = u_0; \quad b = 2$$

$$s_2(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t - T_v}{T}\right) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T} - \frac{T_v}{T}\right)$$

$$s_3(t) = \text{arect}\left(\frac{t}{bT} - \frac{T_v}{T}\right) = u_0 \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2T} - \frac{T_v}{T}\right)$$



## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

Mirroring & shifting:

$$s_2(t) = s_1(-t)$$

$$s_3(t) = s_2(t - T_v) = s_1(-(t - T_v)) = s_1(T_v - t)$$

New sequence: Shifting & mirroring:

$$s_4(t) = s_1(t - T_v)$$

$$s_5(t) = s_4(-t) = s_1(-t - T_v) \neq s_3(t)$$



## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

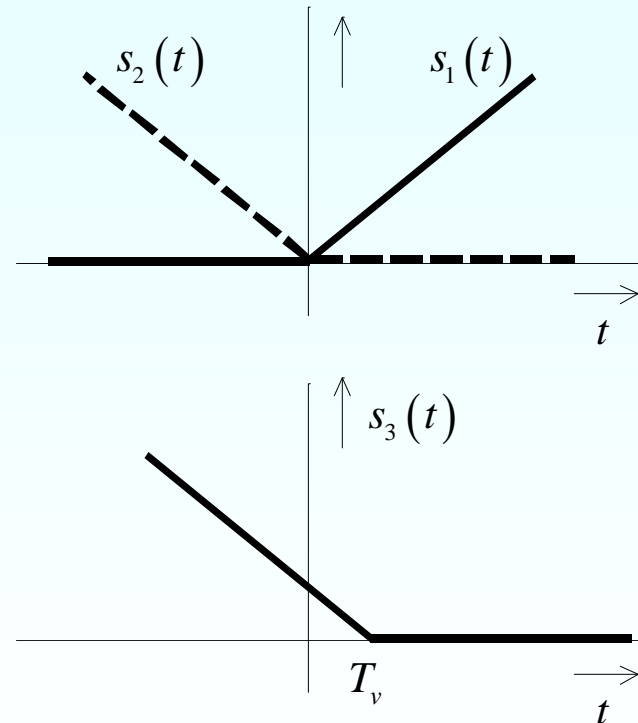
Example with a ramp function  $r(t)$ :

$$r\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) = \frac{t}{T} \cdot \varepsilon(t)$$

$$s_1(t) = r\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$$

$$s_2(t) = s_1(-t) = r\left(\frac{-t}{T}\right)$$

$$s_3(t) = s_2(t - T_v) = r\left(\frac{T_v - t}{T}\right)$$

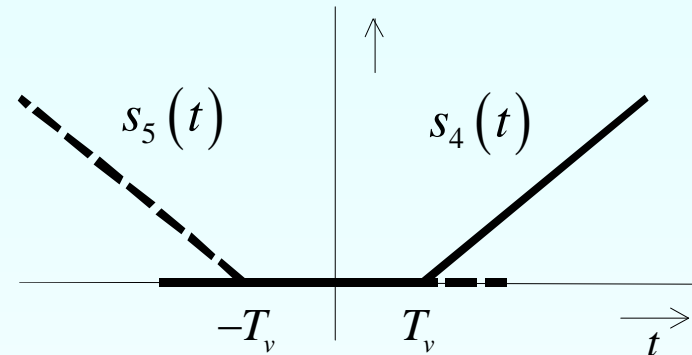




## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

$$s_4(t) = s_1(t - T_v) = r\left(\frac{t - T_v}{T}\right)$$

$$s_5(t) = s_4(-t) = r\left(\frac{-t - T_v}{T}\right)$$



There are 4 cases:  $\pm t \pm T_v$

## 2.2.9 Adjustment of Time and Frequency Functions

All methods described above can be extended to frequency functions.

Example:

$$f_1(\omega) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\omega_1}\right)$$

In general one function can be used as the argument of another function.

$$f_1(x) = f_2(y) \quad \text{where} \quad y = f_3(x)$$
$$\Rightarrow f_1(x) = f_2(f_3(x))$$



## 2.2.10 Energy and Power of Signals

Electrical Energy: 
$$E_{el} = \frac{1}{R} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2(t) dt$$

Signal Energy: 
$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s^2(t) dt$$

Condition for energy signals:  $0 < E < \infty$

Signal Power: 
$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{+T} s^2(t) dt$$

Condition for power signals:  $0 < P < \infty$  or  $E \rightarrow \infty$



## 2.2.10 Energy and Power of Signals

Conditions for discrete signals:

$$E = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=-K}^{k=+K} s^2(k) < \infty$$

$$P = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2K} \sum_{k=-K}^{k=+K} s^2(k) < \infty$$



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

Properties of periodic signals:

$$s(t) = s(t + kT) \quad k \text{ integer, } -\infty < k < \infty, T = \text{Period}$$

Fourier series onset with 3 essential components:

$$\begin{aligned} s(t) &= s_0 + \hat{s}_1 \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \varphi_1) + \hat{s}_2 \cos(2 \cdot 2\pi f_0 t + \varphi_2) + \dots \quad \text{where } \omega_0 = 2\pi f_0 \\ &= s_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{s}_n \cos(n\omega_0 t + \varphi_n) \quad f_n = n \frac{1}{T_0}, n > 1 \quad f_0 = \frac{1}{T_0} \end{aligned}$$

and due to  $\cos(x + y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$ :

$$= s_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ \hat{s}_n \cos(n\omega_0 t) \cos \varphi_n - \hat{s}_n \sin(n\omega_0 t) \sin \varphi_n \right]$$



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

Setting  $a_n = \hat{s}_n \cos \varphi_n$  ,  $-b_n = \hat{s}_n \sin \varphi_n$  ,  $s_0 = \frac{a_0}{2}$  , one obtains:

$$s(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega_0 t) + b_n \sin(n\omega_0 t)] \quad \text{Trigonometric form}$$

$$= \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ \sqrt{a_n^2 + b_n^2} \cos(n\omega_0 t + \varphi_n) \right] \quad \text{Polar form}$$

$$\text{where } \varphi_n = -\arctan \frac{b_n}{a_n} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{s}_n = \sqrt{a_n^2 + b_n^2}$$

Please observe limited range of values for the *arctan* function!



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

Determination of Fourier coefficients:

$$s_0 = \frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T} s(t) dt \quad (\text{this is the time averaged value of } s(t))$$

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) \cos(n\omega_0 t) dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) \sin(n\omega_0 t) dt$$



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The exponential form

Definition:

$$c_n = \frac{a_n - jb_n}{2} \quad \text{for } n \geq 0 \quad \text{with } b_0 = 0$$

$$c_{-n} = c_n^* = \frac{a_n + jb_n}{2}$$

Relation to trigonometric coefficients:

$$a_n = 2 \operatorname{Re} \{ c_n \} \quad \text{The amplitude of the } \cos(n\omega_0 t) \text{ for } n \geq 0$$

$$b_n = -2 \operatorname{Im} \{ c_n \} \quad \text{The amplitude of the } \sin(n\omega_0 t) \text{ for } n \geq 0$$
$$= +2 \operatorname{Im} \{ c_n \} \quad \text{for } n < 0$$





## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The exponential form

Periodic signals thus are represented by:

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t} = c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} 2|c_n| \cos(n\omega_0 t + \varphi_n)$$

$$\text{where } |c_n| = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{a_n^2 + b_n^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_n = -\arctan \frac{b_n}{a_n} = \angle c_n$$

Please observe:

Complex coefficients represent pointers which are rotated by exponential function (clockwise rotating for positive n)



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The exponential form

$$\begin{aligned}c_n &= \frac{1}{2}a_n - j\frac{1}{2}b_n \quad \text{for } n \geq 0 \\&= \frac{1}{2} \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) \cos(n\omega_0 t) dt - \frac{j}{2} \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) \sin(n\omega_0 t) dt \\&= \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) (\cos(n\omega_0 t) - j \sin(n\omega_0 t)) dt \\&= \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt\end{aligned}$$

Additional Fourier series properties:

Linearity  $k \cdot s(t)$  leads to  $\{k \cdot c_n\}$

Time delay  $s(t - t_v)$  leads to  $\{c_n \cdot e^{jn\omega_0 t_v}\}$

Reversal  $s(-t)$  leads to  $\{c_n^*\}$



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The convergence of the exponential form

1) The Fourier series converges in the mean square average:

$$\lim_{\nu \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^T \left[ s(t) - \sum_{n=-\nu}^{+\nu} c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t} \right]^2 dt = 0$$

2) At finite numbers of jumps in the period  $T$  the Fourier series approaches the jump, it is equal to  $s(t)$  before and after the jump and crosses the jump at its center

Interpretation of coefficients:

Complex coefficients as a pair represent one signal component with a certain frequency of  $n$  times the fundamental frequency  $\omega_0$ .

Magnitude and phase of the complex coefficient correspond to amplitude and phase (delay/advance) of that signal component.



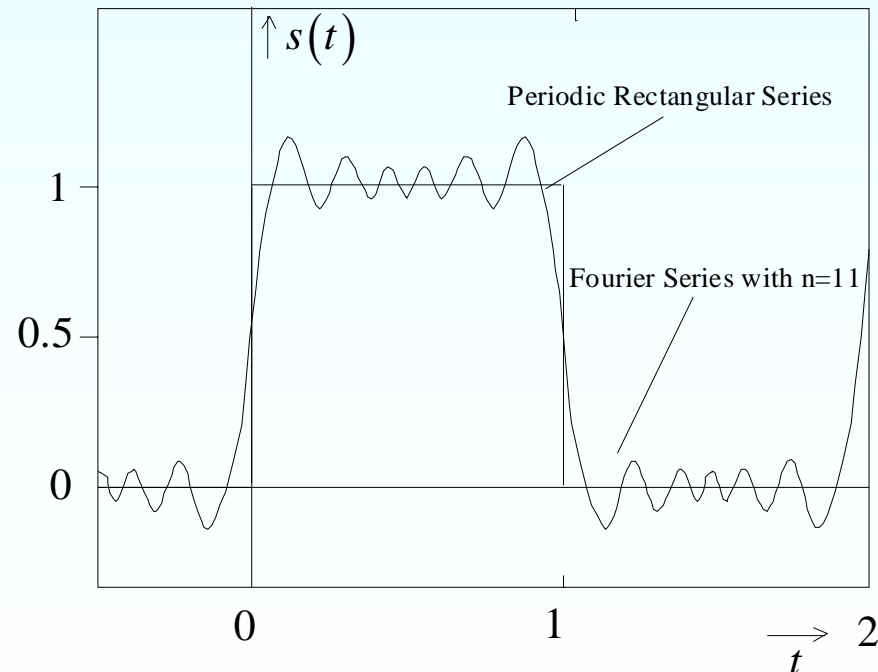
## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The Gibb's Phenomenon

At jumps the Fourier series introduces overshoots into the signal

These overshoots can be observed for low-pass signals e.g.

This effect is always given, even for a perfect Fourier series with infinitely many components!



## 2.3.1 Periodic Signals and the Fourier Series

### The distortion factor

Distortion factor is a measure for amount of higher harmonics in the signal

$$K = \frac{\text{rms-value of the signal harmonics}}{\text{rms-value of all harmonics}}$$
$$= \frac{\sqrt{s_{2,eff}^2 + s_{3,eff}^2 + s_{4,eff}^2 + \dots}}{\sqrt{s_{1,eff}^2 + s_{2,eff}^2 + s_{3,eff}^2 + s_{4,eff}^2 + \dots}}$$

Note:

DC component is no harmonic

where  $s_{n,eff}^2 = |c_n|^2 + |c_{-n}|^2 = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+T_0} s_n(t)^2 dt = P_n$  yields in

$$K = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (|c_n|^2 + |c_{-n}|^2)}}{\sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (|c_n|^2 + |c_{-n}|^2)}}$$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform - Definition

Absolutely integrable signals are denoted by:  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |s(t)| dt < \infty$

For such signals fulfilling some additional conditions it holds:

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega \quad \mathcal{F} \quad S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

Reasoning:

A periodic signal can be turned into a non-periodic one by extending the period to infinite. For periodic signals holds:

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

In a narrow interval  $\Delta\omega$   $m$  summation terms (or lines) according to Fourier series exist:  $m = \frac{\Delta\omega}{\omega_0} = \frac{T_0}{2\pi} \Delta\omega$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform - Definition

The  $m$  (nearly not differently large) lines represent one part of the signal:

$$\Delta s_i(t) \approx m \cdot c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t} = \frac{T_0}{2\pi} \Delta\omega \cdot c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

The whole signal then is given by summing up all signal parts:

$$s(t) = \sum_i \Delta s_i(t)$$

In the limit (period growing over all limits) the summation turns to the integral:

$$s(t) = \int ds \quad ds = c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t} \cdot \frac{T_0}{2\pi} d\omega$$

Now some rewriting is introduced:

$$S_F(\omega) = T_0 \cdot c_n \quad \omega = n\omega_0$$

Finally the inverse Fourier Transform results:

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S_F(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega = F^{-1} \{S_F(\omega)\}$$





## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform - Interpretation

The Fourier transform is a measure of amplitudes and phases of the harmonics when evaluated at a specific frequency:

$$|S_F(\omega)| \text{ and } \angle S_F(\omega)$$

The Fourier Transform is determined by:

$$S_F(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt = F\{s(t)\}$$

This function is also called spectrum or amplitude density spectrum!

The sub  $F$  only is used if it is not clear which transform is meant.

Special properties:

All frequencies in a certain interval are present

This transform relates the time-domain and the frequency domain



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Convergence properties

Convergence properties have to be considered in special cases such as:

- Signals with jumps
- Signals with curves of infinite length (no limited variation)
- Signals including Dirac impulses

For absolutely integrable signals with limited variation in suitable intervals it holds:

$$\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\alpha}^{\alpha} S(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \frac{s(t+0) + s(t-0)}{2} \quad (\text{Reasonable point-for-point convergence})$$

Limited variation in a finite interval (a,b), which is partitioned means:

$$\sum_{\nu=0}^n |s(t_{\nu}) - s(t_{\nu-1})| < \infty \quad a = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n = b$$

Example: Dirac impulse has no limited variation.



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform - Convergence properties

Fourier transform and inverse transform show up similar relations.

Thus the convergence properties described before can be applied to the frequency domain:

$$\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\alpha}^{\alpha} s(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt = \frac{S(\omega + 0) + S(\omega - 0)}{2}$$

Additional remarks:

For voltage signals with the dimension of [V] the Fourier transform exhibits the dimension of [V · s] = [V / Hz] !

Verify the dimension of the expressions in:  $S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Another interpretation of the transform values

A signal component gained by means of an ideal band pass is considered:

$$\Delta s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\omega_0 - \Delta\omega/2}^{-\omega_0 + \Delta\omega/2} S(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_0 - \Delta\omega/2}^{\omega_0 + \Delta\omega/2} S(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

$$\approx \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \left( \underbrace{S(-\omega_0)}_{S^*(\omega_0)} e^{-j\omega_0 t} + S(\omega_0) e^{j\omega_0 t} \right)$$

Smooth form of the spectrum at  $\omega_0$  is assumed!

$$= \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \left( 2 \operatorname{Re} \{ S(\omega_0) e^{j\omega_0 t} \} \right) = \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \left( 2 \operatorname{Re} \{ S(\omega_0) (\cos \omega_0 t + j \sin \omega_0 t) \} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \left( 2 \operatorname{Re} \{ S(\omega_0) \} \cos \omega_0 t - 2 \operatorname{Im} \{ S(\omega_0) \} \sin \omega_0 t \right)$$

$$= \frac{\Delta\omega}{\pi} |S(\omega_0)| \cos(\omega_0 t + \angle S(\omega_0))$$

The transform is a measure of amplitude & phase of the signal component!



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Important properties

For complex signals it holds:

$$s(t) = s_1(t) + js_2(t) \quad \mathcal{F} \quad S(\omega) = R(\omega) + jX(\omega)$$

$$S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (s_1(t) + js_2(t))(\cos \omega t - j \sin \omega t) dt$$

Thus it results:

$$R(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (s_1(t) \cos \omega t + s_2(t) \sin \omega t) dt$$

$$X(\omega) = - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (s_1(t) \sin \omega t - s_2(t) \cos \omega t) dt$$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Important properties

For real signals some further simplifications can be used:

$$R(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) \cos \omega t dt \quad \text{due to } s_2(t) = 0 \text{ and } s(t) = s_1(t)$$
$$X(\omega) = - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) \sin \omega t dt$$

These integrals show very important properties:

$$R(-\omega) = R(\omega) \quad X(-\omega) = -X(\omega) \quad \text{or in other words:}$$

$$S(-\omega) = R(-\omega) + jX(-\omega) = R(\omega) - jX(\omega) = S^*(\omega)$$

Summary: Real part of the transform is even, imaginary is odd!  
Magnitude of the transform is even, phase is odd!

Left part of spectrum is conjugated complex compared to right part!



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Important properties

Note the general mathematical properties of functions:

Any function can be separated

into even and odd parts:

$$s_g(t) = \frac{s(t) + s(-t)}{2}$$

$$s(t) = s_g(t) + s_u(t) \quad \text{with}$$

$$s_u(t) = \frac{s(t) - s(-t)}{2}$$

For these parts it holds:

$$s_g(-t) = s_g(t)$$

$$s_u(-t) = -s_u(t)$$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform – Important properties

Summary:

If only even or only odd parts of a signal are regarded the Fourier transform formulas simplify a bit:

$$s_g(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} R(\omega)$$

$$s_u(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} jX(\omega)$$

$$R(\omega) = 2 \cdot \int_0^{+\infty} s_g(t) \cdot \cos(\omega t) dt \quad ; \quad X(\omega) = -2 \cdot \int_0^{+\infty} s_u(t) \cdot \sin(\omega t) dt$$

$$s_g(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{+\infty} R(\omega) \cos(\omega t) dt \quad ; \quad s_u(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{+\infty} X(\omega) \sin(\omega t) dt$$





## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform of special signals

Special signals:  $e^{-j\omega t}$ ,  $\sin \omega t$ ,  $\cos \omega t$ ,  $\delta(t)$ ,  $\varepsilon(t)$

$$s(t) = a \cdot \delta(t) \quad \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \quad S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} a \cdot \delta(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt = a \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(t) \cdot e^0 dt = a$$

Application of shifting theorem in the time domain:

$$s(t) = a \cdot \delta(t - t_0) \quad \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \quad S(\omega) = a \cdot e^{-j\omega t_0}$$

Application of symmetry theorem:  $S(-t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} 2\pi \cdot s(\omega)$  with  $t_0 \rightarrow \omega_0$

$$a \cdot e^{j\omega_0 t} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} 2\pi \cdot a \cdot \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform of special signals

Now a cosine is written by 2 exponential functions. Also this last result is used:

$$a \cdot e^{j\omega_0 t} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} 2\pi \cdot a \cdot \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$$

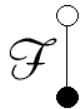
$$s(t) = a \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t) = \frac{a}{2} \cdot (e^{j\omega_0 t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t}) \quad \text{Thus we obtain:}$$



$$S(\omega) = \pi \cdot a \cdot [\delta(\omega - \omega_0) + \delta(\omega + \omega_0)]$$

Same procedure is applied for a sine function:

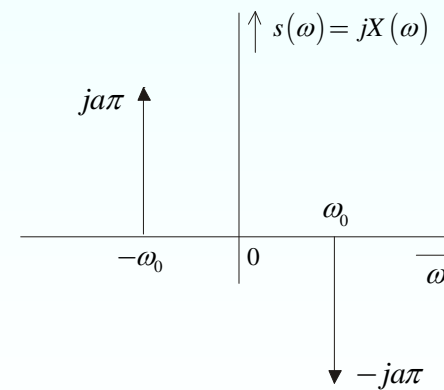
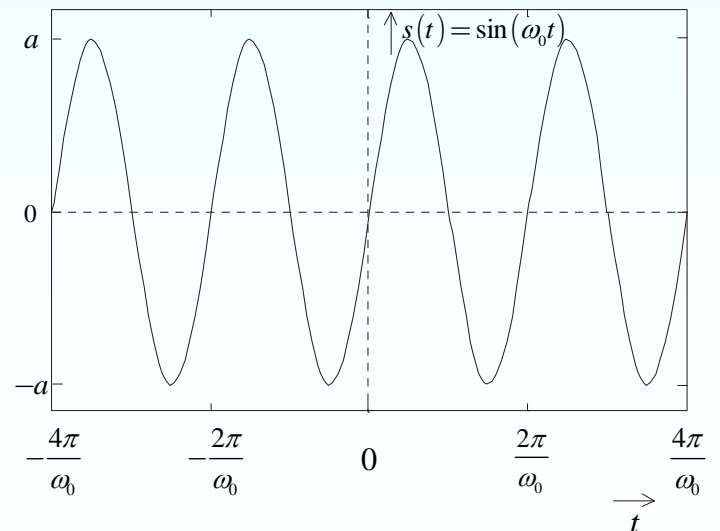
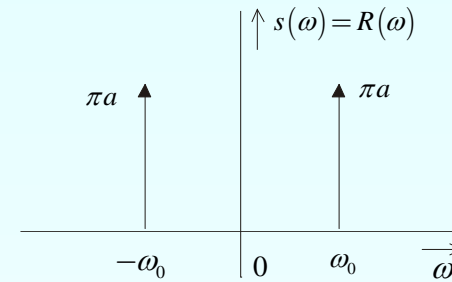
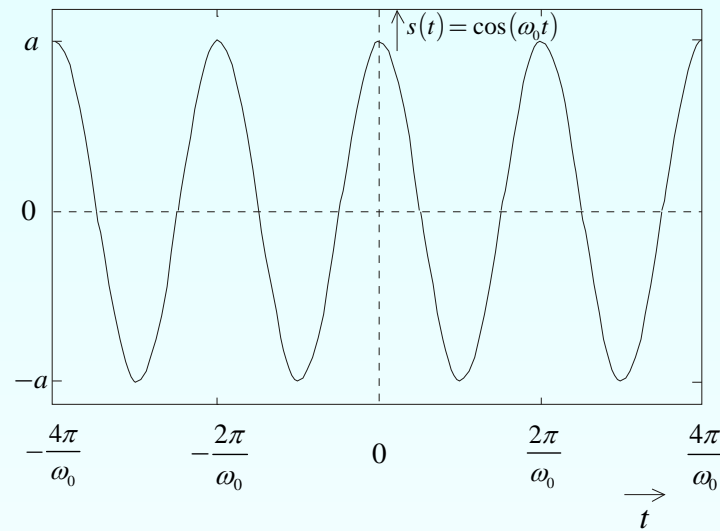
$$s(t) = a \cdot \sin(\omega_0 t) = \frac{a}{2j} \cdot (e^{j\omega_0 t} - e^{-j\omega_0 t})$$



$$S(\omega) = j\pi \cdot a [\delta(\omega + \omega_0) - \delta(\omega - \omega_0)]$$



## 2.3.2 The Fourier Transform of special signals



## 2.3.4 Laplace Transform of Signals

For causal signals (see following property) the Laplace transform exists.

$$s(t) \equiv 0 \quad \text{for } t < 0$$

$$s(t) = \lim_{\omega \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi j} \cdot \int_{\sigma-j\omega}^{\sigma+j\omega} S_L(p) \cdot e^{pt} dp \quad p = \sigma + j\omega$$

$$S_L(p) = \int_0^{\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-pt} dt = \int_0^{\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-\sigma t} \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

Interpretation:

Laplace transform is a Fourier transform of the damped causal signal:

$$s(t) \cdot \varepsilon(t) \cdot e^{-\sigma t} \quad \text{where } \sigma > 0 \text{ and real}$$

Abbreviation similar to Fourier transform:

$$s(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} S_L(p) = \int_0^{\infty} s(t) \cdot e^{-pt} dt$$



## 2.3.4 Laplace Transform of Signals

### Convergence of the Laplace integral

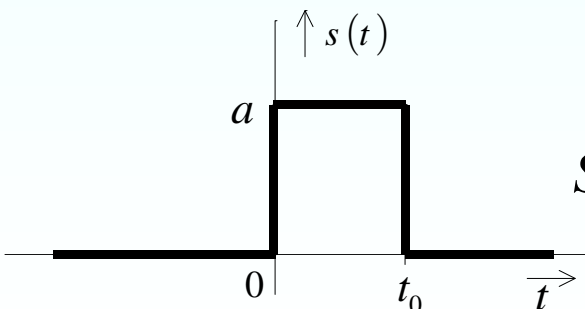
It converges for all  $s(t)$  growing slower with  $t$  than  $e^{\sigma t}$

If there is convergence in one point  $p_0$ , then there is also convergence in all points  $p$  with higher real part of  $p$ .

The area of convergence is always a half  $p$  plane!

Areas with no convergence are of high interest because location of poles is important in many aspects!

Example 1:

$$s(t) = a \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{t - t_0/2}{t_0}\right)$$


The graph shows a rectangular pulse signal  $s(t)$  on a coordinate system with time  $t$  on the horizontal axis and signal amplitude on the vertical axis. The pulse starts at  $t=0$  and ends at  $t=t_0$ , with a constant height of  $a$ . The signal is zero for  $t < 0$  and  $t > t_0$ .

$$S_L(p) = \frac{a}{p} \cdot (1 - e^{-pt_0})$$



## 2.3.4 Laplace Transform of Signals

Example 2:

$$s(t) = a \cdot \varepsilon(t) \sin \omega_0 t$$

$$S_L(p) = \frac{a \cdot \omega_0}{p^2 + \omega_0^2} = \frac{a \cdot \omega_0}{(p + j\omega_0) \cdot (p - j\omega_0)}$$

Some first properties of the Laplace transform

The Laplace transform develops to the Fourier transform on the vertical axis if some conditions are met:

$$S_L(j\omega) = S_F(\omega)$$

For real  $p$  the Laplace transform is also real, if other conditions are met



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

For discrete signals in most cases instead of the Laplace the z-transform is used:

$$\{s(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_z(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s(k) \cdot z^{-k} = Z\{s(k)\} \quad \text{with}$$

$$s(k) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } k < 0 \\ s(k) & \text{for } k \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

This transform results from the Laplace transform for the case of discrete signals with constant clock period.

Here an ideally sampled continuous-time (analog) signal  $s_a(t)$  is assumed.

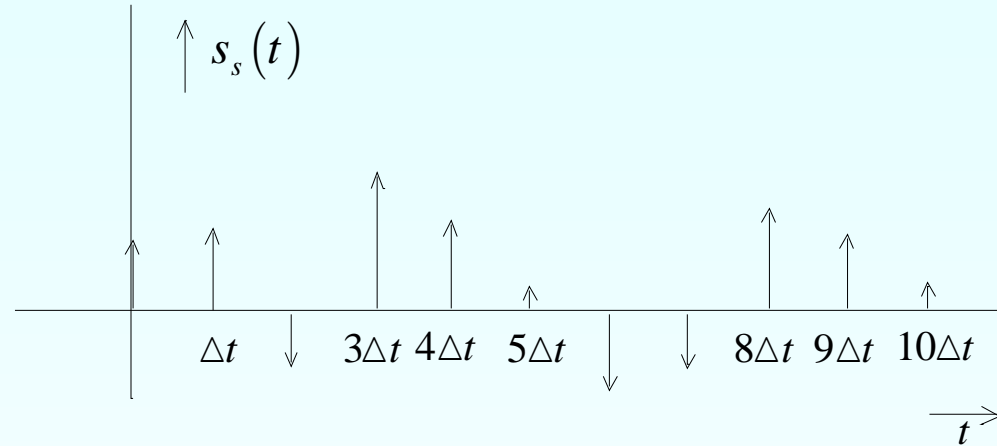
$$s_s(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) \cdot \delta(t - k \cdot \Delta t) \quad \text{All samples of the continuous-time signal can also be written in short:}$$

$$s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) = s(k)$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

$$s_s(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) \cdot \delta(t - k \cdot \Delta t)$$



$$\begin{aligned} L\{s_s(t)\} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) \cdot L\{\delta(t - k \cdot \Delta t)\} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) \cdot 1 \cdot e^{-pk\Delta t} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k \cdot \Delta t) \cdot e^{-k \cdot \Delta t p} \end{aligned}$$





## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

The exponential expression can also be written in short.

$$z = e^{\Delta t \cdot p} \quad s(k) = s_a(k \cdot \Delta t)$$

Thus we obtain an expression which is no more directly depending on  $p$ :

$$L\{s(k)\} = S_z(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s(k)z^{-k}$$

This is the z-transform. The inverse transform looks as follows:

$$s(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \oint_c S_z(z) z^{k-1} dz \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

### Rules and properties of the z-transform

#### 1 Shifting

$$\{s(k-1)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} z^{-1}S_Z(z)$$

$$\{s(k+1)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} z[S_Z(z) - s(0)]$$

#### 2 Modulation

$$\{e^{akT} s(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_Z(e^{-aT} z)$$

#### 3 Damping

$$\{\alpha^{-k} s(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_Z\{\alpha z\}$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

### 4 Differentiation of the z-transform

$$\{ks(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} -z \frac{dS_z(z)}{dz}$$

### 5 Convolution

$$\{s(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_z(z)$$

$$\{g(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} G_z(z)$$

$$\{s(k)\} * \{g(k)\} = \sum_{v=0}^k s(v)g(k-v) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_z(z)G_z(z)$$

### 6 Linearity



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

Example (2nd order processing of an input sequence)

$$y(k-2) + c_1 y(k-1) + y(k) = s(k-1) + s(k) \quad \text{with } c_1 = -2.5$$

For this situation the output sequence in terms of the input sequence is required (zero state and causal input sequence is assumed).

$$\{y(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} Y_Z(Z) \quad \{s(k)\} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{Z}} S_Z(Z)$$

$$y(k) = 0 \quad \forall k < 0$$

$$s(k) = 0 \quad \forall k < 0$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

$$y(k-2) + c_1 y(k-1) + y(k) = s(k-1) + s(k)$$



$$z^{-2}Y_Z(z) + c_1 z^{-1}Y_Z(z) + Y_Z(z) = z^{-1}S_Z(z) + S_Z(z)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_Z(z) \left[ z^{-2} + c_1 z^{-1} + 1 \right] = S_Z(z) \left[ z^{-1} + 1 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow Y_Z(z) = S_Z(z) \underbrace{\frac{z^{-1} + 1}{z^{-2} + c_1 z^{-1} + 1}}_{H_Z(z)}$$

In short the result reads as follows:



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_Z(z) &= \frac{z^{-1} + 1}{z^{-2} + c_1 z^{-1} + 1} = \frac{z^2 + z}{z^2 - 2.5z + 1} = \frac{z(z+1)}{(z-0.5)(z-2)} \\
 &= z \cdot \left( \frac{z}{(z-0.5)(z-2)} + \frac{1}{(z-0.5)(z-2)} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$H_Z(z) \cdot z^{-1} = \frac{z}{(z-0.5)(z-2)} + \frac{1}{(z-0.5)(z-2)}$$



$$h(k-1) = -\frac{2}{3}(0.5^k - 2^k) - \frac{2}{3}(0.5^{k-1} - 2^{k-1}) \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} k-1 \rightarrow k \text{ or} \\ k \rightarrow k+1 \end{array} \right.$$

$$h(k) = \frac{2}{3}(-0.5^{k+1} + 2^{k+1} - 0.5^k + 2^k)$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

Also for the z-transform the frequency response of a system is of high importance. As before the sampling of an analog signal is considered, but now the Fourier transform is applied:

$$s_a(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S_a(\omega)$$

$$s_s(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k\Delta t) \delta(t - k\Delta t)$$

$$\mathcal{F}$$

$$S_s(\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s_a(k\Delta t) e^{-j\omega k\Delta t} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s(k) e^{-j\omega k\Delta t} \quad \text{due to } s_a(k\Delta t) = s(k)$$

Comparison to  $S_Z(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s(k) z^{-k}$  gives the relation:

$$S_s(\omega) = S_Z(e^{j\omega\Delta t})$$



## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

Conclusion:

To obtain the properties of the discrete signal in the frequency domain the z-transform has to be evaluated only at the following points:

$$z = e^{j\omega\Delta t} \quad \Rightarrow \quad |z| = 1 \text{ for all } \omega\Delta t$$

Thus we evaluate the z-transform on the unit-circle:

$$S_Z(e^{j\omega\Delta t}) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s(k) \cdot e^{-j\omega\Delta t \cdot k}$$

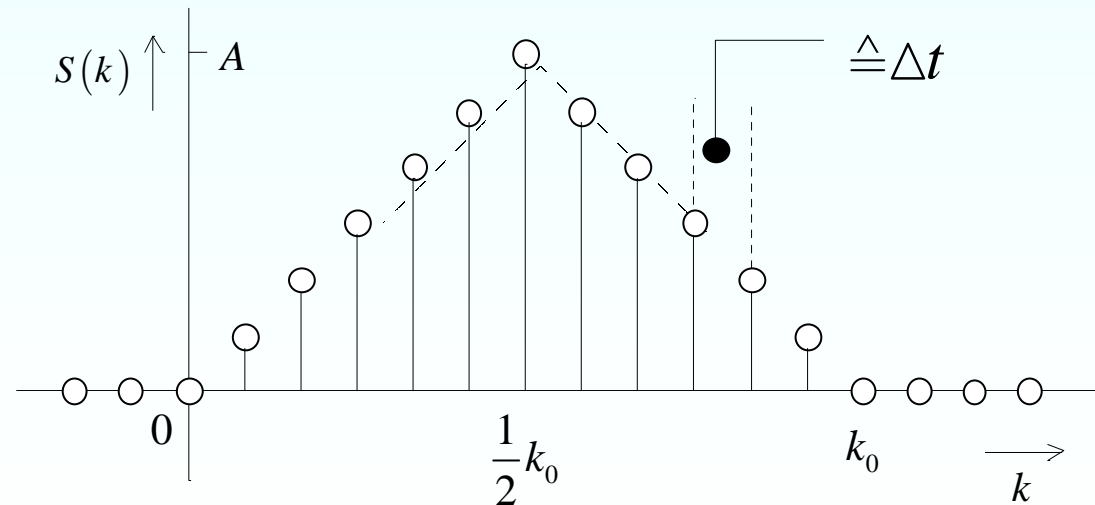




## 2.3.5 Z-Transform of Discrete-Time Sequences

Example (triangular sequence)

$$s_a(t) = A \cdot \Lambda\left(\frac{t-t_0}{0.5 \cdot k_0 \cdot \Delta t}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} A \cdot \frac{k_0}{2} \cdot \Delta t \cdot \text{sinc}^2\left(\omega \cdot \frac{k_0 \cdot \Delta t}{4}\right) \cdot e^{-j\omega t_0}$$



## 2.4 Important General Signal Representations

If all physical signals in the time domain are real, it follows:

$$R(\omega) = R(-\omega)$$

$$X(\omega) = -X(-\omega)$$

$$|S(\omega)| = |S(-\omega)|$$

$$\varphi(-\omega) = -\varphi(\omega)$$

or

$$S(-\omega) = S^*(\omega)$$

$$s(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S(\omega) = R(\omega) + j \cdot X(\omega) = |S(\omega)| \cdot e^{j\varphi(\omega)} \quad \text{with} \quad \varphi(\omega) = \angle S(\omega)$$



## 2.4.1 Low-Pass Signals

„Low-pass signal“ are signals  $s(t)$  with a spectrum  $S(\omega)$  that vanishes completely or negligible for

$$|S(\omega)| = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad |S(\omega)| \approx 0 \quad \text{for} \quad |\omega| > \omega_g = 2\pi f_g$$

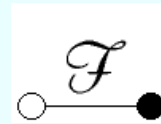
The spectrum of a low-pass signal exhibits at  $\omega = 0$  always non-zero values



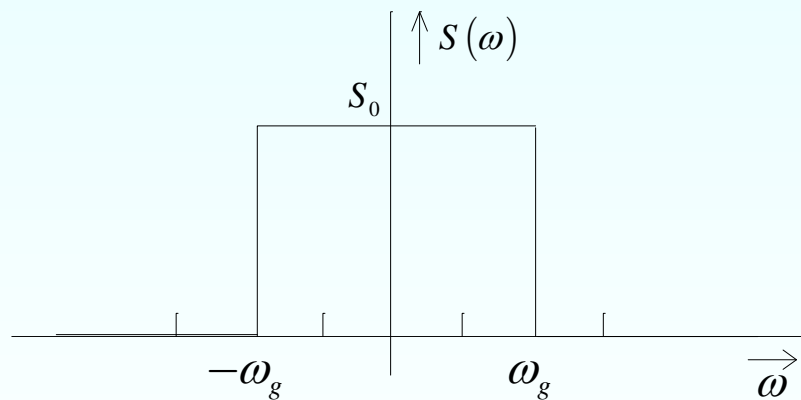
## 2.4.1 Low-Pass Signals

### Example 1: Ideal low-pass signal

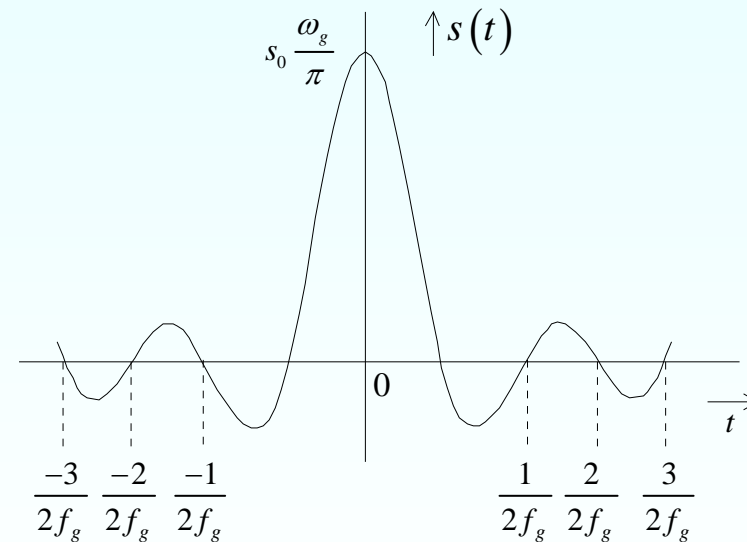
$$S(\omega) = S_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{2\omega_g}\right)$$



$$s(t) = S_0 \cdot \frac{\omega_g}{\pi} \cdot \text{si}(\omega_g t)$$



Spectrum  $S(\omega)$  of an Ideal low-pass signal

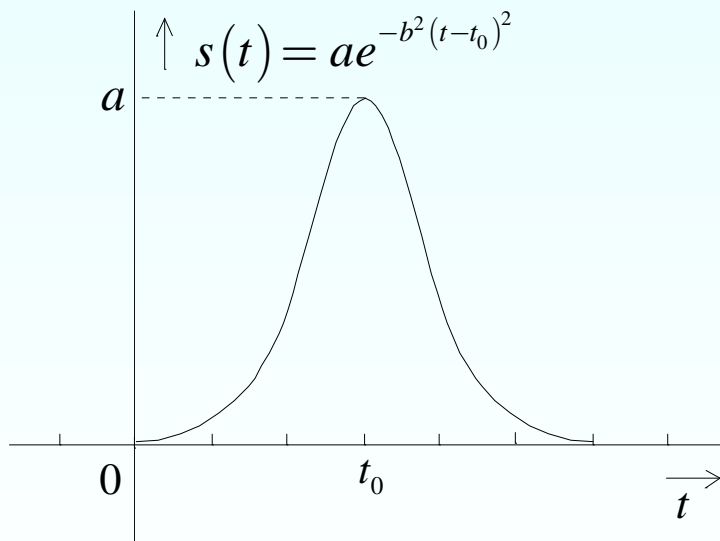


Ideal low-pass signal  $s(t)$

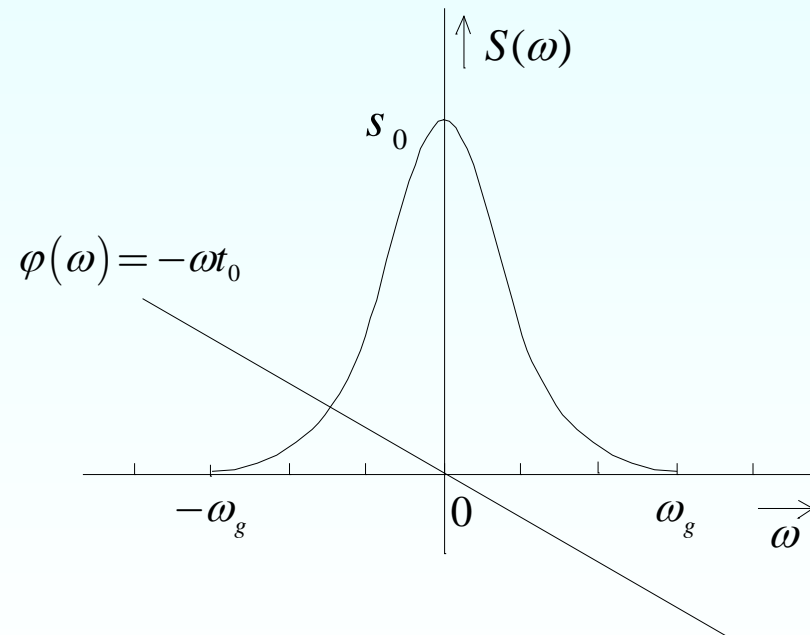
## 2.4.1 Low-Pass Signals

Example 2: the Gaussian impulse

$$s(t) = a \cdot e^{-b^2 \cdot (t-t_0)^2} = S_0 \cdot \frac{b}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cdot e^{-b^2 \cdot (t-t_0)^2} \quad \mathcal{F} \quad S(\omega) = a \cdot \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{b} \cdot e^{-\frac{\omega^2}{(2b)^2}} \cdot e^{-j\omega t_0} = S_0 \cdot e^{-\frac{\omega^2}{(2b)^2}}$$



Time function of the Gaussian Impulse



Spectrum  $S(\omega)$  (mag. and phase)

## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

For signals:  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s^2(t) dt < \infty$

the Hilbert transform of the signal  $s(t)$  is given as:

$$\hat{s}(t) = H \{s(t)\} = \frac{1}{\pi} .V.P \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{s(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau$$

where 
$$V.P \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{s(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{t-\varepsilon} \dots d\tau + \int_{t+\varepsilon}^{+\infty} \dots d\tau \right]$$

Accordingly, the inverse Hilbert transform is given by:

$$s(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} V.P. \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\hat{s}(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau = -H \{ \hat{s}(t) \}$$



## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

Hilbert transform can be interpreted by means of convolution integrals in case the integrals converge:

$$\hat{s}(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{s(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau = s(t) * \frac{1}{\pi t} \quad \text{and} \quad s(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\hat{s}(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau = -\hat{s}(t) * \frac{1}{\pi t}$$



Thus, the Fourier transforms can be derived directly:



$$F \{ \hat{s}(t) \} = -j \cdot \text{sign}(\omega) \cdot S(\omega) = \hat{S}(\omega)$$

$$F \{ s(t) \} = j \cdot \text{sign}(\omega) \cdot \hat{S}(\omega) = S(\omega)$$

## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

If  $s(t)$  is real with  $S(\omega) = R(\omega) + j \cdot X(\omega)$ , it gives result:

$$s(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} R(\omega) \cdot \cos(\omega t) d\omega - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} X(\omega) \cdot \sin(\omega t) d\omega$$

$$\hat{s}(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} X(\omega) \cdot \cos(\omega t) d\omega + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} R(\omega) \cdot \sin(\omega t) d\omega$$

$s(t)$  and  $\hat{s}(t)$  are called conjugated functions.





## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

$$\begin{aligned}\text{With: } s(t) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^0 S(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega + \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \int_0^{+\infty} S(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega\end{aligned}$$

$$S(\omega) = S^-(\omega) + S^+(\omega)$$

the analytic signal is defined as following:

$$s^\circ(t) = s(t) + j \cdot \hat{s}(t)$$

Real part: the signal itself

Imaginary part: Hilbert transform of s(t)

$$\hat{s}(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{s(\tau)}{\tau - t} d\tau$$



## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

The properties of the analytic signal:

1. If  $s(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S(\omega)$ , then

$$\hat{s}(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \hat{S}(\omega) = \begin{cases} -j \cdot S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega > 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } \omega = 0 \\ +j \cdot S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{s}(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \hat{S}(\omega) = -j \cdot S(\omega) \cdot \text{sign}(\omega)$$



## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

2. With  $s(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S(\omega)$ , result:

$$s^\circ(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S^\circ(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \omega < 0 \\ S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega = 0 \\ 2S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega > 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{or } s^\circ(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} S^\circ(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} S(\omega) \cdot e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} s^\circ(t) = s(t) + j\hat{s}(t) &\xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S^\circ(\omega) = S(\omega) + j \cdot \hat{S}(\omega) = S(\omega) + j(-j \operatorname{sign}(\omega) S(\omega)) \\ &= S(\omega) \cdot [1 + \operatorname{sign}(\omega)] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \omega < 0 \\ S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega = 0 \\ 2 \cdot S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega > 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$



## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

3. Real part  $s(t)$  and imaginary part  $\hat{s}(t)$  are orthogonal:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) \cdot \hat{s}(t) dt = 0$$

Example:

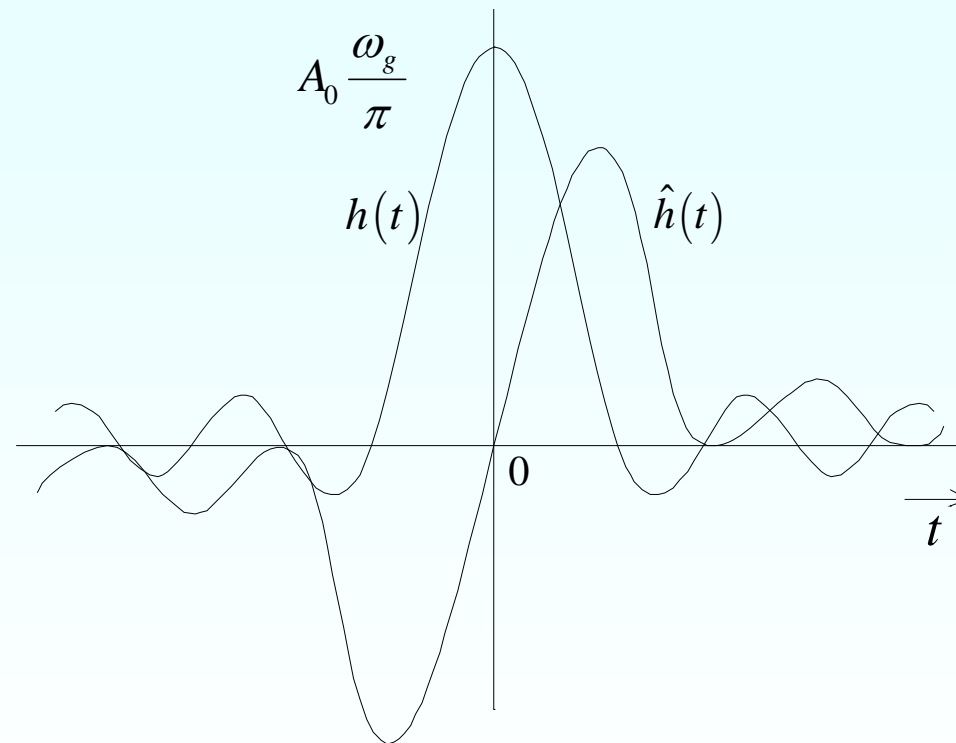
$$h(t) = \frac{A_0 \cdot \omega_g}{\pi} \cdot \text{si}(\omega_g \cdot t)$$

$$h^\circ(t) = h(t) + j \cdot \hat{h}(t) = \frac{A_0 \cdot \omega_g}{\pi} \cdot \left[ \frac{\sin \omega_g t}{\omega_g t} + j \cdot \frac{1 - \cos \omega_g t}{\omega_g t} \right]$$



## 2.4.2 The Hilbert Transform and the Analytic Signal

Example:



Real and Imaginary part of the analytic Signal of an Ideal low-pass

## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

Band-pass signals are signals  $s(t)$  with spectrum  $S(\omega)$  limited to a certain interval on the frequency axis

This interval does not include the frequency  $\omega = 0$

$$|S(\omega)| = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad |S(\omega)| \approx 0 \quad \text{for all } \omega \text{ outside of } \Delta\omega$$

The two versions of band-pass signal which will be described following are:

- Symmetrical band-pass signal
- More generalized version



## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

The symmetric band-pass signal:

$$S(\omega) = S_0 \left[ \text{rect} \left( \frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\Delta\omega} \right) + \text{rect} \left( \frac{\omega + \omega_0}{\Delta\omega} \right) \right]$$

$$\mathcal{F} \downarrow$$

$$s(t) = S_0 \left[ \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \cdot \text{si} \left( \frac{\Delta\omega}{2} t \right) \cdot e^{j\omega_0 t} + \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \cdot \text{si} \left( \frac{\Delta\omega}{2} t \right) \cdot e^{-j\omega_0 t} \right]$$

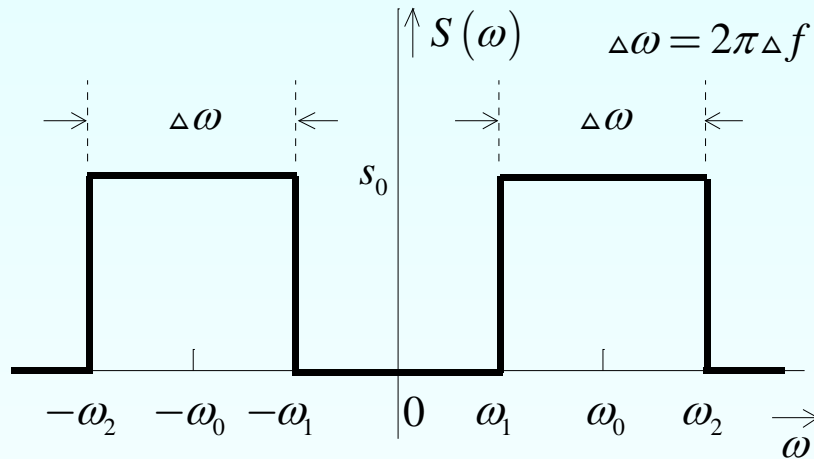
$$= S_0 \cdot \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \text{si} \left( \frac{\Delta\omega}{2} t \right) \cdot \left[ e^{j\omega_0 t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t} \right]$$

$$= S_0 \cdot \frac{\Delta\omega}{\pi} \cdot \text{si} \left( \frac{\Delta\omega}{2} t \right) \cdot \cos \omega_0 t$$

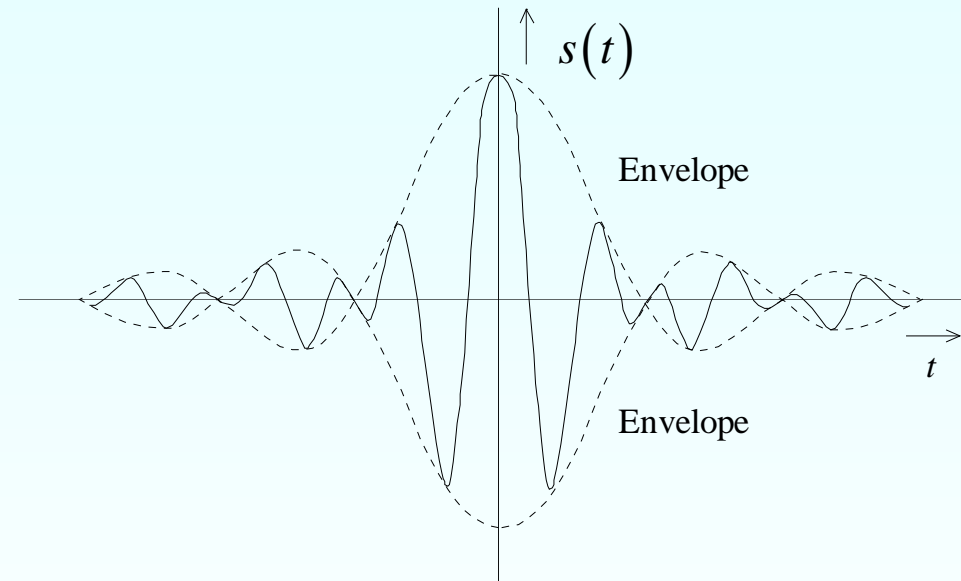
$$= s_T(t) \cdot \cos \omega_0 t$$

## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

Example:



Spectrum of a symmetric (Ideal) Band-pass signal

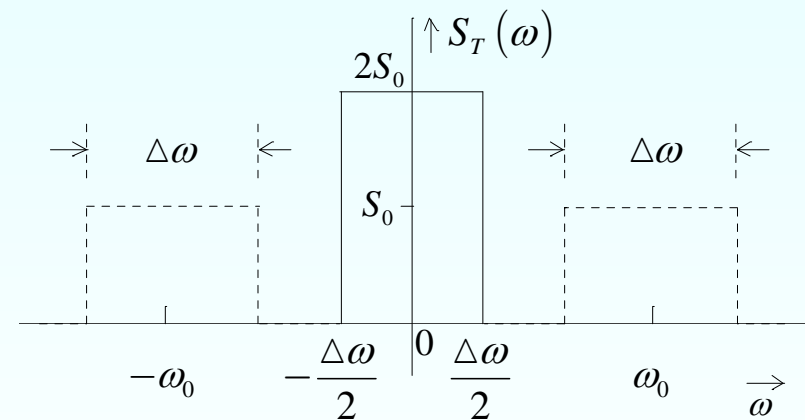
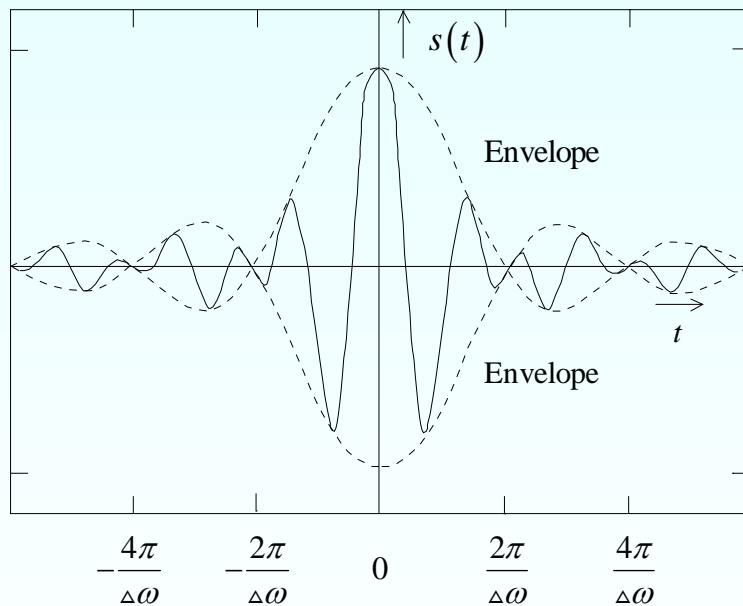


Symmetric (Ideal) Band-pass signal and its envelope



## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

Example: Equivalent low-pass signal and its Spectrum



$$s_T(t) = 2S_0 \cdot \frac{\Delta\omega}{2\pi} \cdot \text{si}\left(\frac{\Delta\omega}{2}t\right)$$

$$\mathcal{F} \bullet S_T(\omega) = 2S_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{\Delta\omega}\right)$$

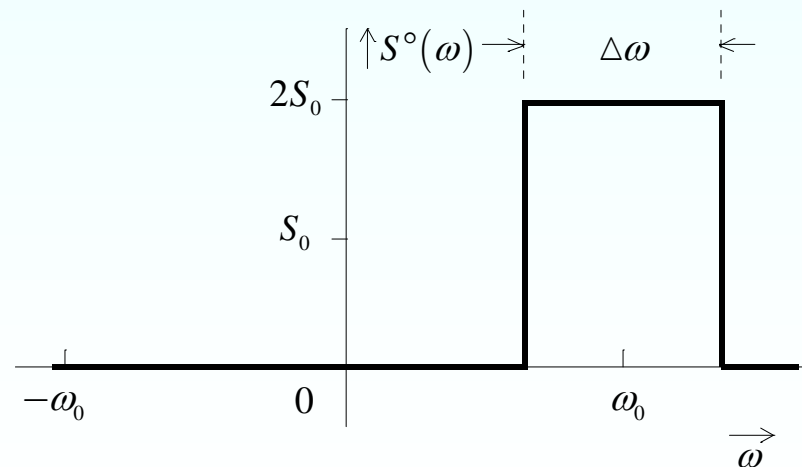
## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

Presentation of symmetrical band-pass signals using equivalent low-pass signals:

$$s^\circ(t) = s(t) + j \cdot \hat{s}(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} S^\circ(\omega) = S(\omega) \cdot [1 + \text{sign}(\omega)] = 2 \cdot S(\omega) \cdot \varepsilon(\omega)$$

$$S^\circ(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } \omega < 0 \\ S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega = 0 \\ 2S(\omega) & \text{for } \omega > 0 \end{cases} = 2 \cdot S_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega - \omega_0}{\Delta\omega}\right)$$

Analytic signal of a Symmetric  
band-pass signal



## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

By shifting on the frequency axis, the equivalent low-pass signal can be derived as:

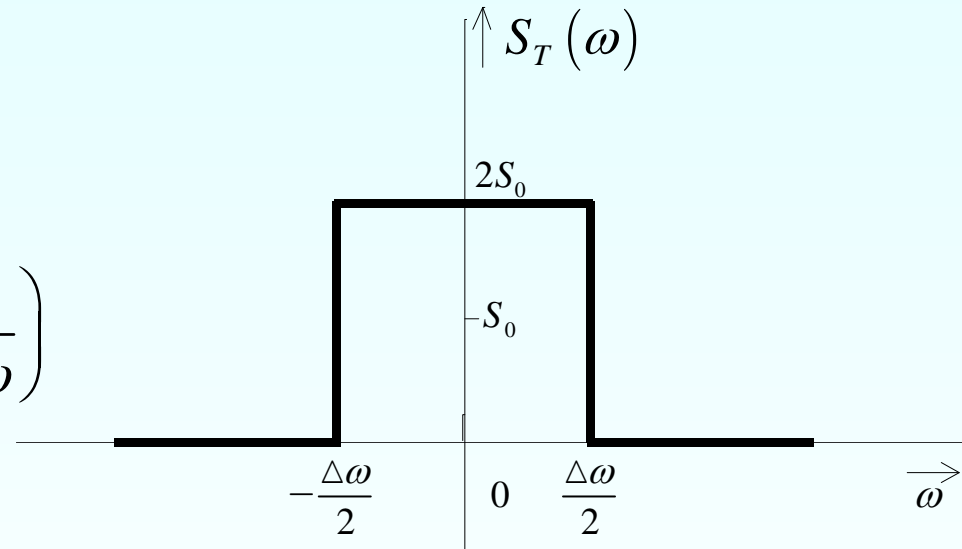
$$s_T(t) = s^\circ(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega_0 t}$$



$$S_T(\omega) = S^\circ(\omega + \omega_0) = 2S_0 \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{\omega}{\Delta\omega}\right)$$



$$s_T(t) = \frac{S_0 \Delta\omega}{\pi} \cdot \text{si}\left(\frac{\Delta\omega}{2} t\right)$$



The equivalent low-pass signal of a Symmetric Band-pass signal

As  $s_T(t)$  is real, the following relation holds:

$$s(t) = \text{Re}\{s^\circ(t)\} = \text{Re}\{s_T(t) \cdot e^{j\omega_0 t}\} = s_T(t) \text{Re}\{e^{j\omega_0 t}\} = s_T(t) \cdot \cos \omega_0 t$$

## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

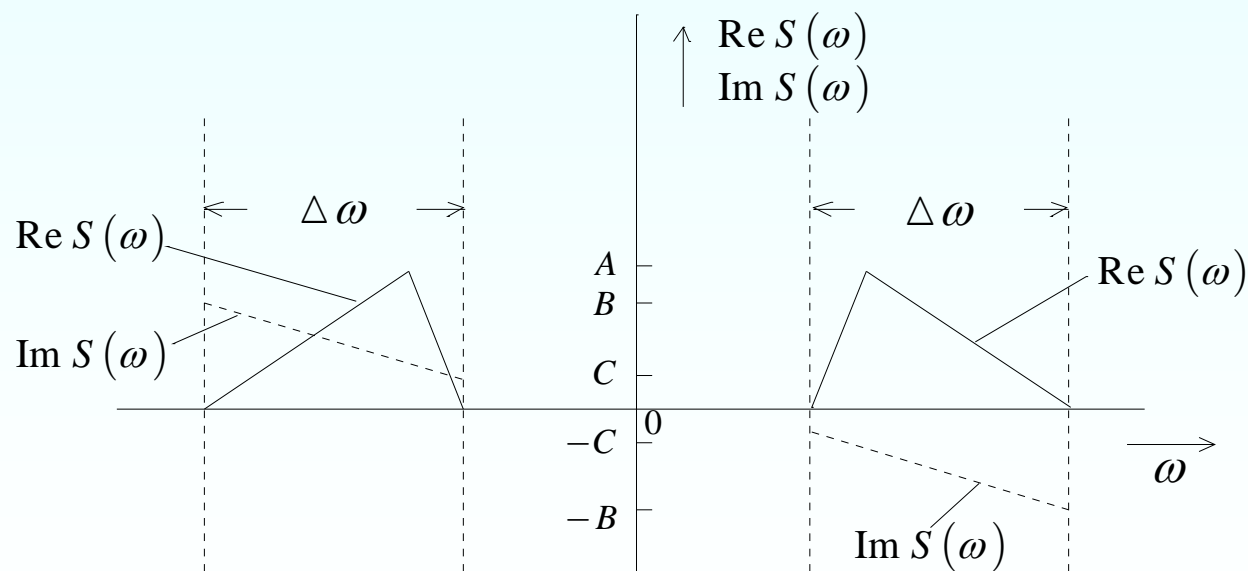
The general, real band-pass signal:

$$s_T(t) = u(t) + j \cdot v(t) = s_0(t) \cdot e^{j\phi(t)} \quad \mathcal{F} \quad S_T(\omega)$$

$u(t) = s_0(t) \cdot \cos(\phi(t))$ : inphase component

$v(t) = s_0(t) \cdot \sin(\phi(t))$ : quadrature component

Signal envelope

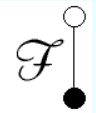


Spectrum of a Non-symmetric Real Band-pass signal

## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

One can find the signal  $s^0(t)$  developed from the equation:

$$s^0(t) = s_T(t) \cdot e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)}$$



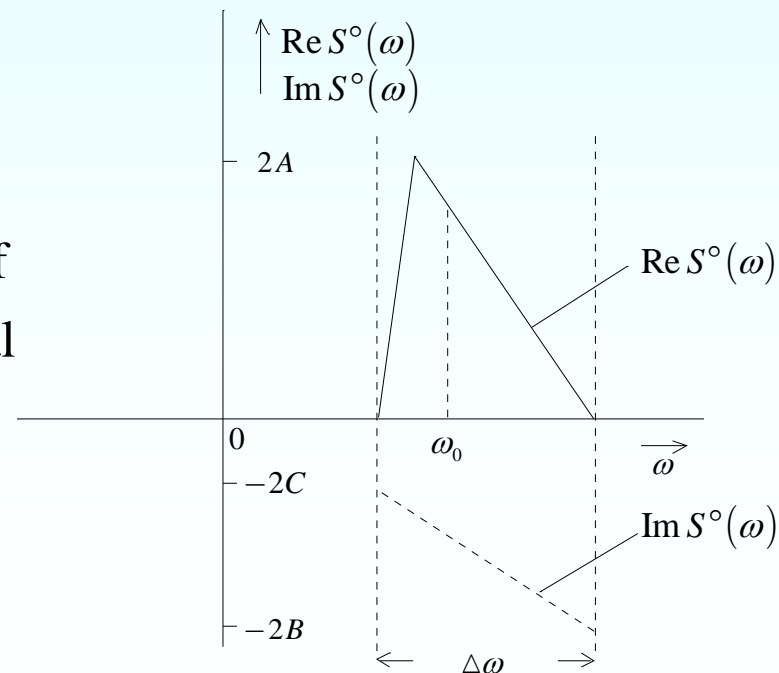
$$S^0(\omega) = e^{j\phi_0} \cdot S_T(\omega - \omega_0)$$

by choosing  $\omega_0$ : "midband frequency"  
as following description in the figure

Spectrum  $S^0(\omega)$  of the Analytic Signal of  
the Non-symmetric Real band-pass signal

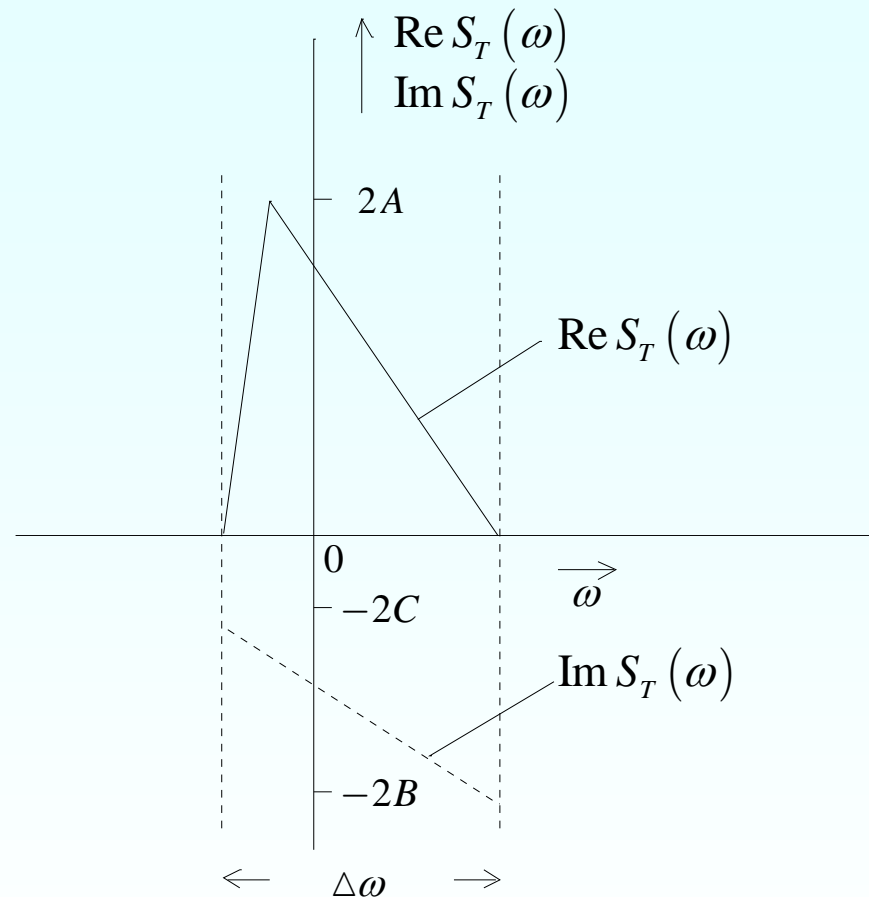
In the following we set without  
loss of generality :

$$\phi_0 = 0 \Rightarrow e^{j\phi_0} = 1$$



## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

Example:



Complex envelope (Real and Imaginary part) of the Non-symmetric real band-pass signal

## 2.4.3 Band-Pass Signals

In general some followings relations hold:

1.  $S^\circ(\omega) = S(\omega) \cdot 2 \cdot \varepsilon(\omega)$

2. The spectrum's relationship between complex envelope and analytic signal is as follows:

$$S_T(\omega) = S^\circ(\omega + \omega_0)$$

3. The band-pass signal  $s(t)$  can be represented in the form:

$$s(t) = \operatorname{Re}\{s^\circ(t)\} = \operatorname{Re}\{s_T(t) \cdot e^{j(\omega_0 t)}\} = s_0(t) \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi(t))$$

or

$$s(t) = \operatorname{Re}\{s_T(t) \cdot (\cos(\omega_0 t) + j \cdot \sin(\omega_0 t))\}$$
$$= u(t) \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t) - v(t) \cdot \sin(\omega_0 t)$$

For  $\phi_0 \neq 0$  it holds:  $s(t) = u(t) \cdot \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi_0) - v(t) \cdot \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$



## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

A causal signal function has the property:

$$s(t) \equiv 0 \quad \text{for } t < 0 \longrightarrow \text{for analog signal}$$

$$s(k) \equiv 0 \quad \text{for } k < 0 \longrightarrow \text{for discrete signal}$$

Causal, analog signals  $s(t)$ :





## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

Example:

$$s(t) = e^{-at} \varepsilon(t) \quad \circ \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \bullet \quad S_L(p) = \frac{1}{p+a} \text{ is causal for } a > 0$$

The unique relation between real part and imaginary part of causal signal spectra:

For  $s(t) \circ \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \bullet S(\omega) = S_1(\omega) + jS_2(\omega)$ , applies:

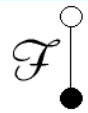
$$S_2(\omega) = \hat{S}_1(\omega) \quad \text{and} \quad S_1(\omega) = -\hat{S}_2(\omega)$$

$$\begin{aligned} S(\omega) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ S(\omega) * \left( \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi\delta(\omega) \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} S(\omega) * \frac{1}{j\omega} + \frac{1}{2} S(\omega) * \delta(\omega) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} S(\omega) * \frac{1}{j\omega} + \frac{1}{2} S(\omega) \end{aligned}$$



## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

$$s(t) \stackrel{!}{=} s(t)\mathcal{E}(t)$$



$$\begin{aligned} S(\omega) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ S(\omega) * \left( \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi\delta(\omega) \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} S(\omega) * \frac{1}{j\omega} + \frac{1}{2} S(\omega) * \delta(\omega) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} S(\omega) * \frac{1}{j\omega} + \frac{1}{2} S(\omega) \end{aligned}$$



## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

$$S(\omega) = S_1(\omega) + jS_2(\omega)$$

$$S(\omega) = \frac{1}{j\pi} S(\omega) * \frac{1}{\omega}$$

$$S_1(\omega) + jS_2(\omega) = \frac{1}{j\pi} \left[ S_1(\omega) * \frac{1}{\omega} + jS_2(\omega) * \frac{1}{\omega} \right]$$



## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

$$S_1(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} S_2(\omega) * \frac{1}{\omega} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{S_2(\eta)}{\omega - \eta} d\eta = \hat{S}_1(\omega)$$

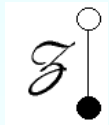
$$S_2(\omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} S_1(\omega) * \frac{1}{\omega} = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{S_1(\eta)}{\omega - \eta} d\eta = -\hat{S}_2(\omega)$$

$$\sum_0^{\infty} |s(k)| M^{-k} < \infty \quad \text{where } M > 1 \text{ and arbitrary real}$$

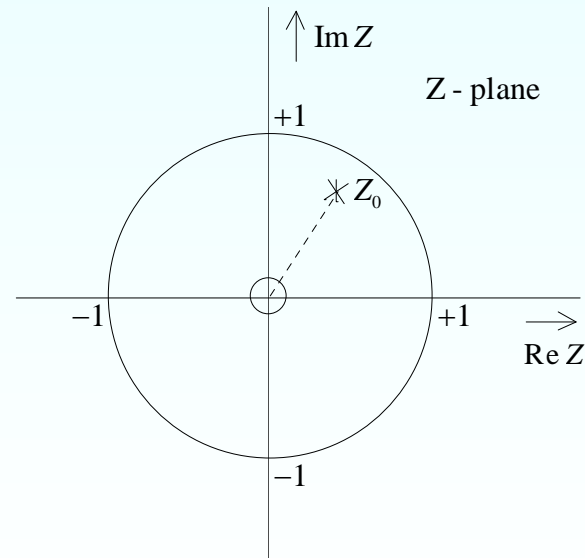


## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

$$\{s(k)\} = \begin{cases} z_0^k & \text{for } k \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } k < 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{where } z_0 = |z_0|e^{j\phi_0} \text{ and } |z_0| \leq 1$$



$$S_Z(z) = \frac{z}{z - z_0}$$



## 2.4.4 Causal Signal Functions

$$z = e^{j\Omega} \quad |z| = 1$$

$$\{s(k)\} \quad \mathcal{F} \quad S_Z(z) = R_Z(z) + jX_Z(z) \quad \Rightarrow \quad S_Z(e^{j\Omega}) = R_Z(e^{j\Omega}) + jX_Z(e^{j\Omega})$$

$$R_Z(e^{j\Omega}) = s(0) - \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\pi}^{+\pi} X_Z(e^{j\eta}) \sin(k\eta) d\eta \right] \cos(k\Omega)$$

$$X_Z(e^{j\Omega}) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \int_{-\pi}^{+\pi} R_Z(e^{j\eta}) \cos(k\eta) d\eta \right] \sin(k\Omega)$$



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$E_s = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |s(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$

$$s_n(t) = \frac{s(t)}{\sqrt{E_s}} \quad g_n(t) = \frac{g(t)}{\sqrt{E_g}}$$

$$E_{s-g} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (s_n(t) - g_n(t))^2 dt = 2 - r_{sg}$$

$$r_{sg} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)g(t)dt}{\sqrt{E_s E_g}}$$



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$s(t) = s_{\text{Re}}(t) + js_{\text{Im}}(t)$$

$$E_s = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)s^*(t)dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |s(t)|^2 dt$$

$$r_{sg} = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)g^*(t)dt}{\sqrt{E_s E_g}} \quad -1 \leq r_{sg} \leq +1$$

$$s(t) = kg(t) \quad E_s = k^2 E_g \quad r_{sg} = +1$$





## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$s(t) = -kg(t)$$

$$E_s = k^2 E_g \quad r_{sg} = -1$$

$$r_{sg} = 0$$

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) g^*(t + \tau) dt$$

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) g^*(t + \tau) dt = s(\tau) \otimes g(\tau)$$



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = \int_{+\infty}^{-\infty} s(-\theta)g^*(-\theta + \tau)d(-\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(-\theta)g^*(\tau - \theta)d\theta = s(-\tau) * g(\tau)$$

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} R_{sg}(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \rho_{sg}(\tau)e^{-j\omega\tau}d\tau = S(-\omega)G^*(-\omega)$$

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = s(-t) * g^*(t) \quad f(-t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} F(-\omega)$$

$$\mathcal{F} \downarrow \quad R_{sg}(\omega) = S(-\omega) * G^*(-\omega) \quad f^*(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} F^*(-\omega)$$



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$\rho_{sg}(-\tau) = \rho_{gs}^*(\tau) \quad \mathcal{F} \quad R_{sg}(-\omega) = R_{gs}^*(-\omega)$$

$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = \rho_{gs}^*(-\tau) \quad \mathcal{F} \quad R_{sg}(\omega) = R_{gs}^*(\omega)$$

$$s(t) \otimes g(t) \neq g(t) \otimes s(t)$$

$$s(t) \otimes g(t) = g(-t) \otimes s(-t)$$



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$\rho_{ss}(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)s^*(t+\tau)dt = s(t) \otimes s(t)$$



$$R_{ss}(\omega) = S(-\omega)S^*(\omega) = |S(-\omega)|^2$$

$$\rho_{ss}(\tau) = s(t) \otimes s(t) = s(-t) * s(t)$$

$$\rho_{ss}(t) = s(t) \otimes s(t) = s(-t) * s(t)$$



$$R_{ss}(\omega) = S^*(\omega)S(\omega) = |S(\omega)|^2$$

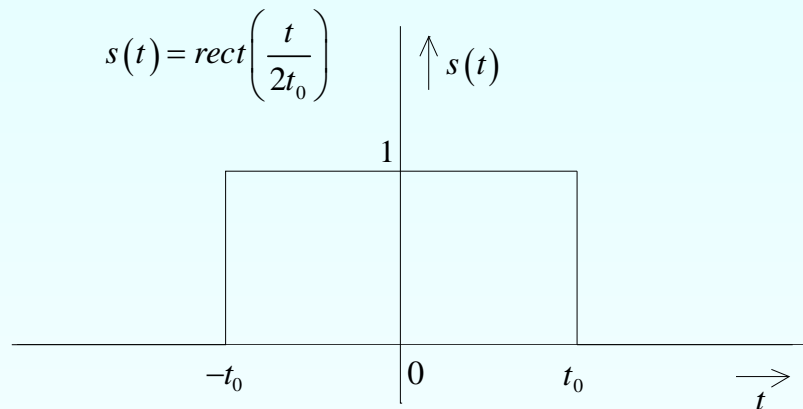


## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{ss}(0) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t)s(t)dt = E_s \quad (\text{signal energy of } s(t)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} R_{ss}(\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega \Big|_{t=0} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |S(\omega)|^2 d\omega = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |S(2\pi f)|^2 df\end{aligned}$$

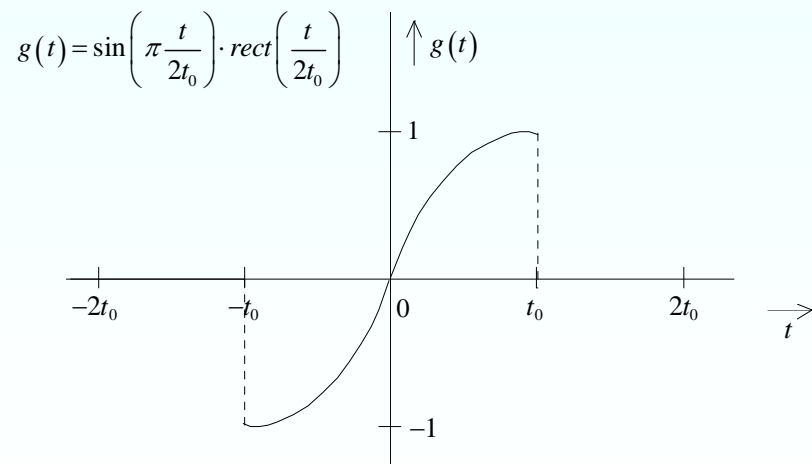


## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals



$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = s(t) \otimes g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) g^*(t + \tau) dt$$

$$= 2 \frac{t_0}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi\tau}{2t_0}\right) \text{rect}\left(\frac{\tau}{4t_0}\right)$$



$$\rho_{gs}(\tau) = \rho_{sg}^*(-\tau) = \rho_{sg}(-\tau)$$

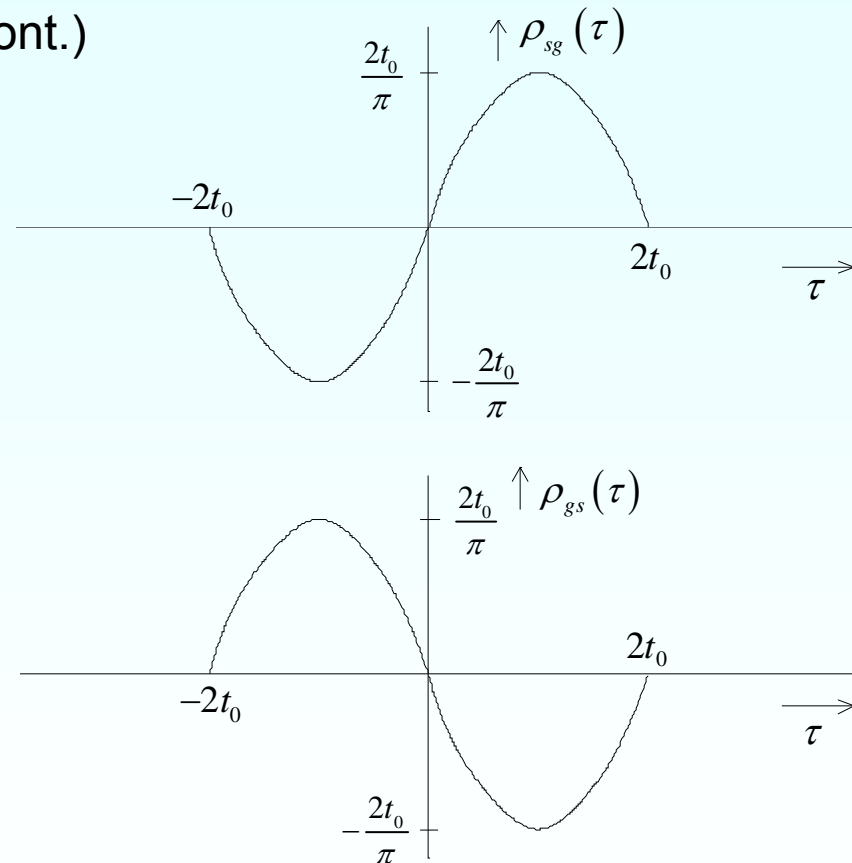
$$= -2 \frac{t_0}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi\tau}{2t_0}\right) \text{rect}\left(\frac{\tau}{4t_0}\right)$$

**Two deterministic energy signal  $s(t)$  and  $g(t)$**



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

Example 1: (cont.)



**The resulted Cross-correlation function for  $s(t)$  and  $g(t)$**

## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

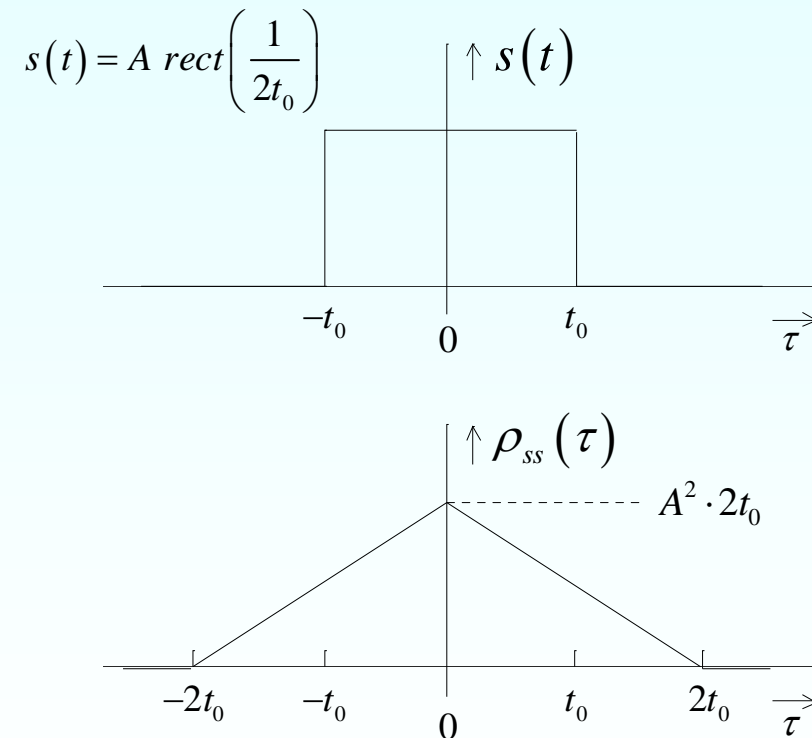
$$\rho_{sg}(\tau) = s(t) \otimes g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} s(t) g^*(t + \tau) dt = 2 \frac{t_0}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi\tau}{2t_0}\right) \text{rect}\left(\frac{\tau}{4t_0}\right)$$

$$\rho_{gs}(\tau) = \rho_{sg}^*(-\tau) = \rho_{sg}(-\tau) = -2 \frac{t_0}{\pi} \sin\left(\frac{\pi\tau}{2t_0}\right) \text{rect}\left(\frac{\tau}{4t_0}\right)$$





## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals



## 2.5.1 Correlation Functions and Energy Spec. of Deterministic Analog Energy Signals

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_{ss}(\tau) &= s(t) \otimes s(t) = s(-t) * s^*(t) = A \cdot \text{rect}\left(-\frac{t}{2t_0}\right) * A \cdot \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2t_0}\right) \\ &= A^2 2t_0 \Lambda\left(\frac{\tau}{4t_0}\right)\end{aligned}$$



$$R_{ss}(\omega) = 4A^2 t_0^2 \text{sinc}^2(\omega t_0)$$

