

18-2-20

SIGNALS AND SYSTEMS.

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Google classroom: Signals and systems spring 2020.

code: evjx2d6

Signals and Systems By Oppenheim.

Signal:

Signal is anything that is a function of one or more independent variables and it typically carries some information.

One independent variable \Rightarrow One dimensional.
Two " " " \Rightarrow Two dimensional.

Signal is not necessarily time dependent.

eg Temperature is a signal that depends on height (distance).
 \rightarrow Image is a two dimensional signal depending on the position (x and y coordinates) (brightness at different points).

Here we will mostly deal with one dimensional signals and assume that they are time dependent.

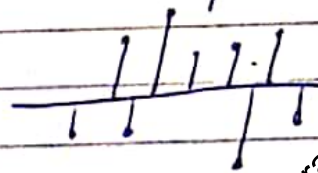
Two types of signals:

1. Continuous time signals.
2. Discrete time signals.

Continuous time signal is a signal that is defined at any point of time.
(which varies continuously w.r.t time).
Represented as $x(t)$.

Discrete time signal is a signal that is defined only for a discrete value of time.
Represented as $x[n]$

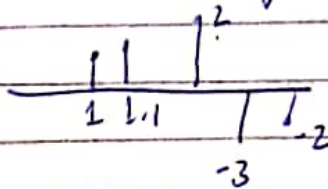
n is also representing time
But a particular value of time.



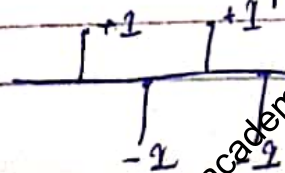
Similarly we have another category i.e. analog and digital signal.

Analog signal is a signal that can take any value. (continuous domain).

eg this is a discrete time analogue signal.

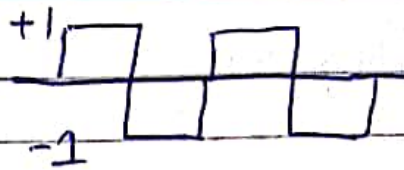


Digital signal is a signal that can only take finite number of values.



discrete time digital

continuous time digital



⇒ Similarly we have periodic and non periodic signals.

A ~~pe~~ signal is periodic if;
 $x(t) = x(t+T)$
for any value of t .

If this condition is not fulfilled for any value of t , so the function is non periodic.

T → fundamental periodic → the smallest value of T for which function is periodic.

For a periodic discrete time signal,
 $x[n] = x[n+N]$.

⇒ We also have deterministic and random signals.

Deterministic signal is a signal whose value can be predicted.

It always has a mathematical equation.

Consider

$$x(t) = \sin \omega t$$

continuous

$$x[n] = \sin \omega n$$

discrete

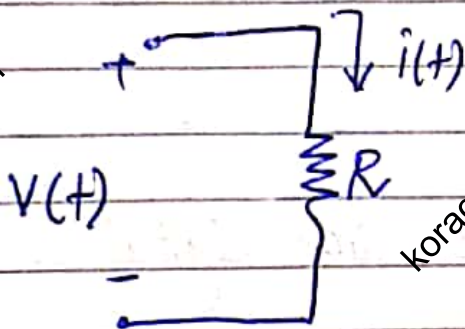
$\sin \omega t$ is periodic whereas $\sin \omega n$ may or may not be periodic.

↳ periodic for a particular value of ω .

Lecture 2

25/02/20

Power signal / Energy signal.



$$P(t) = V(t) \times i(t)$$

or

$$P(t) = \frac{V^2(t)}{R}$$

or

Instantaneous power $\leftarrow P(t) = I^2(t) R$

Energy dissipated during time interval;
 $t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$

$$E = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} p(t) dt$$

Average power;

$$P = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} P(t) dt$$

CT $\rightarrow x(t)$

D.T $\rightarrow x[n]$

Generally complex

$$E = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

$$P = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

$$E = \sum_{n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2 \quad n_1 \leq n \leq n_2$$

$$P = \frac{1}{n_2 - n_1 + 1} \sum_{n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2$$

The above formulas are for finite interval of time;
For infinite interval i.e.,

$$-\infty \leq t \leq \infty$$

$$E_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^{+T} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

$$P_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{+T} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Similarly for discrete time signals;

$$\text{if } -\infty \leq n \leq \infty$$

$$E_x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=-N}^{+N} |x[n]|^2$$

$$P_x = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^{+N} |x[n]|^2$$

A signal is an energy signal if;

$$E_x < \infty$$

Similarly a signal is power signal if;

$$P_x < \infty$$

Signal Transformations

① Time shift

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

$$x[n] \rightarrow x[n - n_0]$$

If t_0 is +ve \rightarrow delay

If t_0 is -ve \rightarrow advance

② Time reversal

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(-t)$$

$$x[n] \rightarrow x[-n]$$

The signal will flip around the vertical axis.

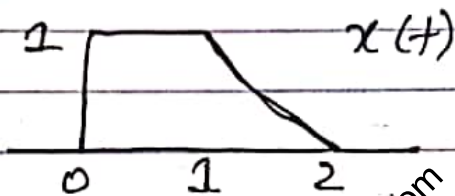
③ Time Scaling

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(at)$$

if $|a| > 1 \rightarrow$ compression.

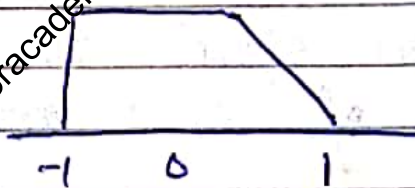
if $|a| < 1 \rightarrow$ expand

Example.

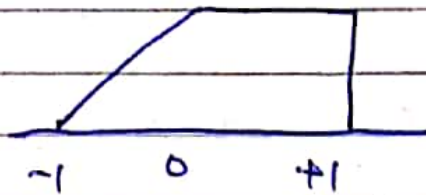


$$x\left(-\frac{3t}{2} + 1\right) = ?$$

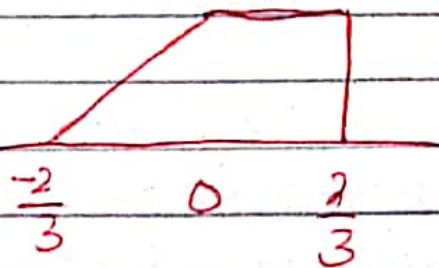
$$x(t+1) \rightarrow$$



$$x(-t+1) \rightarrow$$



$$x\left(-\frac{3t}{2} + 1\right)$$



Even signal / odd signal:

A signal is even if after applying time reversal, the signal shape is same.

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

$$x[n] = x[-n]$$

A signal is odd if;

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

$$x[n] = -x[-n]$$

Any given signal can be represented as a sum of even and odd signal.

$$x(t) = \text{Even} \{x(t)\} + \text{Odd} \{x(t)\}$$

$$\text{Even} \{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2} \{x(t) + x(-t)\}$$

$$\text{Odd} \{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2} \{x(t) - x(-t)\}$$

Similarly a discrete time signal can also be represented as a sum of even and odd signals.

$$x[n] = \text{Even} \{x[n]\} + \text{Odd} \{x[n]\}$$

Basic Signals:

① Exponential and Sinusoidal signals:

First we see them in continuous time domain.

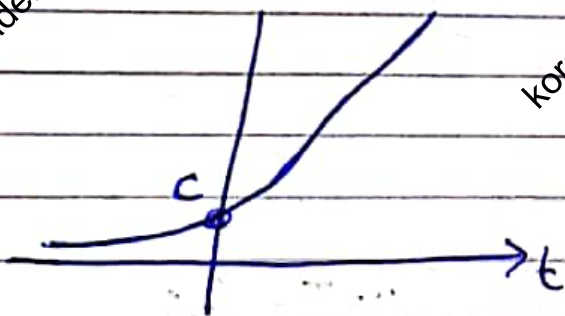
$$x(t) = C e^{at}$$

C and a are generally complex.

Case 1 If C and a are real.

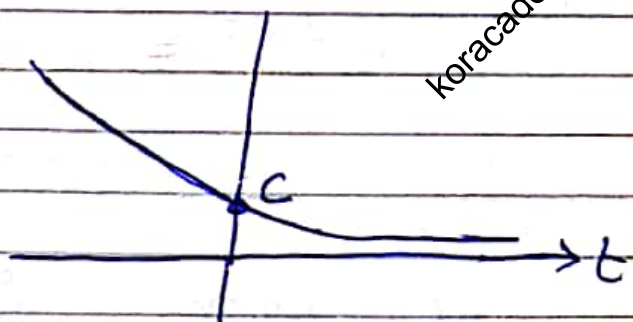
↳ Real exponential signal.

$a > 0$



exponential growth

$a < 0$



exponential decay

C is the value of function at $t=0$

If $a=0 \rightarrow x(t) = C$

Constant function is a special case of real exponential function.

Case 2 $C=1$ and a is purely imaginary.

say $a = j\omega_0$

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t}$$

Complex periodic exponential signal

It is very much similar to a sinusoidal signal.

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) \\ = \operatorname{Re} \{ A e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi)} \}$$

Why periodic?

As for periodic $x(t) = x(t+T)$

$$e^{j\omega_0 t} = e^{j\omega_0 (t+T)}$$

$$e^{j\omega_0 t} = e^{j\omega_0 t} \cdot e^{j\omega_0 T}$$

$$1 = e^{j\omega_0 T}$$

The condition is fulfilled if $\omega_0 T = 2\pi$

$$\text{As } e^{j2\pi} = 1$$



fundamental period $\leftarrow T_0 = \frac{2\pi}{|\omega_0|}$

Suppose $x(t)$ is periodic with fundamental period T_0 .

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega t}$$

$$x(t) = x(t+T_0)$$

$$e^{j\omega t} = e^{j\omega t} e^{j\omega T_0}$$

$$1 = e^{j\omega T_0}$$

condition satisfies if $\omega T_0 = 2\pi K$

$$\omega = \omega_0 K \quad \leftarrow \quad \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T_0} K$$

where $K = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$

$e^{jk\omega_0 t} \rightarrow$ Harmonically related exponential signals.

$K=0$ Constant signal \rightarrow fundamental $f=0$
period \rightarrow undefined.

$K=2$ f will be $2\omega_0$.
fundamental period will be $T_0/2$

$K=1$ $\omega_0 \rightarrow$ frequency. fund period $\rightarrow T_0$

$\rightarrow T_0$ is its period but not fundamental.

Every signal for every value of K will be a new signal but have one period T_0 in common.

Case 3 c and a are both complex.

$$c = |c| e^{j\theta}$$

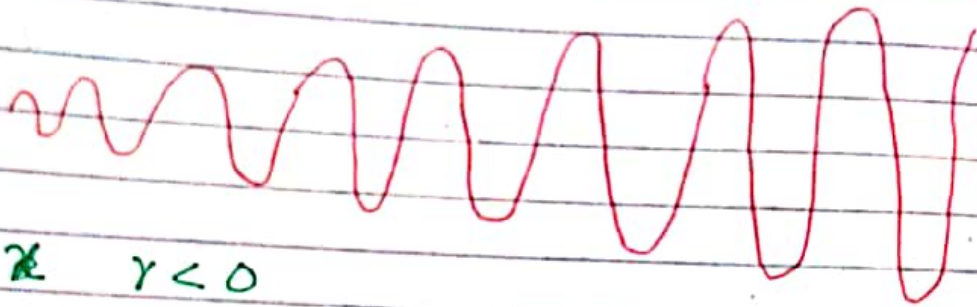
$$a = r + j\omega_0$$

$$x(t) = |c| e^{j\theta} e^{(\gamma + j\omega_0)t}$$

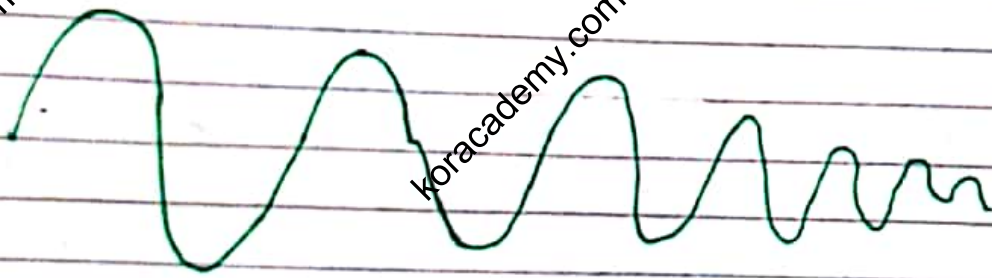
$$x(t) = |c| e^{\gamma t} e^{j(\omega_0 t + \theta)}$$

↳ This is a real exponential multiplied with a periodic signal.

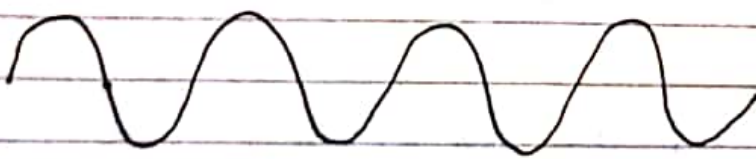
$$\gamma > 0$$



$$\gamma < 0$$



$$\gamma = 0$$



Next we consider discrete time signals.

$$x[n] = C \alpha^n$$

$$\text{or } x[n] = C e^{j\beta n} \quad \text{where } \alpha = e^{j\beta}$$

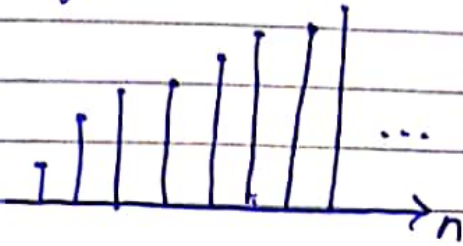
C and α are generally complex.

Case 1 c and α are both real.

$$x[n] = C \alpha^n$$

is real exponential signal.

If $|\alpha| > 1$

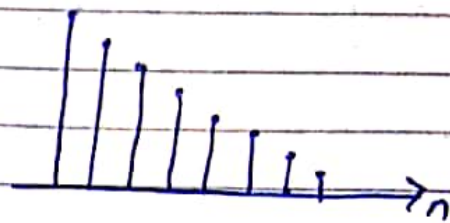


exp growth

Say $\alpha = +2$

same

If $|\alpha| < 1$

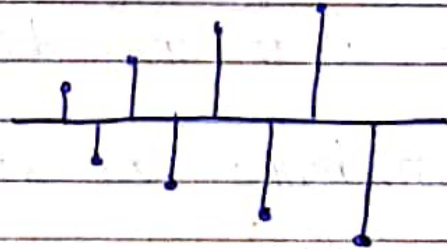


exp decay.

$\alpha = -2$

$$\alpha = (-2)^1, (-2)^2, (-2)^3 \leftarrow$$

....



If $|\alpha| = 1 \rightarrow$ constant function = C .

Case 2 $C = 1$ $\beta = \text{imaginary} = j\omega_0$

$$x[n] = e^{j\omega_0 n}$$

Complex periodic exponential signal.

not always periodic (discussed later)

Closely related to sinusoidal signals
 $x[n] = A \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi)$

Case 3 c and α are complex.

$$c = |c| e^{j\theta} \quad \alpha = |\alpha| e^{j\omega_0}$$

$$x[n] = |c| e^{j\theta} |\alpha|^n e^{j\omega_0 n}$$

$$x[n] = |c| |\alpha|^n e^{j(\omega_0 n + \theta)}$$

If $|\alpha| > 1 \rightarrow$ growing sinusoidal signal.

If $|\alpha| < 1 \rightarrow$ decaying sinusoidal signal.

If $|\alpha| = 1 \rightarrow$ constant sinusoidal signal.

We have similarities in C:T and D:T
but what are differences?

Considering case 2;

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t}$$

$$\text{and } x[n] = e^{j\omega_0 n}$$

\hookrightarrow its periodicity is within a certain finite range.

\hookrightarrow For any values of ω_0 it is periodic.

\hookrightarrow say increase frequency from ω_0 to $\omega_0 + 2\pi$.

$$e^{j(\omega_0 + 2\pi)n} = e^{j\omega_0 n} \cdot e^{j2\pi n} = e^{j\omega_0 n}$$

So we did not get a new signal with a higher frequency; but we got the same signal back.

So here

$$0 \leq \omega_0 \leq 2\pi$$

$$\text{or } -\pi \leq \omega_0 \leq \pi$$

Frequency is maximum at $\omega_0 = \pi$

Signals whose frequency is near to π is a high frequency signal and signal whose frequency is near to 0 to 2π is a low frequency signal.

Frequency increases from 0 to π , then decreases from π to 2π and repeats in such a way.

Condition for periodicity;

$$x[n] = x[n+N]$$

$$e^{j\omega_0 n} = e^{j\omega_0 (n+N)}$$

$$e^{j\omega_0 n} = e^{j\omega_0 n} \cdot e^{j\omega_0 N}$$

$$1 = e^{j\omega_0 N}$$

This is only true if;

$$\omega_0 N = 2\pi m$$

$$m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

$$\frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{m}{N} \rightarrow \text{condition in discrete domain.}$$

$\frac{m}{N}$ is $\frac{\text{integer}}{\text{integer}}$ is a rational number.

→ This condition also applies for sinusoidal signals.

Example

$$x(t) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{12}t\right) \rightarrow T=12 \quad \text{Periodic}$$

$$x[n] = \cos\left[\frac{2\pi}{12}n\right] \rightarrow \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{12} \rightarrow N$$

↳ periodic at $N=12$.

Example

$$x(t) = \cos\left(\frac{8\pi}{31}t\right) \rightarrow \text{periodic} \quad T = 31/4$$

$$x[n] = \cos\left[\frac{8\pi}{31}n\right] \rightarrow \text{periodic} \quad \downarrow \quad N=31$$

Example

$$x(t) = \cos\left(\frac{t}{6}\right)$$

periodic with $T_0 = \frac{2\pi}{1} = 2\pi$

$$x[n] = \cos\left(\frac{n}{6}\right)$$

$$\frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1/6}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{12\pi}$$

↓

not periodic

← not rational

It is not necessary that a signal in continuous time and discrete time have the same period.

Lecture 3

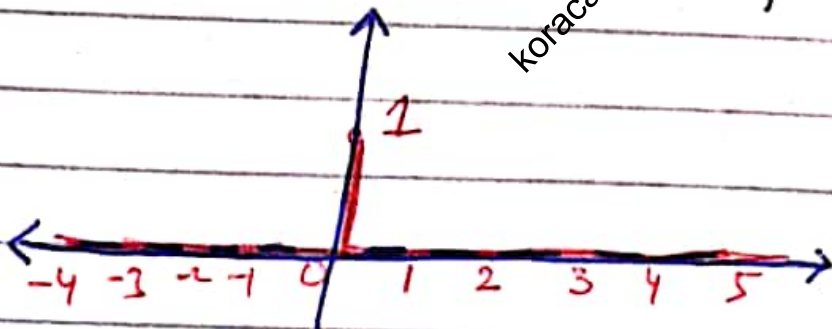
03/03/20

② Unit Impulse and Unit Step Signals

First we consider the discrete time domain.

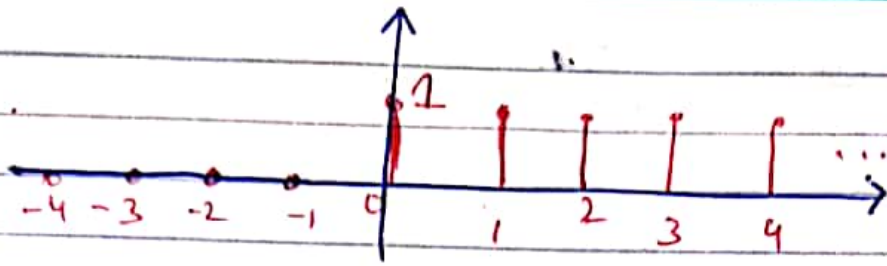
Unit Impulse Signal:

$$\delta[n] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } n \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } n = 0 \end{cases}$$



Unit step signal

$$u[n] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } n < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } n \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Representing Unit Impulse in terms of Unit step.

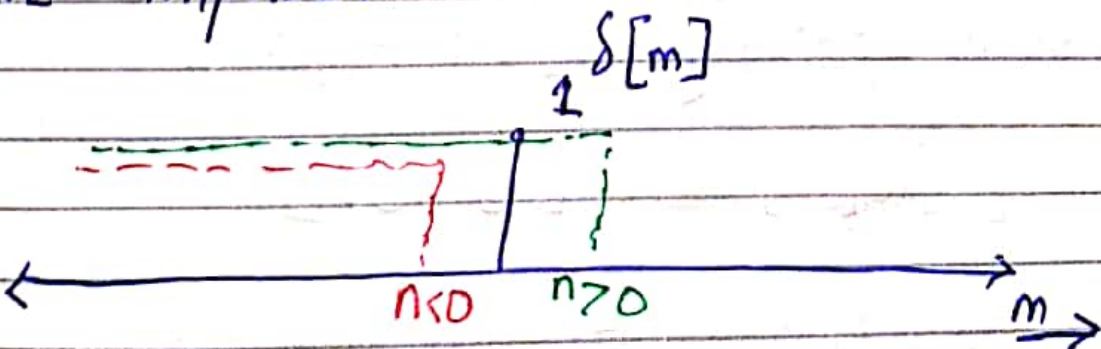
$$\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n-1]$$

Unit impulse signal is the first difference of unit step.

Representing unit step in terms of unit impulse signal

$$u[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^n \delta[m]$$

Unit step is the running sum of unit impulse.



$$u[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^n \delta[m] = \begin{cases} 0 & n < 0 \\ 1 & n \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

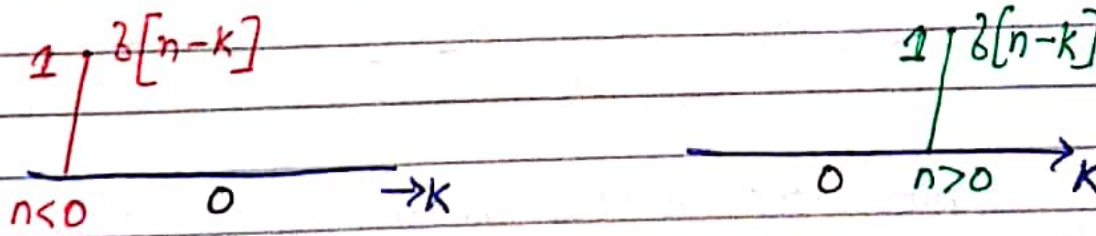
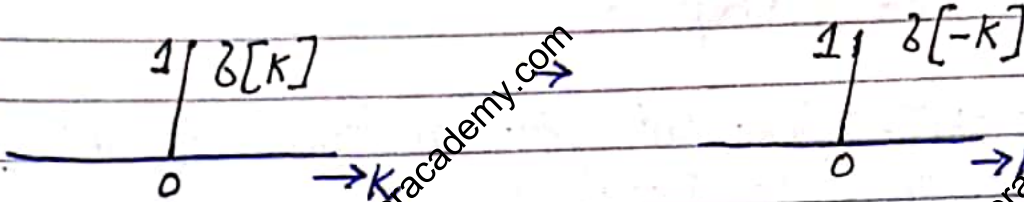
Alternate form;

$$m \rightarrow k = n - m$$

$$u[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^0 \delta[n-k]$$

or if change limits;

$$u[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n-k]$$



Sampling property of unit impulse;

$$x[n] \delta[n] = x[0] \delta[n]$$

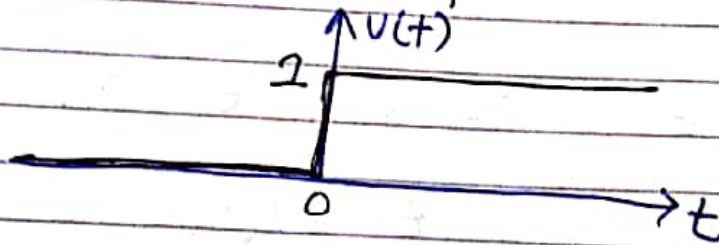
$$x[n] \delta[n-n_0] = x[n_0] \delta[n-n_0]$$

Next we consider these signals in continuous time domain.

Unit Step signal

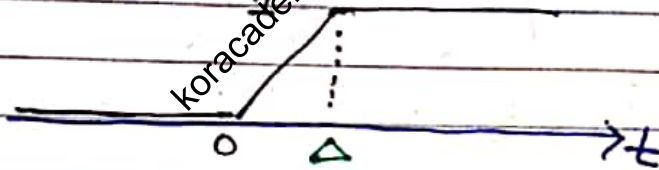
ideal \downarrow

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



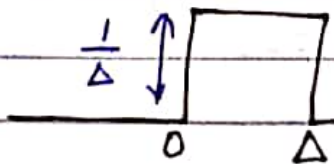
discontinuity at $t=0$

An approximated continuous version;



$$u(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} u_{\Delta}(t)$$

Unit Impulse; $\delta(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u_{\Delta}(t)$

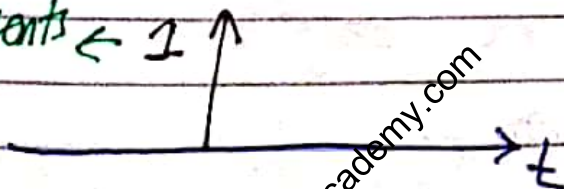


Area = 1

Ideal unit impulse;

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \delta_{\Delta}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u_{\Delta}(t)$$

this represents $\leftarrow 1 \uparrow$
area



Unit step is the running integral of unit impulse function.

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

or let $\tau = \sigma = t - \tau$

$$u(t) = \int_{\infty}^0 \delta(t - \sigma) (-d\sigma)$$

$$u(t) = \int_0^{\infty} \delta(t - \sigma) d\sigma$$

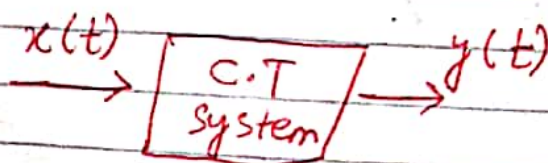
The sampling property;

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

$$x(t) \delta(t - t_0) = x(t_0) \delta(t - t_0)$$

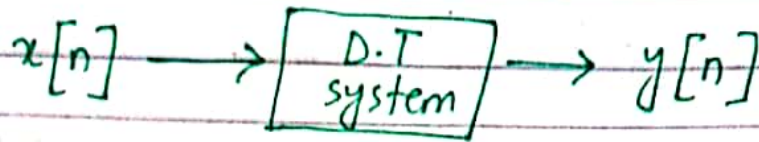
SYSTEMS

A system is any entity that takes an input signal and provides the desired output after applying some processes.



$$x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$$

process C.T. signals.



$$x[n] \rightarrow y[n]$$

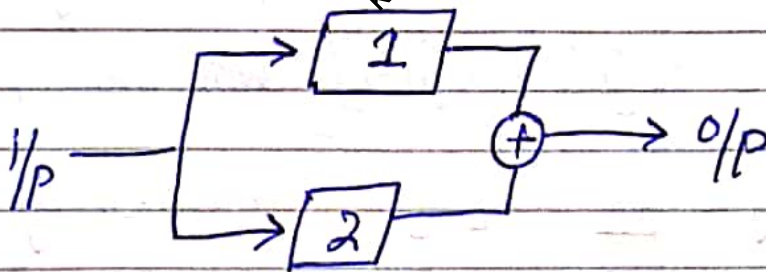
processes discrete time signals.

Inter Connection of Systems:

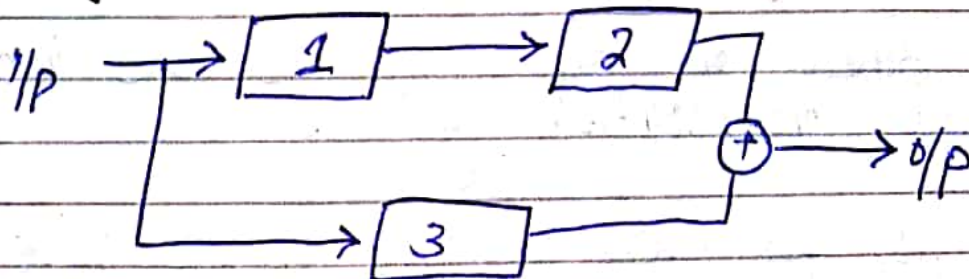
i. Series (cascade)



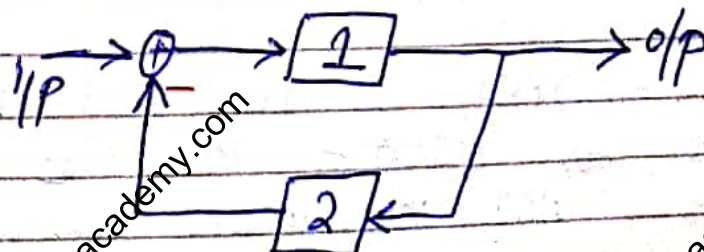
ii. Parallel



iii. Hybrid



iv. Feedback



Basic System Properties

① Based on memory, we have memoryless and with memory systems.

If the system o/p depends only on the present i/p is memoryless system.

If the system o/p depends on the present i/p at that time and also the past o/p is system with memory.

eg $y[n] = 2x[n]$ memoryless

$y(t) = x(t-1)$ with memory

$y[n] = x[n] + x[n-1]$ with memory

Accumulator $y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$ with memory

$y(t) = x(t+1)$ with memory

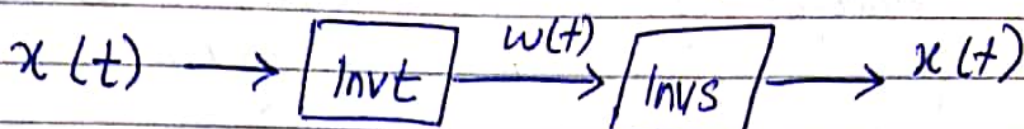
② Based on invertibility, we have invertible and non invertible systems.

If for every distinct i/p we have a distinct o/p, this system is invertible.

Whereas if we don't have distinct o/p for distinct i/p, the system is non invertible.

For every invertible system, an associated inverse system exists.

Inverse system is that system which if connected with an inverted system gives us the i/p back at o/p.



Example

$$y(t) = 2x(t) \rightarrow \text{Invertible.}$$

$$y(t) = x^2(t) \rightarrow \text{non invertible}$$

$$y(t) = 0 \rightarrow \text{NI}$$

Consider the accumulator;

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k]$$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{n-1} x[k] + x[n]$$

$$y[n] = y[n-1] + x[n]$$

$$y[n] - y[n-1] = x[n]$$

↓
so Invertible
as inverse system exists.

③ Based on causality, we have causal and non causal systems.

If the o/p of system depends on present and past i/p's only is a causal system.

Whereas if it also depends on the future i/p's it is a non causal system.

Example

$$y[n] = x[n] - x[n+1] \quad \text{Non causal.}$$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n x[k] \quad \text{Causal}$$

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{2M+1} \sum_{k=-M}^M x[n-k] \quad \text{N.C}$$

↪ Averaging system

$$y[n] = x[-n] \quad \text{N.C}$$

④ Based on stability we have stable and unstable systems.

If we apply a bounded i/p and get a bounded o/p, such system is a stable system.

Whereas for a bounded i/p if we have an unbounded o/p, such system is unstable.

Example

Say $y(t) = t x(t) \rightarrow$ unstable

If $x(t) = 1$

$y(t) = t$

$y(t) = e^{x(t)} \rightarrow$ stable

$$|x(t)| < B < \infty$$

$$|y(t)| < e^B < \infty$$

⑤ Based on time invariance we have time invariant and time varying system.

If we introduce a time shift in the i/p and the o/p shifts by the same amount, so this is a time invariant system.

i.e. if $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$
so $x(t-t_0) \rightarrow y(t-t_0)$

If the i/p shift does not equal the o/p shift, then it is time varying.

Example

$$y(t) = \sin |x(t)|$$

For $x(t) = x_1(t)$

$$\rightarrow y_1(t) = \sin |x_1(t)|$$

$$\rightarrow x_2(t) = x_1(t-t_0)$$

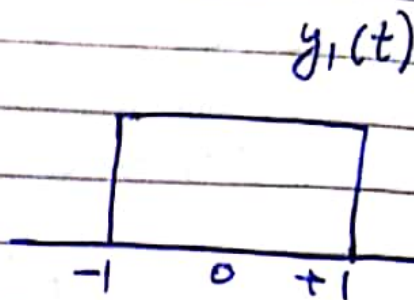
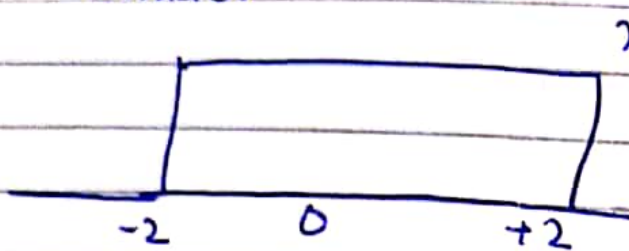
$$\rightarrow y_2(t) = \sin |x_2(t)|$$

$$y_2(t) = \sin |x_1(t-t_0)|$$

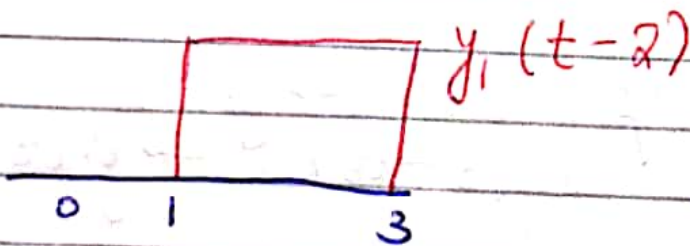
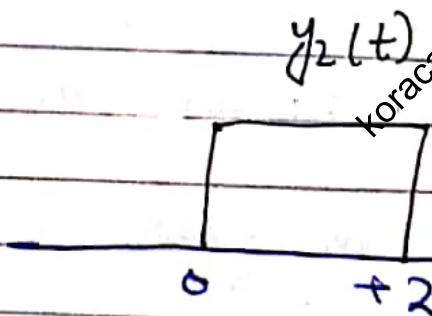
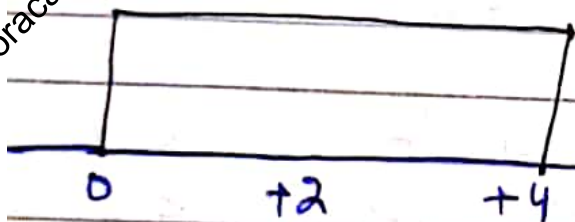
↳ so time invariant system.

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

consider



$$x_2(t) = x_1(t-2)$$



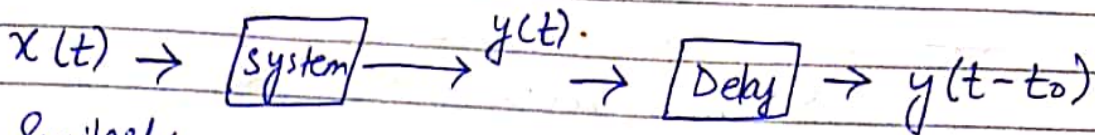
$$y_1(t-2) \neq y_2(t)$$

↳ so time varying

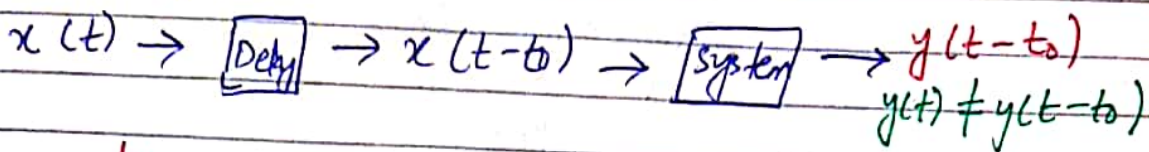
Lecture 4

10/03/20

Time invariance: System behaviour does not change with time.



Similarly



Time invariant variant.

⑥ Based on linearity, we have linear and non linear systems.

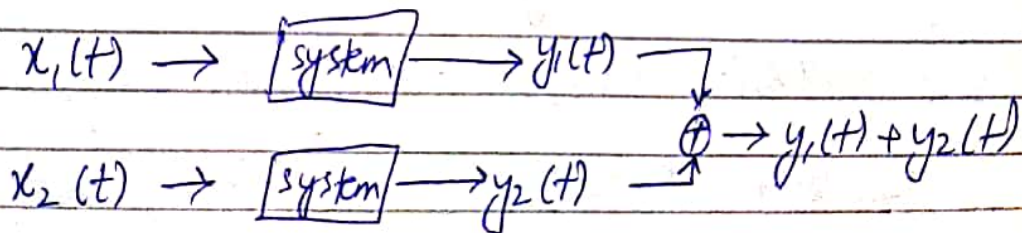
A system following the principle of superposition is a linear system.

Principle of superposition.

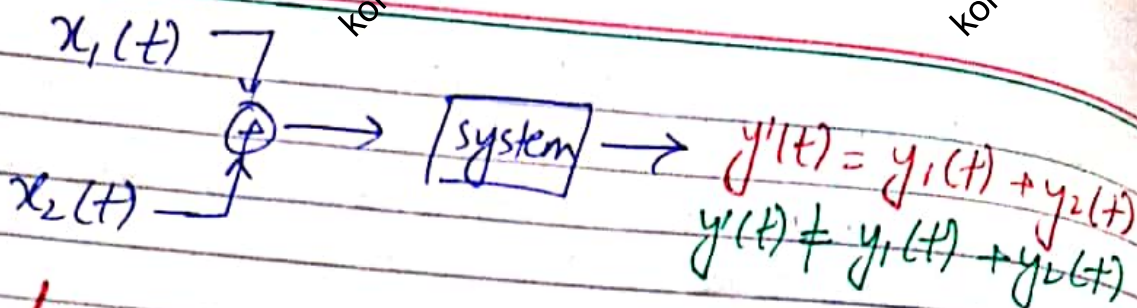
It has two properties;

- i. Additive property.
- ii. Homogeneity property.

Consider;

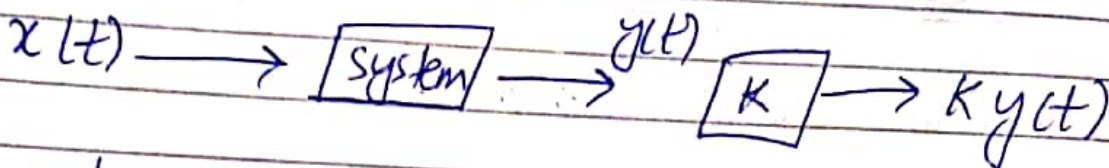


Similarly, if we add first and then apply to the system;

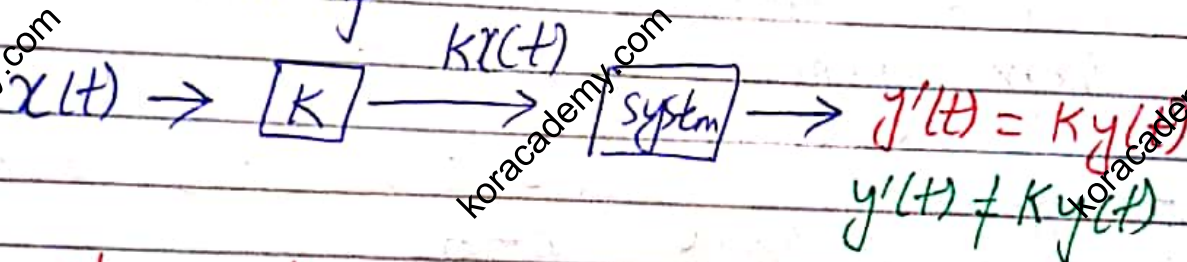


~~Law~~ obeys the additive property.
 does not obey.

Similarly the homogeneity property;



whereas if



obeys homogeneity property.
 does not obey

A linear system must obey both the additive and homogeneity properties.

For a linear system;

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

Similarly for discrete time domain also,

$$ax_1[n] + bx_2[n] \rightarrow ay_1[n] + by_2[n]$$

Examples.

$$y(t) = t x(t) \rightarrow \text{linear system.}$$

$$y_1(t) = t x_1(t) \quad y_2(t) = t x_2(t)$$

$$y_1(t) + y_2(t) = t [x_1(t) + x_2(t)]$$

When i/p $x_1(t) + x_2(t)$

$$\text{So } y'(t) = t [x_1(t) + x_2(t)].$$

So additive property holds and also the homogeneity property does.

$$y(t) = x^2(t) \rightarrow \text{Non linear.}$$

$$y[n] = 2x[n] + 3 \rightarrow \text{non linear.}$$

For a linear system, if the i/p is zero the o/p must also be zero.

Chapter 2

LTI Systems

LTI \rightarrow linear time invariant systems.

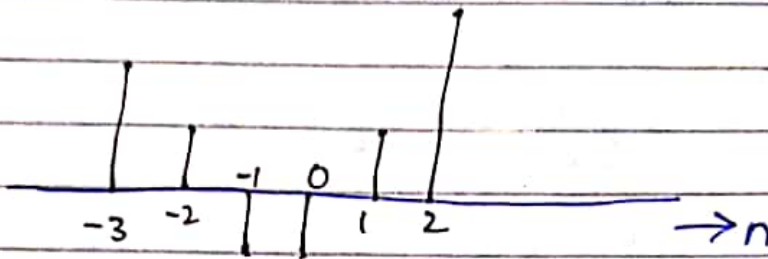
$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y(t)$$

Considering the discrete time domain first;

Discrete time LTI system

Representing a given signal in terms of a basic signal i.e. delta signal $\delta[n]$.

Consider $x[n]$ as shown.

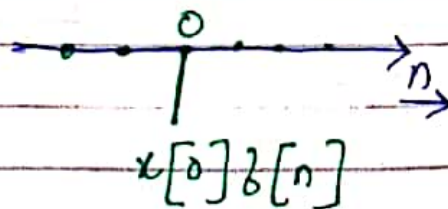
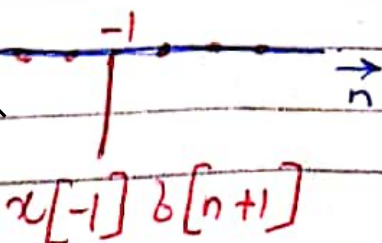
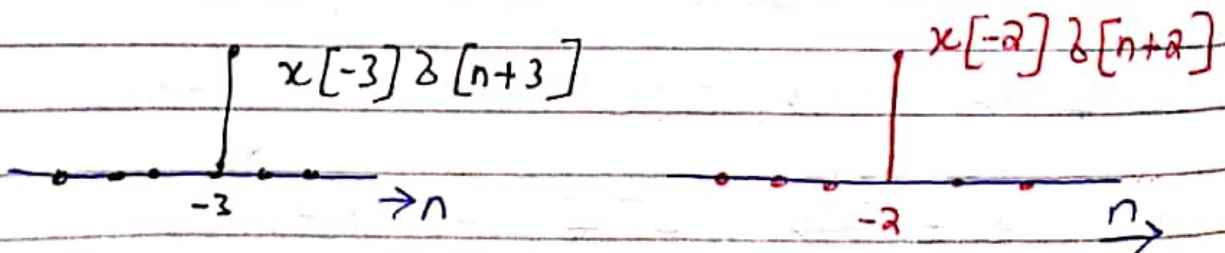


$$\rightarrow x[-3] \delta[n+3] = \begin{cases} x[-3] & \text{for } n = -3 \\ 0 & \text{for } n \neq -3 \end{cases}$$

$$\rightarrow x[-2] \delta[n+2] = \begin{cases} x[-2] & n = -2 \\ 0 & n \neq -2 \end{cases}$$

$$\rightarrow x[-1] \delta[n+1] = \begin{cases} x[-1] & n = -1 \\ 0 & n \neq -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\rightarrow x[0] \delta[n] = \begin{cases} x[0] & , n = 0 \\ 0 & , n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$



$$\text{So this } x[n] = x[-3] \delta[n+3] + x[-2] \delta[n+2] \\ + x[-1] \delta[n+1] + x[0] \delta[n] + x[1] \delta[n-1] \\ + x[2] \delta[n-2].$$

So generalizing for any signal $x[n]$;

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} x[k] \delta[n-k]$$

Discrete time LTI system unit impulse response and convolution sum

$$x[n] = \delta[n] \xrightarrow{\text{LTI system}} y[n] = h[n]$$

unit impulse response.

$$x[n] = \delta[n-k] \xrightarrow{\text{LTI}} y[n] = h[n-k]$$

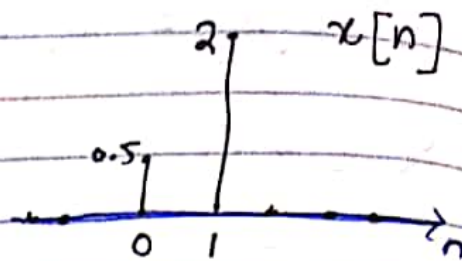
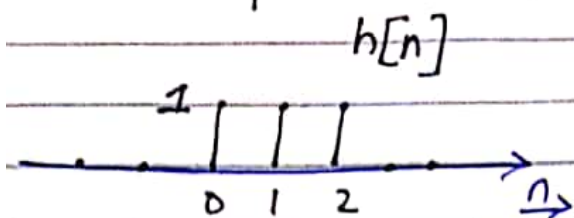
$$x[n] = x[k] \delta[n-k] \xrightarrow{\text{LTI}} y[n] = x[k] h[n-k]$$

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \delta[n-k] \xrightarrow{\text{LTI}} y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

$$\text{convolution sum.} = x[n] * h[n].$$

convolution operator.

Example



$$y[n] = ?$$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

As it is non zero only at $n=0$ and 1 .

$$\therefore y[n] = x[0] h[n-0] + x[1] h[n-1]$$

$$\Rightarrow y[n] = 0.5 h[n] + 2 h[n-1] \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

To plot $y[n]$, we use $\textcircled{1}$

$$y[-1] = 0$$

$$y[n] = 0 \text{ for } n < 0$$

$$h[n] = 0 \quad h[n-1] = 0$$

$$y[0] = 0.5$$

$$y[1] = 2.5$$

$$y[2] = 2.5$$

$$y[3] = 2$$

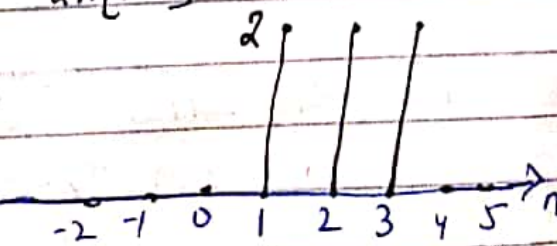
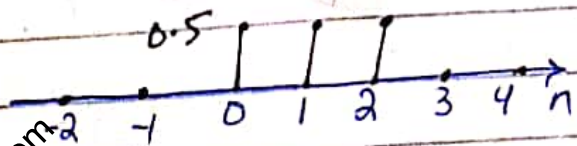
$$y[4] = 0$$

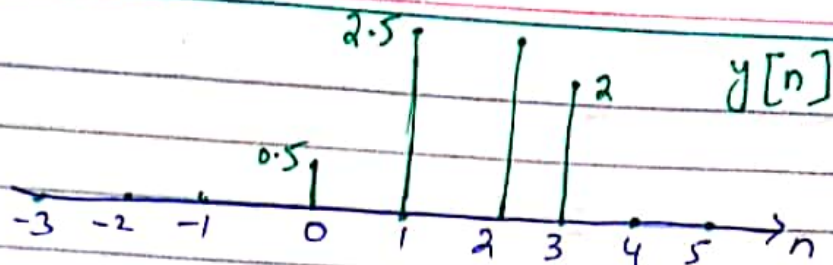
$$y[n] = 0 \text{ for } n \geq 4$$

$\textcircled{1}$

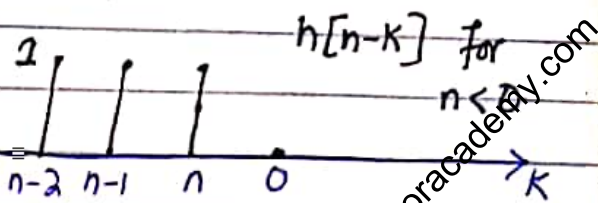
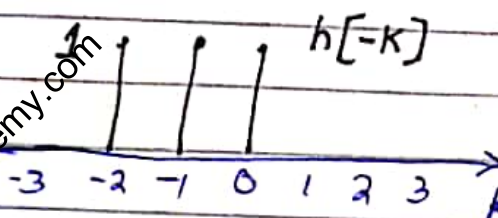
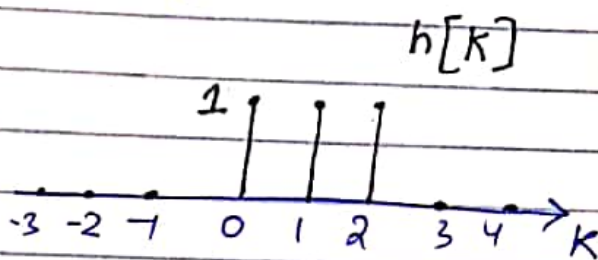
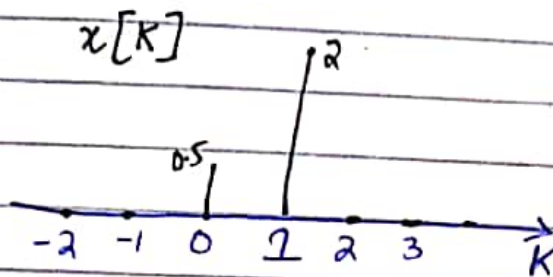
$$0.5 h[n]$$

$$2 h[n-1]$$





The same example by another method;
As $x[n]$ and $h[n]$ are given.



$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k]h[n-k]$$

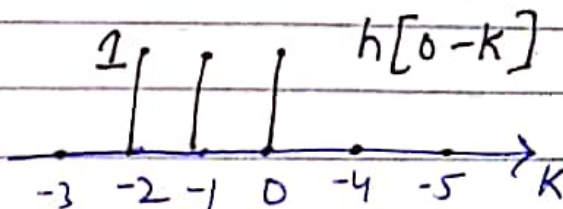
For $n < 0$

$$y[n] = 0$$

As product of $x[k]$ and $h[n-k]$ is zero
for $n < 0$.

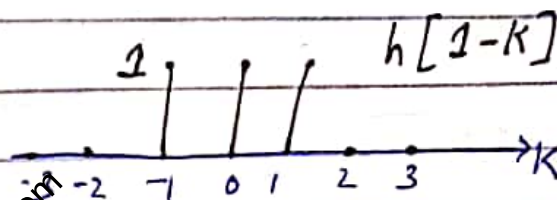
For $n = 0$

$$y[0] = 0.5$$



For $n = 1$

$$y[1] = 2.5$$



Convolution sum

$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq n \leq 4 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$h[n] = \begin{cases} \alpha^n & 0 \leq n \leq 6 \quad \alpha > 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

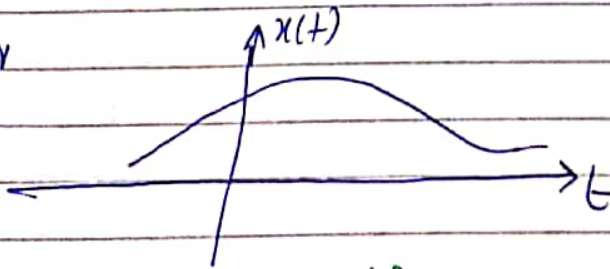
$$y[n] = ? \quad y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

Lecture 5 02/06/20

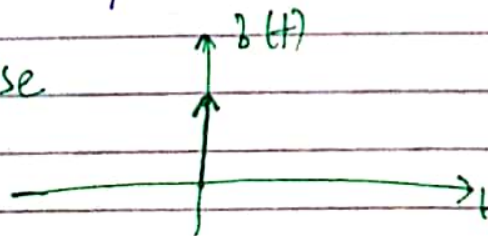
Continuous Time LTI System

The same strategy i.e. represent any signal $x(t)$ as a linear combination of basic signals (unit impulse).

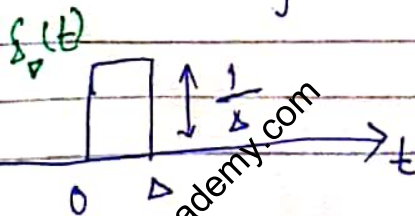
Consider



unit impulse



This signal is basically derived from;

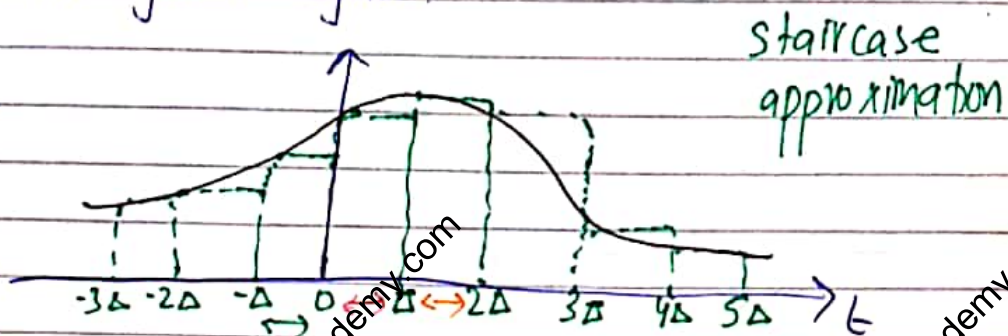


width Δ and height $1/\Delta$. Area = 1

So decreasing width increases height.

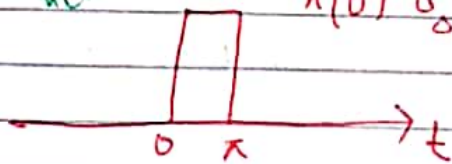
$$\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \delta_{\Delta}(t) \rightarrow \delta(t)$$

So the given signal $x(t)$

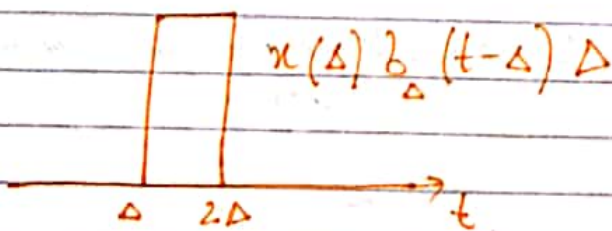


Set value to $x(t)$

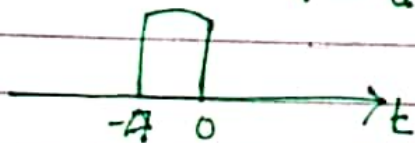
$$x(\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t) \Delta = x(0)$$



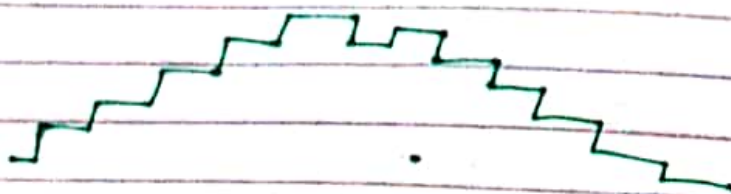
$$\delta_{\Delta}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Delta}, & 0 \leq t \leq \Delta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$x(-\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t + \Delta) \Delta$$



The staircase approximated signal is as;



$$\hat{x}(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t-k\Delta) \Delta$$

How to make this approximation more accurate to $x(t)$?

↳ Apply limit to Δ .

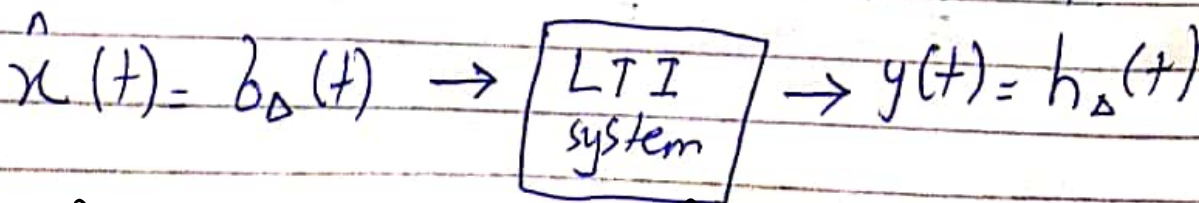
$$x(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t-k\Delta) \Delta$$

Summation to integration. when duration is very small, DT to CS.
 δ_{Δ} becomes ideal impulse (δ)

$k\Delta$ to τ → b/c $k\Delta$ is a discrete number and we need continuous.

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

Unit Impulse Response



Time invariance property;

$$\delta_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow h_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta)$$

Homogeneity property

$$x(k\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow x(k\Delta) h_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta)$$

A signal applied will consist of a number of impulses

$$\hat{x}(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k\Delta) \delta_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta) \Delta \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}}$$

$$\hat{y}(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x(k\Delta) h_{\Delta}(t - k\Delta) \Delta$$

Again if Δ is very small
 $\Delta \rightarrow 0$

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

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

convolution ~~sum~~ integral

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

\hookrightarrow convolution operator

Lecture 6

09/06/20

DT LTI system

$$x[n] = \alpha^n u[n]$$

$$0 < \alpha < 1$$

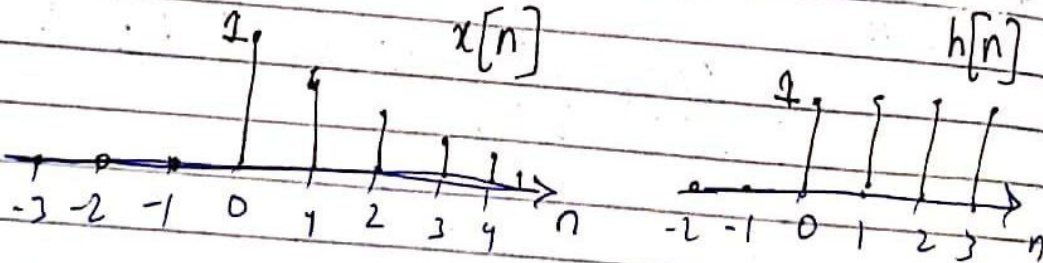
$$h[n] = u[n]$$

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{h[n]} \rightarrow y[n] = ?$$

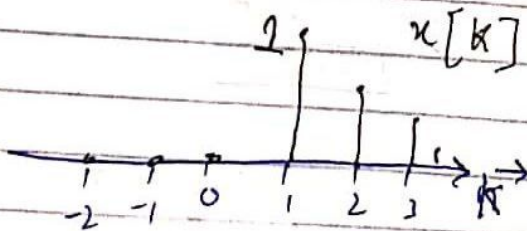
As $y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$

$$= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

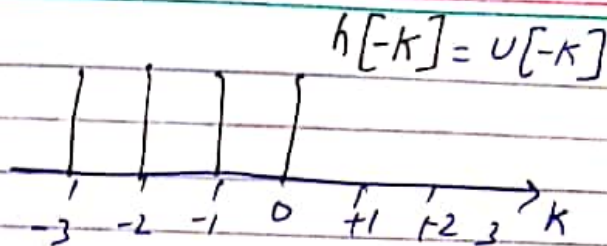
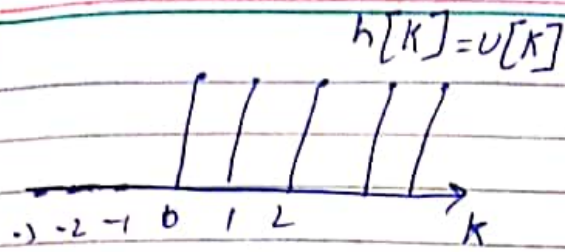
Solving graphically.



For $x[k]$ only replace variables i.e. n by k .

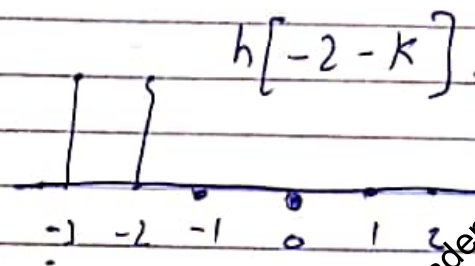
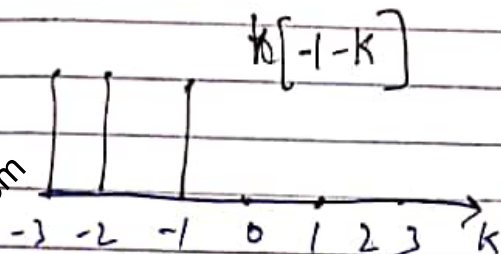


We need to draw $h[n-k]$ for a particular value of n .
↳ we are interested in all possible values of n .

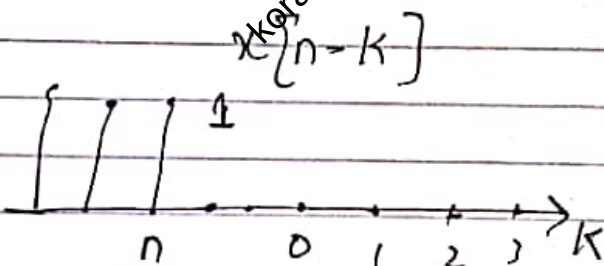


Now $h[n-k]$

Say for a -ve value ie -1 ie $h[-1-k]$
 the signal $h[-k]$ will be shifted left by 1 unit.



So;

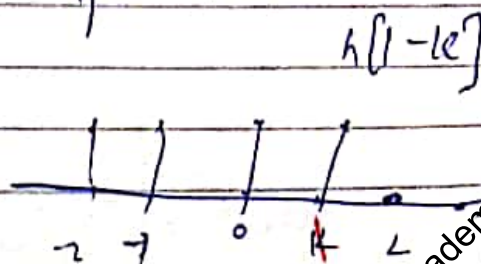
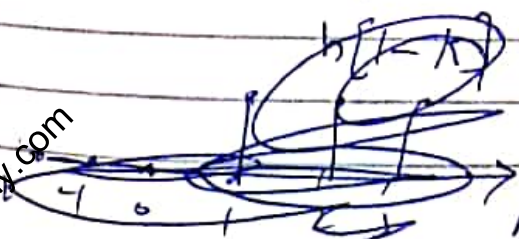


$n < 0$

So the product; $x[k] h[n-k] = ? \text{ } \circ$
 as no overlap. for $n < 0$.
 So therefore $y[n] = 0$ for $n < 0$.

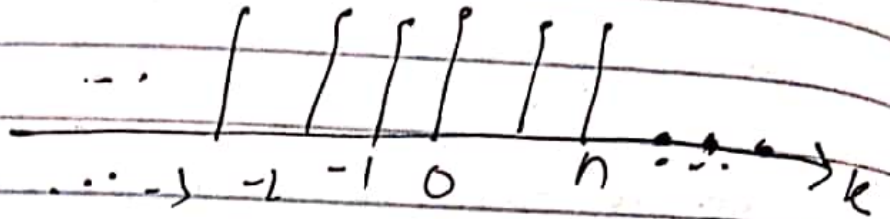
Similarly for positive values of n .

We plot $h[n-k]$ for $n > 0$.





Similarly $h[n-k] \quad n > 0$



The product:

$$x[k] * h[n-k] = \begin{cases} \alpha^k & , 0 \leq k \leq n \\ 0 & , \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for $n \geq 0$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^n \alpha^k = \frac{1 - \alpha^{n+1}}{1 - \alpha}$$

So the final answer; ie combining for $n > 0$ and $n \leq 0$

$$y[n] = \left(\frac{1 - \alpha^{n+1}}{1 - \alpha} \right) u[n]$$

Ans

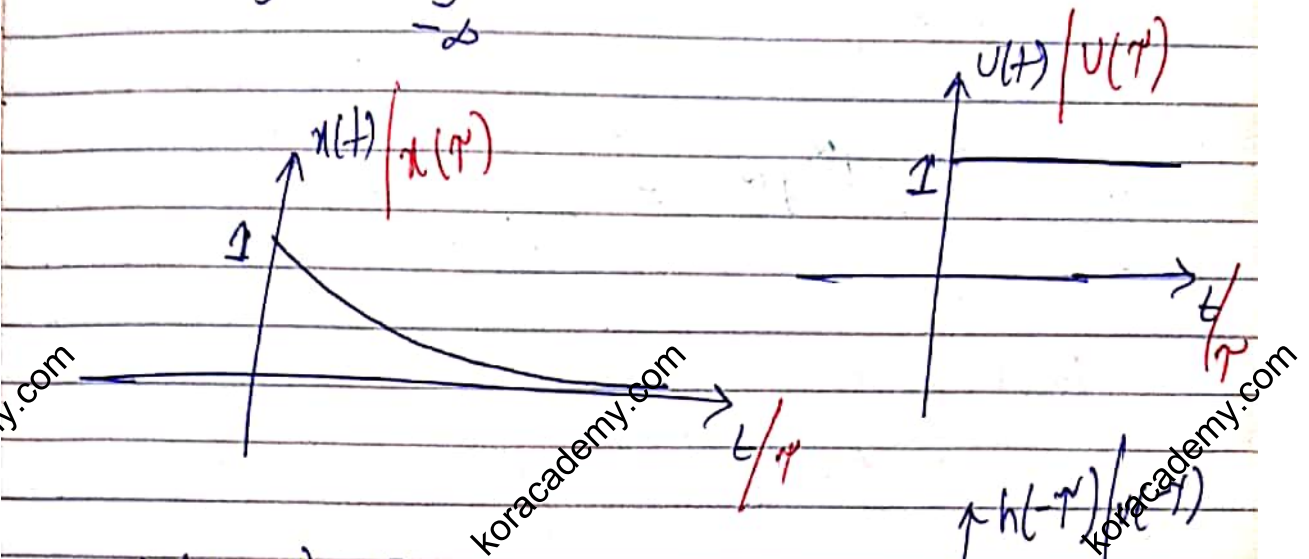
for all values of n .

CT $x(t) = e^{-at} u(t) \quad a > 0$

$h(t) = u(t)$

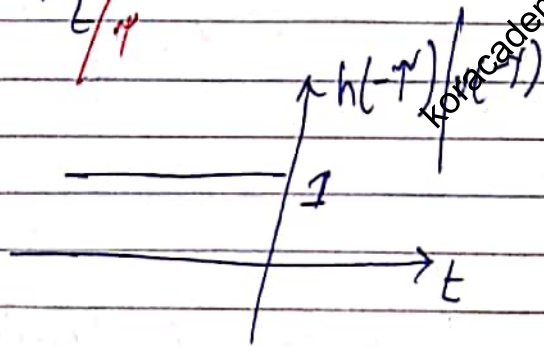
$y(t) = ?$

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



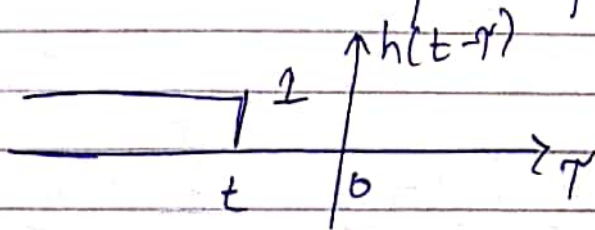
$h(t-\tau) = ?$

$t \rightarrow +ve$
 $\quad \searrow -ve$



If $t = -ve$

$h(t-\tau)$ means $h(-\tau)$ shifted left.



for $t < 0$

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

If $t > 0$

$h(t-\tau)$ means $h(-\tau)$ shifted right.



So for $t > 0$

$$x(\tau) h(t-\tau) = \begin{cases} e^{-a\tau} & , 0 \leq \tau \leq t \\ 0 & , \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$y(t) = \int_0^t e^{-a\tau} d\tau = \frac{1}{a} (1 - e^{-at})$$

Final answer;

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{a} (1 - e^{-at}) u(t)$$

↳ Why $u(t)$?

B/c $y(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$.

Properties of Convolution operator

i. The commutative property. i.e.

$$x[n] * h[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k]$$



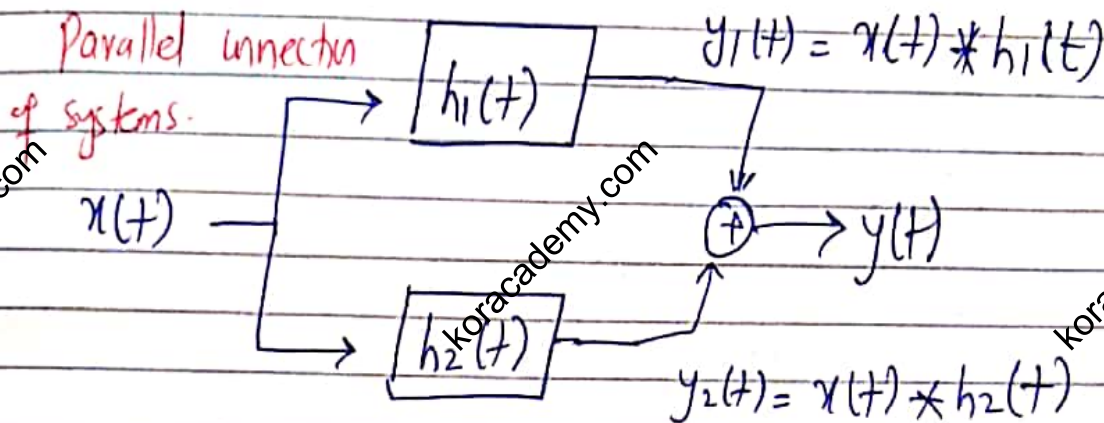


ii. The Distributive property.

$$x[n] * (h_1[n] + h_2[n]) = x[n] * h_1[n]$$

$$+ x[n] * h_2[n]$$

Similarly for discrete time.



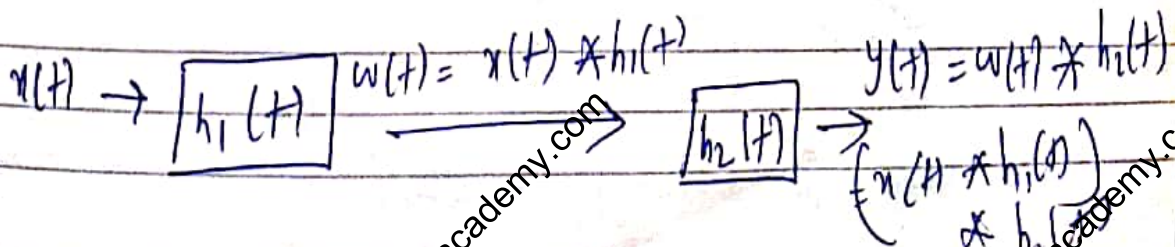
single system

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h(t) = h_1(t) + h_2(t)} \rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

$$= x(t) * [h_1(t) + h_2(t)]$$

iii. The associative Property.

$$x(t) * [h_1(t) * h_2(t)] = [x(t) * h_1(t)] * h_2(t)$$



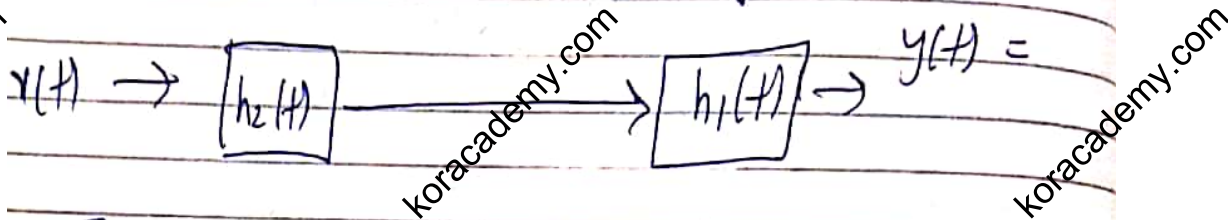
LTI

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h(t) = h_1(t) * h_2(t)} \rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * (h_1 * h_2)$$

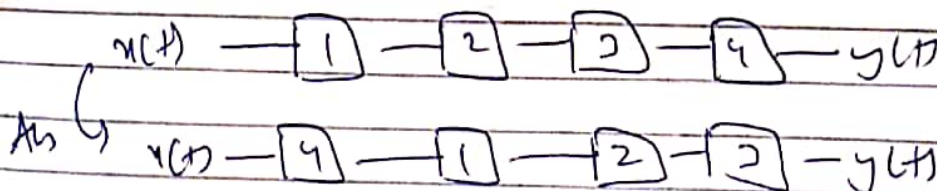
Using commutative property;

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{h_2(t) * h_1(t)} \rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * (h_2 * h_1)$$

Similarly for two cascaded systems;



The order in which LTI systems are connected in series doesn't matter.



Properties of LTI systems.

System behavior is completely changed by its unit impulse response.

① LTI system's memory

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

k can vary from $-\infty$ to ∞

\rightarrow past
 \rightarrow present
 \rightarrow future

For memoryless; present i/p; $k=n$

$k \neq n$ $\begin{cases} \rightarrow \text{past} \\ \rightarrow \text{future} \end{cases}$

$k < n$ past
 $k > n$ future

For LTI systems without memory;

$$h[n] = 0 \text{ for } n \neq 0;$$

$$\Rightarrow h[n] = k \delta[n], \text{ } k \text{ is some constant}$$

For with memory;

$$h[n] \neq k \delta[n]$$

CT;

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

without mem; $h(t) = 0$, for $t \neq 0$
 $\hookrightarrow h(t) = k \delta(t)$

with mem;

$$h(t) \neq k \delta(t)$$

without mem

$$h[n] = k \delta[n]$$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

$$y[n] = k x[n]$$

Buty

or,

$$y(t) = k x(t)$$

$$t - \tau;$$

$$-\alpha \leq \tau \leq \alpha$$

$$\tau < t \quad \text{part}$$

$$\tau > t \quad \text{part}$$

$$\checkmark \tau = t \quad \text{part}$$

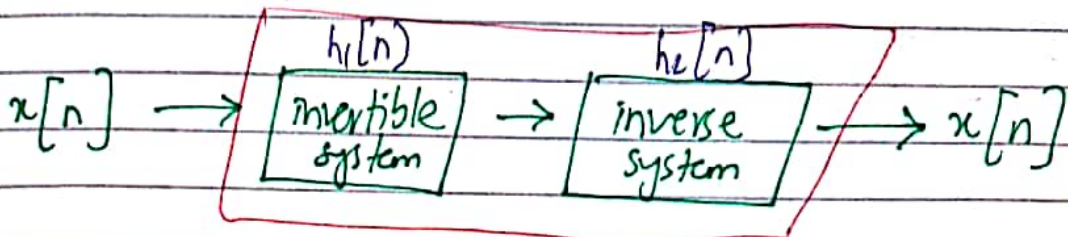
$$\tau \neq t; \quad t - \tau \neq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad h = 0$$

16/06/2020

② LTI systems Invertibility

For invertible system \rightarrow unique input \Rightarrow unique output.

An invertible system will always have an inverse system.



The overall behavior of the system is an identity system.

So its impulse response $h[n] = \delta[n] \rightarrow \text{A}$

$$h[n] = h_1[n] * h_2[n] \rightarrow \text{B}$$

$$\text{A and B} \Rightarrow h_1[n] * h_2[n] = \delta[n]$$

Similarly for continuous time LTI systems;

$$h_1(t) * h_2(t) = \delta(t)$$

h₁(t) h₂(t)

Example

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

Is it invertible?

$$h_1(t) = \delta(t - t_0)$$

$$\text{If } h_1(t) + h_2(t) = \delta(t)$$

then the system is invertible.

$$\text{e } \delta(t-t_0) + \delta(t+t_0) = \delta(t)$$

$$\delta(t) = \delta(t)$$

③ LTI system Causality

DT LTI system

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

o/p

unit impulse response

if $k < n$ past
 $k = n$ present
 $k > n$ future

For causal LTI system;

$$h[n] = 0 \quad \text{for } n < 0$$

For CT LTI system

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

For causal value we don't want future value.

$$h(n) = \delta(n) + \delta(n-1)$$

$\omega > 0$ for $n < 0$

If $\tau > t$ $x(\tau)$ is future value.

So we want impulse response to be zero.

$$\text{If } \tau > t$$

$$t - \tau < 0$$

For causal LTI system;

$$h(t) = 0 \text{ for } t < 0$$

Example

Say $h[n] = u[n]$
 is it causal?

$h[n] = 0$ for $n < 0$ so causal.

Condition of Initial Rest

If the i/p to a causal system is zero upto some point in time, then the o/p must also be 0 upto that time.

→ equivalent to causal LTI system.

Example $y[n] = x[n] + 3$

This is a non linear, causal system.

Does not satisfy condition of initial rest.

As if $x[n] = 0$ $y[n] = 3 \neq 0$

⑨ LTI system Stability

System is stable if we have a bounded
o/p for bounded i/p (BIBO)

DT LTI system

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k]$$

For $|x[n]| < B$ for all n .

any finite number.

whether $|y[n]| < \alpha$?

$$|y[n]| = \left| \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] h[n-k] \right|$$

$$|y[n]| \leq \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[k] h[n-k]|$$

$$|y[n]| \leq B \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n-k]|$$

condition;

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[n-k]| < \infty \quad \text{so that } y[n] < \infty$$

at any time

$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k]| < \infty \Rightarrow$ LTI system will be stable if
 The unit impulse response is absolutely summable

$\text{Ex } \textcircled{1} \text{ If } h[n] = \delta[n - n_0].$

Stability check?

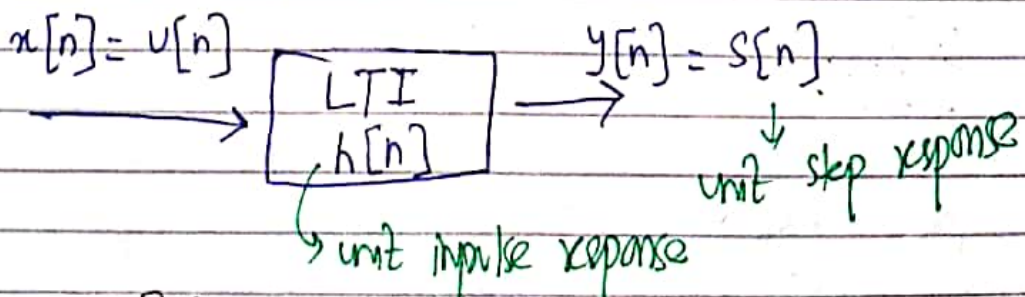
$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k]| = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |\delta[k - n_0]| = 1 < \infty$
 \hookrightarrow stable

only unit at n_0 and value is 1.

$\textcircled{2} h[n] = u[n]$

$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |h[k]| = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |u[k]| = \infty \rightarrow$ unstable

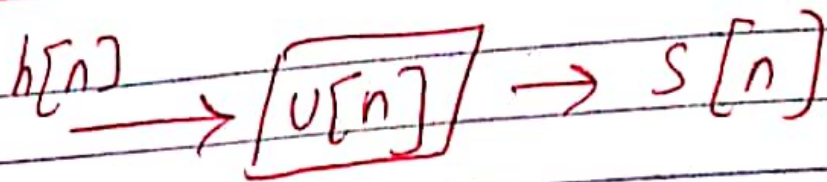
Unit Step Response of LTI systems.



$s[n] = u[n] * h[n]$

As convolution is commutative

$s[n] = h[n] * u[n] \rightarrow$



$$s[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] u[n-k]$$

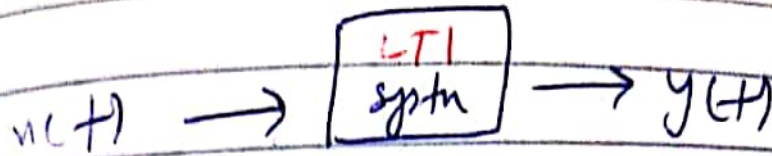
$$s[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^n h[k]$$

A unit step response of LTI system is running sum of its unit impulse response.

$$h[n] = s[n] - s[n-1]$$

Unit impulse response is the first difference of unit step response.

Systems described by Differential Equations.



Out of the many types of D-E, the eq that we use for LTI systems are;

Linear Constant Coefficient D.E (LCCDE)

For representing i/p | o/p relationship.

Whenever a system is represented by D-E, it is called Implicit relationship.

We don't get explicit relation.

$y(t) = \text{given expression in fcn of } t$

$$\rightarrow \frac{dy(t)}{dt} - 2y(t) = x(t)$$

↳ To get explicit, we need to solve the D-E.

↳ after solution, this will always contain a constant \rightarrow diff'n constant = diff'n solution

but we need to find a particular eq for a particular system \rightarrow we need additional info \rightarrow initial condition.

auxiliary condition

↳ In Causal LTI systems described by LCCDE we use the condition of initial rest as auxiliary condition.

Ex.

$$\frac{d}{dt}y(t) + 2y(t) = u(t) \rightarrow \textcircled{A}$$



For $u(t) = k e^{3t} \cdot v(t)$ $y(t) = ?$

Sol $y(t) = y_p(t) + y_h(t)$

↓
particular

↓
homogeneous

particular i/p

solution of homogeneous eqn

In the given eq, when $u(t) = 0 =$ homogeneous eq

$$u(t) = k e^{3t} ; t > 0$$

↓
solution

Assume $y_p(t) = Y e^{3t}$

satisfy A

Substitute this in $\textcircled{A} \rightarrow$ then find the value

$$\textcircled{A} \Rightarrow 3Y e^{3t} + 2Y e^{3t} = k e^{3t}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{Y = \frac{k}{5}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{y_p(t) = \frac{k}{5} e^{3t} v(t)}$$

Now $y_h(t) = ?$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{B}$$

Assume $y_h(t) = Ae^{st}$ is the solution

$$\textcircled{B} \Rightarrow Ase^{st} + 2Ae^{st} = 0$$

$$Ae^{st}(s+2) = 0$$

Either $A=0$ which is trivial
 \rightarrow the condition is satisfied if $s = -2$

$$\Rightarrow y_h(t) = Ae^{-2t}$$

Complete solution:

$$y(t) = \frac{k}{s} e^{st} + Ae^{-2t}, \quad t > 0$$

\rightarrow we still need to find A .

So auxiliary condition;

\rightarrow causal will always fulfill condition of rest at rest.

$$y(t) = 0 \text{ for } t < 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = 0 \text{ for } t < 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{At } t=0, \quad y(t) = 0 \Rightarrow y(0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \frac{k}{s} + A$$

$$A = -\frac{k}{s}$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = \frac{k}{5} e^{2t} - \frac{k}{5} e^{-2t}$$

$$\rightarrow y(t) = \frac{k}{5} (e^{2t} - e^{-2t}), \text{ for } t > 0$$

do for all times:

$$y(t) = \frac{k}{5} (e^{2t} - e^{-2t}) \cdot u(t) \text{ for all time}$$

We solved a first order LCCDE, but this discussion is valid for any order DE

LTI systems described by LCCDE.

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y(t)$$

$$\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = x(t) \rightarrow \text{I/P o/P relation may be described by such an eq.}$$

LCCDE \rightarrow 1st order

Implicit representation

\hookrightarrow not possible to describe system properly.

Normally, we are interested in explicit.

Higher order DE (LCC)

Generally n^{th} order LCCDE can be represented by:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k}$$

\hookrightarrow implicit

? How to find explicit representation?

1. Find solution of LCCDE.

2. Solution i.e $y(t) = y_p(t) + y_h(t)$

particular solution
(for particular i/p)

Homogeneous solution
($x(t) = 0$)

Homogeneous equation $\leftarrow \sum a_k \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} = 0$

3. In the solution, we will have unknown constants

(infinite solutions)

we are interested in finding behavior of the system and that behavior will be one behavior one particular value of constant.

4. To find unique value of constant, we require auxiliary condition.

5. For causal LTI systems; the auxiliary condition is always the condition of initial rest.

number of unknown constant = order of equation

If $x(t) = 0$ for $t \leq t_0$; $y(t) = 0, t \leq t_0$

Auxiliary conditions for n^{th} order LCCDE.

$x(t_0) = 0 \Rightarrow y(t_0) = 0 \rightarrow 1^{\text{st}}$ condition
other possibilities;

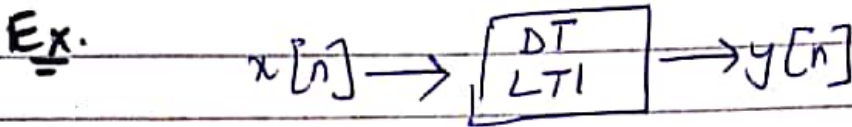
$\frac{d}{dt} y(t_0) = 0, \frac{d^2}{dt^2} y(t_0) = 0, \dots$

Generalizing;

$$y(t_0) = \frac{d}{dt} y(t_0) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} y(t_0) = \dots = \frac{d^{N-1}}{dt^{N-1}} y(t_0) = 0$$

'N' number of auxiliary conditions.

DT LTI Systems described by Linear constant coefficient Difference Equation.



let i/p o/p relationships;

$$y[n] + 2y[n-1] = x[n]$$

1st order LCCDE;

1st difference

Generalizing; ie Nth order LCCDE;

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

Solution aspect;

$$\rightarrow y[n] = y_p[n] + y_h[n]$$

if N=0;

$$a_0 y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

Non recursive equation

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{a_0} \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

does not require $y[n-k]$ only x

↳ does not require any auxiliary conditions.

Non recursive system.

For $N \geq 1$.

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

$$\Rightarrow a_0 y[n] + \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

Rearranging in terms of $y[n]$,

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{a_0} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k] - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y[n-k] \right\}$$

Will be able to find $y[n]$ if we know $y[n-k]$.

→ Recursive equation → Recursive system.

We get $y[n-k]$ from auxiliary conditions.

Recursive system o/p depends on previous system o/p.

Non recursive Systems.

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{a_0} \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

Bringing a_0 into summation;

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=0}^M \frac{b_k}{a_0} x[n-k] \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

Consider; $x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y[n]$

$$\Rightarrow y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$$

$$\text{or } y[n] = h[n] * x[n]$$

Using $\rightarrow y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k] \quad \text{--- (B)}$

Both (A) and (B) are representing behavior of LTI systems.

Comparing $\Rightarrow h[k] = \begin{cases} b_k/a_0, & 0 \leq k \leq M \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

$$\Rightarrow h[n] = \begin{cases} b_n/a_0, & 0 \leq n \leq M \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

\rightarrow Unit Impulse response of non recursive systems.
 \rightarrow It has a finite duration.
 \rightarrow FIR systems. (Finite Impulse response).

All non recursive systems are FIR systems.

Auxiliary Condition.

DT LTI system is also causal, so it must satisfy condition of initial rest.

ie. If $x[n] = 0$ for $n < 0$
 $y[n] = 0$ for $n < n_0$

1st order $\rightarrow y[-1]$, 2nd $\rightarrow y[-1], y[-1]$
These all times are same no.

$$y[-N], y[-N+1], y[-N+2] \dots, y[-1] = 0$$

Ex $y[n] - \frac{1}{2} y[n-1] = x[n]$

This is a Recursive system b/c to find $y[n]$, we need to know $y[n-1]$.

Solving $y[n] = x[n] + \frac{1}{2} y[n-1]$

For $x[n] = k \delta[n]$
As causal sys \rightarrow so in mi rest;

ie $x[n] = 0$ for $n \leq -1$
 $\Rightarrow y[n] = 0$ for $n \leq -1$

$y[n] = ?$ for $n \geq 0$

As $y[n] = x[n] + \frac{1}{2} y[n-1]$

$n=0$
 $y[0] = x[0] + \frac{1}{2} y[-1] = \underline{k}$

$n=1$
 $y[1] = x[1] + \frac{1}{2} y[0] = \frac{1}{2} k$

$n=2$
 $y[2] = x[2] + \frac{1}{2} y[1] = \frac{1}{4} k = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 k$

Generally, for any value,

$$y[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n k$$

$$x[n] = k \delta[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n k$$

If $k=1$;

$$x[n] = \delta[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y[n] = h[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{h[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n]}$$

The unit impulse response of recursive system has infinite duration.

IIR \rightarrow infinite impulse response.

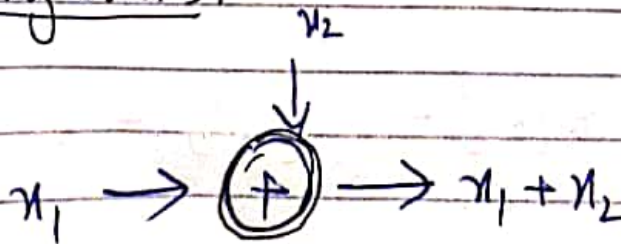
Block Diagram representation of systems described by Differential / Difference equation.

Solving = information.

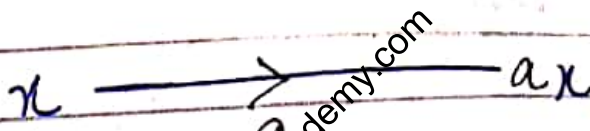
Graphical representation = visible = more informative
 another perspective about system behavior.

Basic building blocks.

1. Adder



2. Multiplier



3. Unit Delay.

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{D} \rightarrow x[n-1]$$

This is in case of DT systems.
In CT, we will sometimes require a differentiator.

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{D} \rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} x(t)$$

4. Integrator:

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\int} \rightarrow \int_{-a}^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

Example

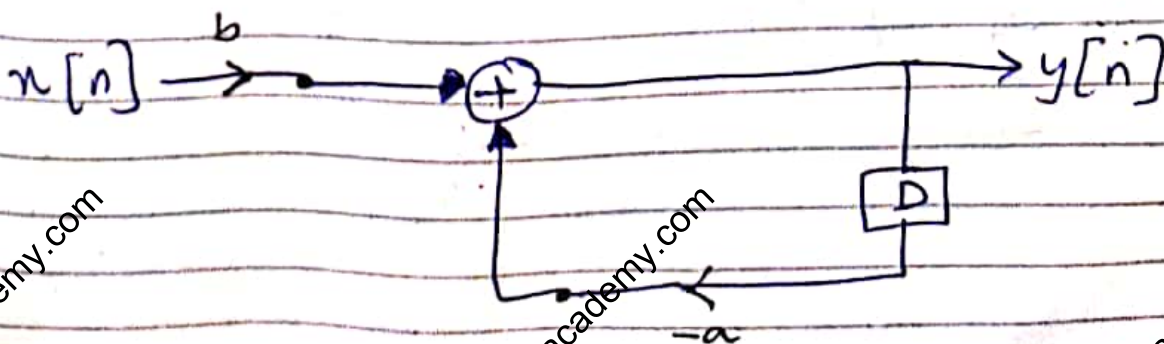
$$y[n] + ay[n-1] = bx[n]$$

LTI, 1st order, LCCDE

Block diagram?

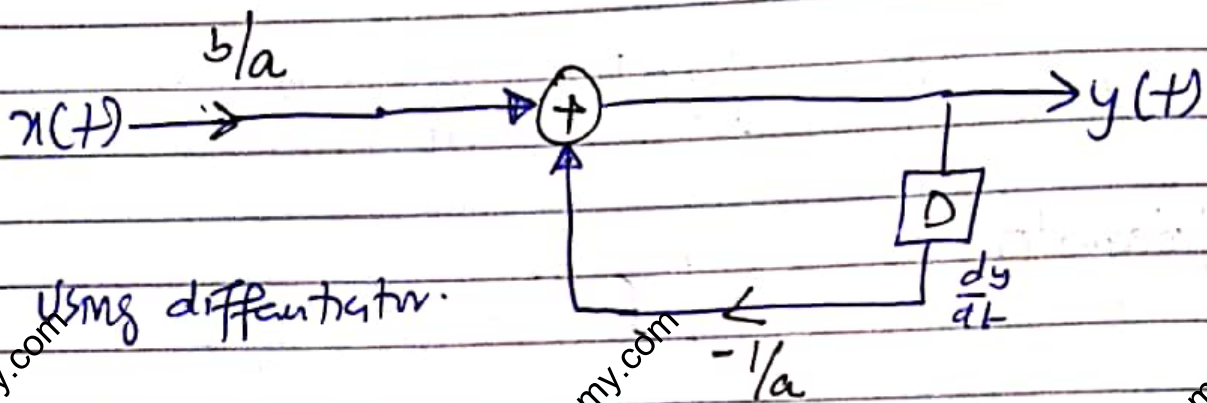
Re arrange such that $y[n]$ on one side and others on the other side.

$$y[n] = bx[n] - ay[n-1]$$



Ex. $\frac{d}{dt} y(t) + ay(t) = bx(t)$

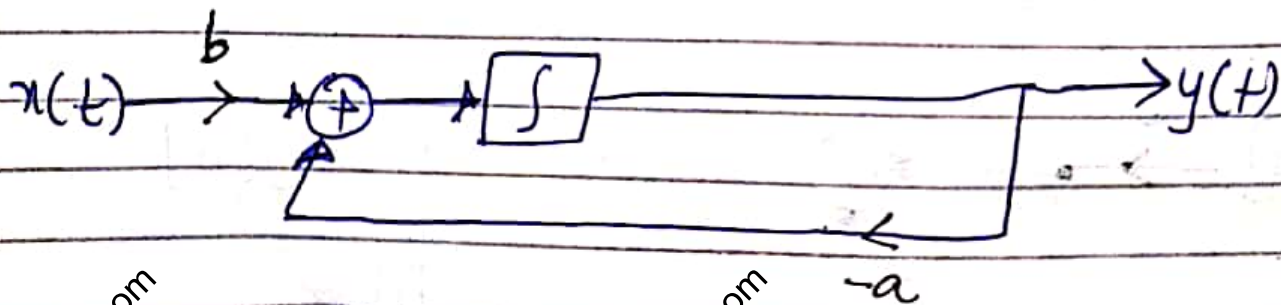
$$y(t) = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + \frac{bx(t)}{a}$$



Using integrator, we need to rearrange in such a way that the highest order derivative is on one side and all other terms on the other side.

$$\frac{d}{dt} y(t) = bx(t) - ay(t)$$

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t [bx(\tau) - ay(\tau)] d\tau$$

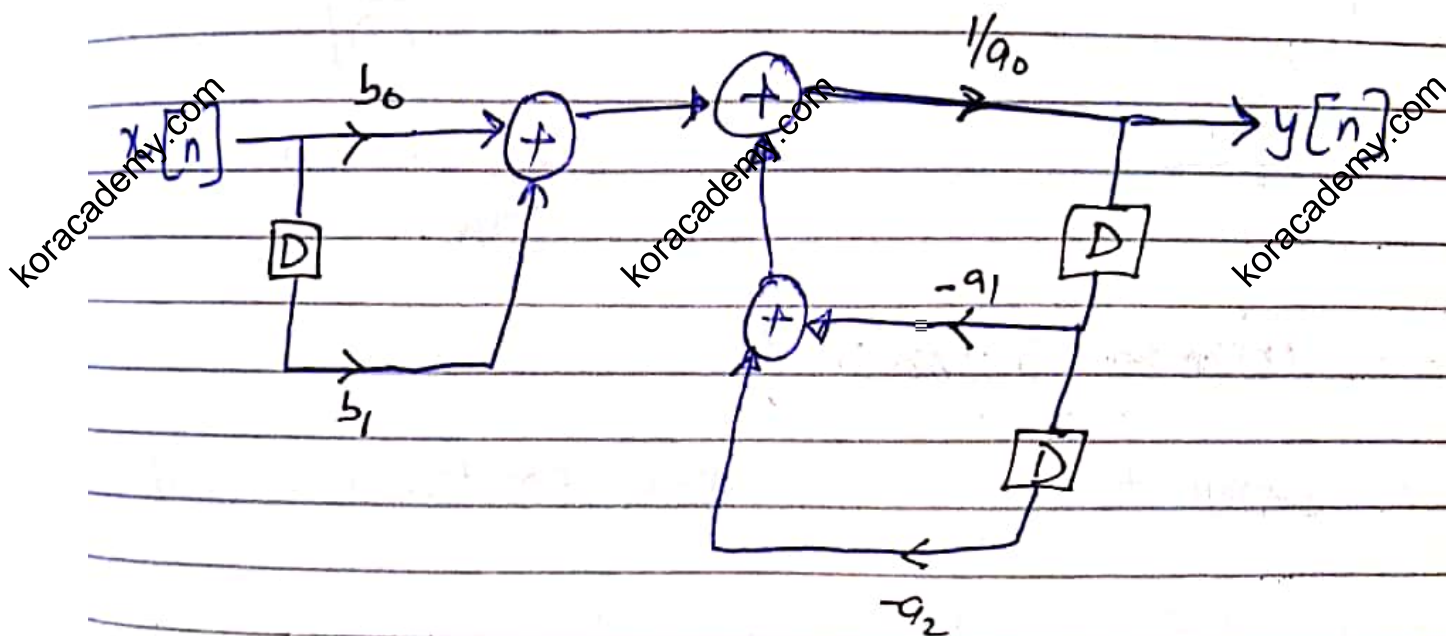


Consider a higher order system;

$$a_0 y[n] + a_1 y[n-1] + a_2 y[n-2] = b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1]$$

Rearrange

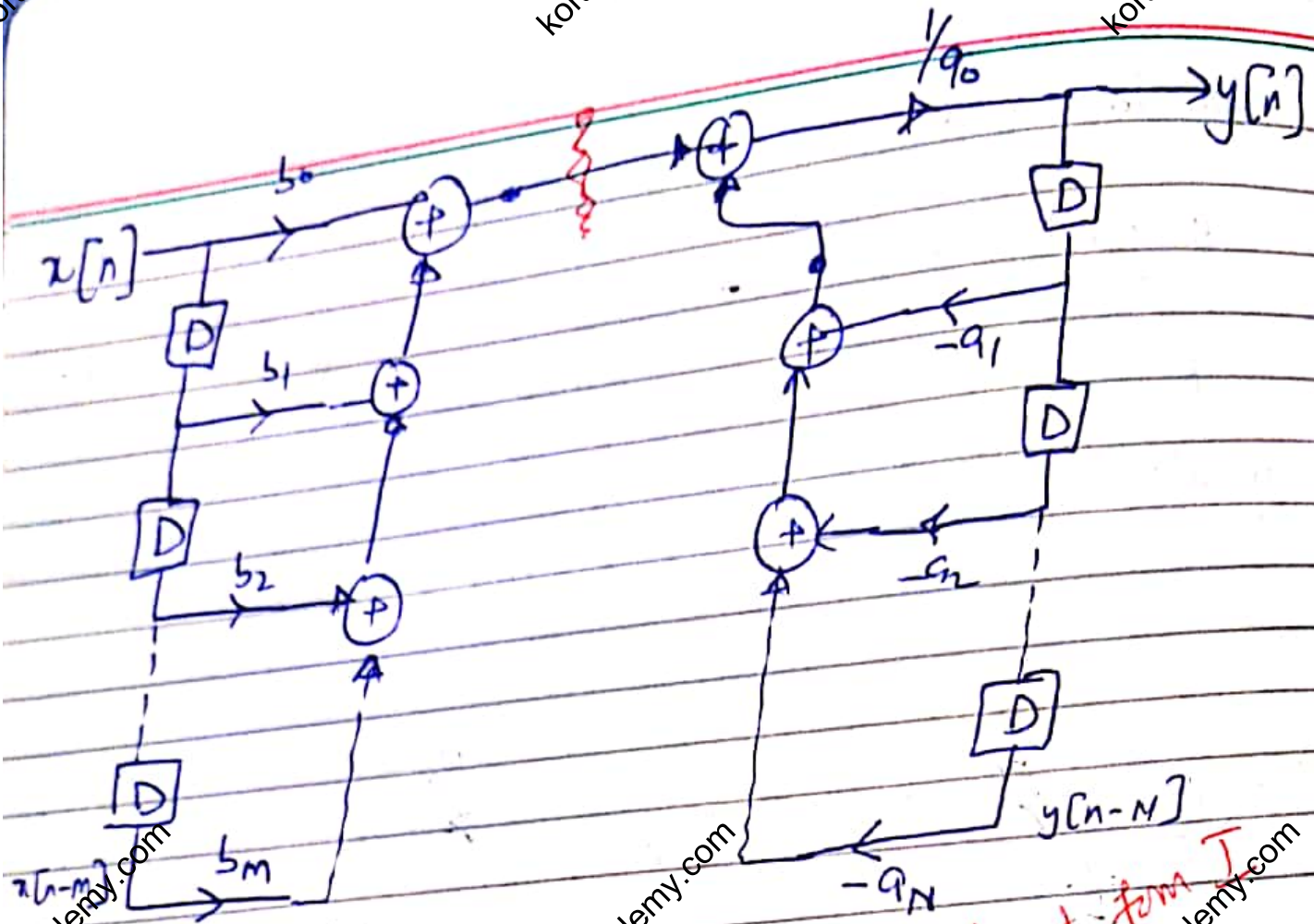
$$y[n] = \frac{1}{a_0} \left\{ b_0 x[n] + b_1 x[n-1] - a_1 y[n-1] - a_2 y[n-2] \right\}$$



Nth order systems.

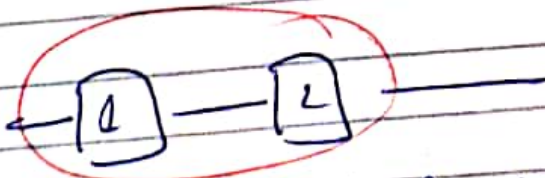
$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{a_0} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k] - \sum_{k=1}^N a_k y[n-k] \right\}$$

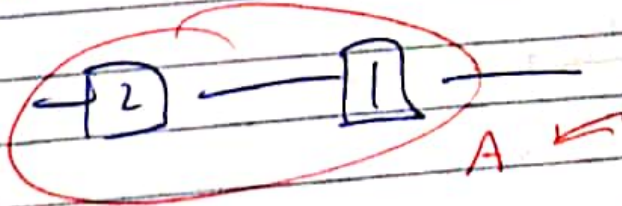


Advantage / Information?

- combination of two systems connected at a point
cascade connection.
- Ex 3 of LTI sys \Rightarrow sys 1 = LTI sys 2 = LTI

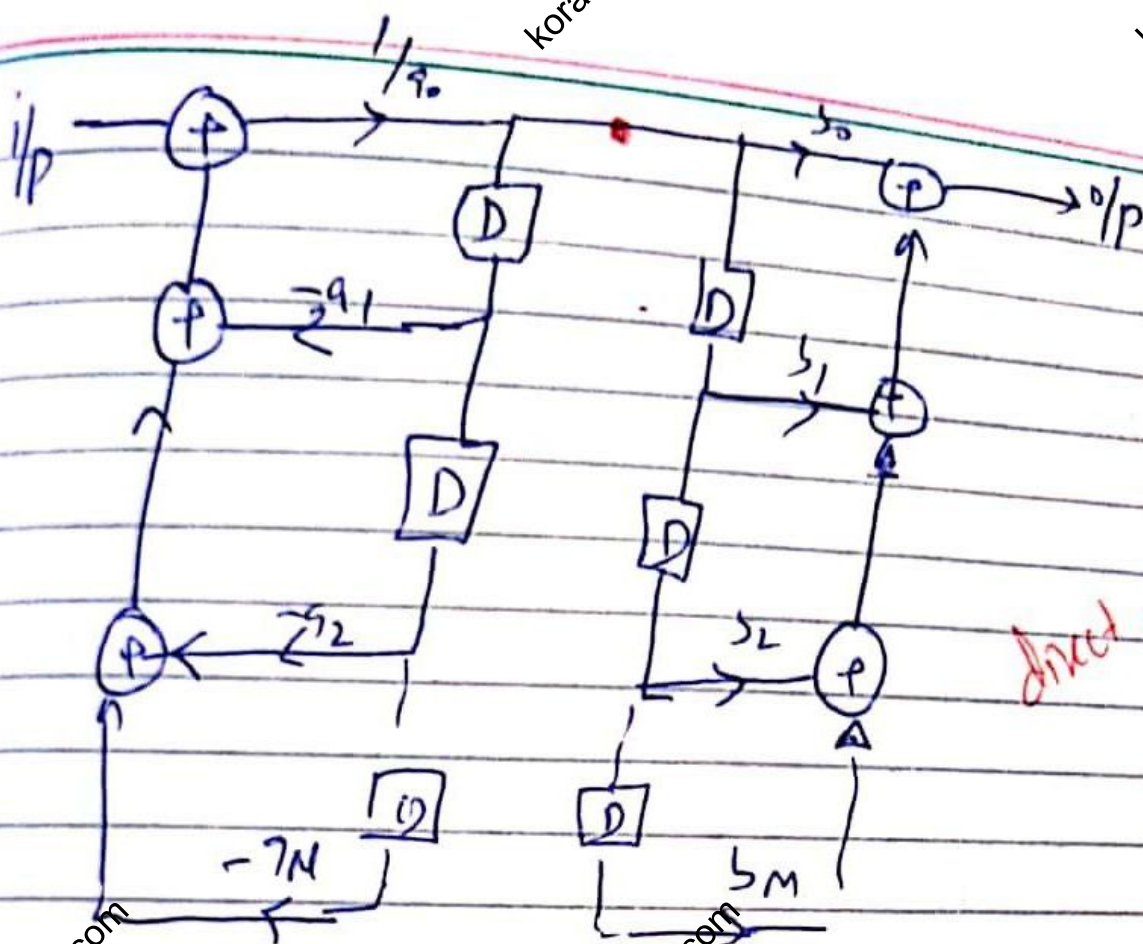


A $\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$ The order does not matter

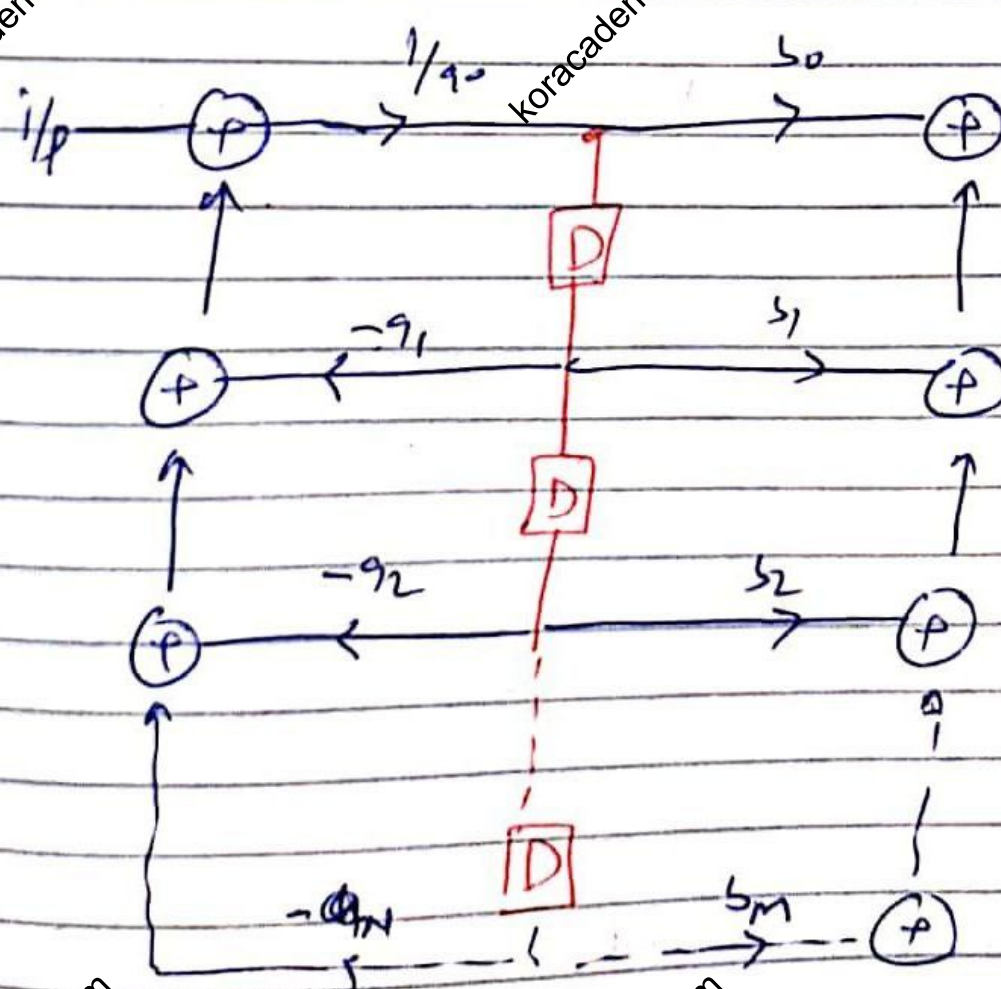


A \leftarrow

\Rightarrow Interchanging order of an system;



Direct form II



Suly CT SGT₂ $\int h(t) dt$

Chapter 3

$h(t) = \frac{dscd}{dt}$

Fourier Series Representation of Periodic Signals.

Previously our goal was to represent any given signal as a linear combination of some basic signals.

↳ unit impulse *to make any signal*

DT

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} x[k] \delta[n-k]$$

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

Desirable Features of basis signals.

→ with which we construct new signals.

- ① The set of basis signals should be able to construct a large and useful class of signals.
- ② The response of an LTI system to each signal should be simple enough to provide us with a convenient representation for the response of the system to any signal which is constructed as a linear combination of the same signals.

max for LTI system put 7.10

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) \delta(t-\tau) d\tau \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) h(t-\tau) d\tau$$

Alternate Basis signal.

convolution rep

Complex Exponential signal.

→ think up → f Sup

CT $\boxed{e^{st}}$

s is complex number.
 $s = \sigma + j\omega$

DT $\boxed{z^n}$

$z = r e^{j\omega}$

z is complex normally in discrete → polar

$$e^{st} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow H(s) e^{st}$$

$$z^n \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow H(z) z^n$$

A signal for which system o/p is constant (may be complex) times the same signal is known as eigen function of the system.

The constant factor (amplitude scaling factor) is known as eigen value of the system.

As here e^{st} , $e^{j\omega t}$ are eigen functions and $h(s)$ and $H(j\omega)$ are eigen values.

Prq.

$$x(t) = e^{st} \rightarrow \boxed{L\{x(t)\}} \rightarrow y(t) = ?$$

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

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

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

where

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

depends on impulse response of the system.

$$x(t) = e^{st} \rightarrow y(t) = e^{st} H(s)$$

Similarly in DT;

$$x[n] = z^n \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}}_{h[n]} \rightarrow y[n] = ?$$

$$y[n] = h[n] * x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] x[n-k]$$

$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^{n-k} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^n z^{-k}$$

$$y[n] = z^n \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^{-k}$$

Eigen value, $H(z) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} h[k] z^{-k}$

Group of complex system \Rightarrow + depends on poles
Eigen function z^n response of the system

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{LTI}} \rightarrow y(t)$$

$$\text{let } x(t) = a_1 e^{s_1 t} + a_2 e^{s_2 t} + a_3 e^{s_3 t}$$

low cut
↑ cap

$$\text{For } a_1 e^{s_1 t} \rightarrow a_1 e^{s_1 t} H(s_1)$$

$$a_2 e^{s_2 t} \rightarrow a_2 e^{s_2 t} H(s_2)$$

$$a_3 e^{s_3 t} \rightarrow a_3 e^{s_3 t} H(s_3)$$

$$y(t) = a_1 e^{s_1 t} H(s_1) + a_2 e^{s_2 t} H(s_2) + \dots + a_n e^{s_n t} H(s_n)$$

CT. Input to LTI $x(t) = \sum_k a_k e^{s_k t}$

$$y(t) = \sum_k a_k e^{s_k t} H(s_k)$$

Similarly DT $x[n] = \sum_k a_k z_k^n$

$$y[n] = \sum_k a_k z_k^n H(z_k)$$

Fourier Series Representation.

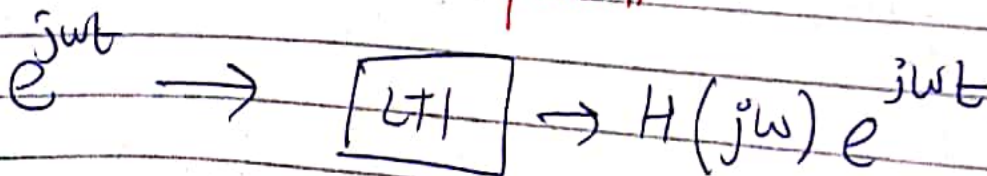
It is for periodic signals only.

$$e^{st}, \quad s = \sigma + j\omega$$

In Fourier series, we consider s to be purely imaginary.

$$e^{j\omega t} \quad \sigma = 0 \quad s = j\omega$$

$e^{j\omega t} \rightarrow$ sinusoidal.
 \rightarrow periodic



A linear combination of periodic signals is also periodic.

3) C_T periodic $\rightarrow x(t) = x(t+T)$ for all T .
 smallest, positive, non zero value of $T \rightarrow$ fundamental period.
 $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ fundamental frequency \leftarrow period.

We want to represent this $x(t)$ as a linear combination of $e^{j\omega t}$.

$x(t) = e^{j\omega t}$ or $x(t) = \cos \omega t$ *same periodic*

Harmonically related complex exponential.

\rightarrow a number of periodic signals with different periods of the same period common.

$\phi_k = e^{jk\omega_0 t}$

$k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ fundamental for one

- $k=0 \quad \phi_0(t) = 1$
- $k=1 \quad \phi_1(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t} \rightarrow \omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T} \rightarrow T$
- $k=2 \quad \phi_2(t) = e^{j2\omega_0 t} \rightarrow 2\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T/2} \rightarrow T/2$

\therefore The common period $= T$, frequency $= \omega_0$

Take a linear combination of $\phi_k(t)$.

$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k \phi_k(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$

Handwritten notes:
 a_k \rightarrow complex
 period $\rightarrow T$
 \rightarrow generally complex
 from series \rightarrow inputs

An alternate representation \rightarrow sin cos is needed.

If $x(t)$ is real; $x^*(t) = x(t)$

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

Take conjugate on both sides.

$$x^*(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k^* e^{-jk\omega_0 t}$$

If $x(t)$ is real;

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k^* e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

Replace k by $-k$ (-1, 2, 2)

$$x(t) = \sum_{-k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_{-k}^* e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

Condition must be true \mathbb{P}

a_k real

$$a_{-k} = a_k^*$$

$$\sim a_{-k}^* = a_k$$

$a_k \rightarrow$ Fourier series coefficients OR expansion spectral coefficients OR coefficients

Trigonometric
Fourier series

Alternate form of fourier series

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

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} + a_{-k} e^{-jk\omega_0 t} \right]$$

for real $a_k = a_k^*$

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} + a_k^* e^{-jk\omega_0 t} \right]$$

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2 \operatorname{Re} \left[a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} \right]$$

a_k is generally complex.

$$a_k = A_k e^{j\theta_k} \quad \text{or} \quad a_k = B_k + jC_k$$

consider

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2 \operatorname{Re} \left[A_k e^{j(\omega_0 t + \theta_k)} \right]$$

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2A_k \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta_k)$$

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 2 \operatorname{Re} \left[(B_k + jC_k) (\cos k\omega_0 t + j \sin k\omega_0 t) \right]$$

$$x(t) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[2B_k \cos k\omega_0 t - 2C_k \sin k\omega_0 t \right]$$

We mostly use the complex Fourier series;

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$a_k = ?$

→ synthesis equation

Multiply both sides of $\textcircled{1}$ by $e^{-jn\omega_0 t}$

$$x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{j\omega_0(k-n)t}$$

Take integral on both sides over one period;

$$\int_0^T x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k \int_0^T e^{j\omega_0(k-n)t} dt$$

$$= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k \int_0^T e^{j\omega_0(k-n)t} dt$$

$$\int_0^T e^{j\omega_0(k-n)t} dt = \begin{cases} T, & k=n \\ 0, & k \neq n \end{cases}$$

periodic → sinusoidal → 0 over one period

$$\int_0^T x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt = a_n T$$

analysis equation

$$a_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt$$

→ we have

Fourier series expansion
 Inspection & finding domain

The variables n and k do not matter.

Example

$$x(t) = 1 + \sin \omega_0 t + 2 \cos \omega_0 t$$

Using Euler's formula

Find complex fs coeffs
 $x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$

$$x(t) = 1 + \left(\frac{e^{j\omega_0 t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t}}{2j} \right) + 2 \left(\frac{e^{j\omega_0 t} - e^{-j\omega_0 t}}{2} \right)$$

$$x(t) = 1 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{2j} \right) e^{j\omega_0 t} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{2j} \right) e^{-j\omega_0 t}$$

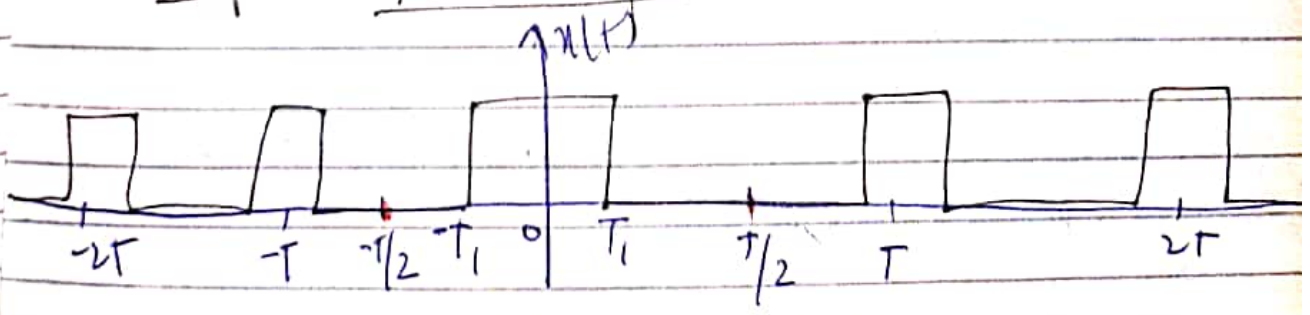
So $a_0 = 1$

$$a_{-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2j}$$

$$a_1 = 1 + \frac{1}{2j}$$

$$a_k = 0 \text{ for } |k| > 1$$

Example Periodic square wave



$$As \quad x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

we need to find Fourier coefficients (a_k) first.

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

If a signal is symmetric, we can also integrate from $-T/2$ to $T/2$ instead of 0 to T .

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T_1}^{T_1} e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{k\omega_0 T} \left(e^{jk\omega_0 T_1} - e^{-jk\omega_0 T_1} \right)$$

$$a_k = \frac{2 \sin(k\omega_0 T_1)}{k\omega_0 T}, \quad k \neq 0$$

Originally, $a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T x(t) dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T_1}^{T_1} 1 dt = \frac{2T_1}{T}$$

$a_0 =$ dc component

As $\omega_0 T = 2\pi$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{\sin(k\omega_0 T_1)}{k\pi}, \quad k \neq 0$$

50% duty cycle

$$T = 4T_1 \Rightarrow T_1 = \frac{T}{4}$$

$$a_k = \frac{\int_{-T/4}^{T/4} \sin(k\omega_0 t) dt}{k\pi} = \frac{\int_{-T/4}^{T/4} \sin(2\pi/T \cdot t) dt}{k\pi}$$

$$a_k = \frac{\sin(k\pi/2)}{k\pi}$$

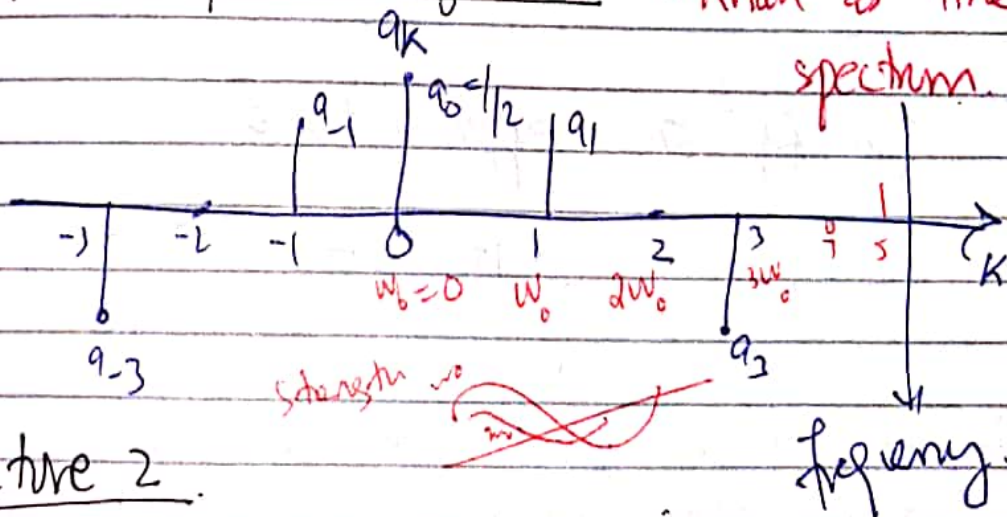
Also $a_0 = \frac{1}{2}$, $a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi}$, $a_{-1} = \frac{1}{-\pi}$

$a_2 = 0$, $a_{-2} = 0$, $a_3 = \frac{-1}{3\pi}$, $a_{-3} = \frac{-1}{3\pi}$

$a_4 = 0$, $a_{-4} = 0$

$a_5 = \frac{1}{5\pi}$, $a_{-5} = \frac{1}{5\pi}$

Graphical representation of a_k



Lecture 2

Continuous time Fourier Series - \rightarrow only for periodic signals.

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} \rightarrow \text{Synthesis eq}$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt \rightarrow \text{Analysis eq}$$

Lec 2

Is it possible to represent all periodic signals in terms of Fourier series?

Convergence of Fourier series.

Say we integrate in a finite interval

less than ∞ approximation.

$$x_N(t) = \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

truncated or finite Fourier series

$$e(t) = x(t) - x_N(t)$$

approximation error (Error signal)

$$e(t) = x(t) - \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

To quantify the approximation error;

$$E_N = \int_T |e(t)|^2 dt \quad \rightarrow \text{energy over one period}$$

value of $e(t) \rightarrow$ dependent on a_k .

It has been found that in order to minimize the approximation error, the optimized/best value of a_k is;

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

for FFS \rightarrow you will see the same coefficients

The Fourier coefficients for finite Fourier series are the same as that of infinite Fourier series

as 100 th FS \rightarrow 91-
 200 th FS \rightarrow 100 th FS \rightarrow 100 th FS \rightarrow 100 th FS

If $x(t)$ has finite series representation, then as N increases, E_N decreases.

approximation $\left[N \rightarrow \infty \quad E_N \rightarrow 0 \right] \Rightarrow x_N(t) \approx x(t)$
 Two sets of conditions for convergence \rightarrow FS of all signals to be approximated by FS.

(A) over one period, the signal has finite energy then it can be represented by FS

$$\int_T |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$

$$x_N(t) = \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$e(t) = x(t) - \sum_{k=-N}^N a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$\int_T |e(t)|^2 dt = 0 \quad \{ N \rightarrow \infty \}$$

\Rightarrow This doesn't mean that $x(t)$ and its FS repn are equal at every value of time.

\Rightarrow It only means there is no energy in their difference. The error is zero over one period of the signal.

(B) Dirichlet's conditions

(i) Over one period, $x(t)$ must be absolutely integrable

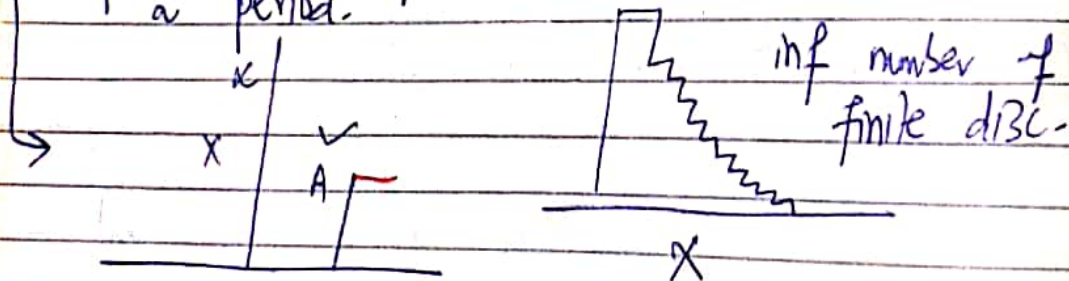
$$\int_T |x(t)| dt < \infty \Rightarrow |a_k| < \infty$$

① Over one period, $x(t)$ must have banded variation i.e. finite number of maximum and minima during one period.

② Over one period, there are a finite number of discontinuities. Also each of these discontinuities is finite.

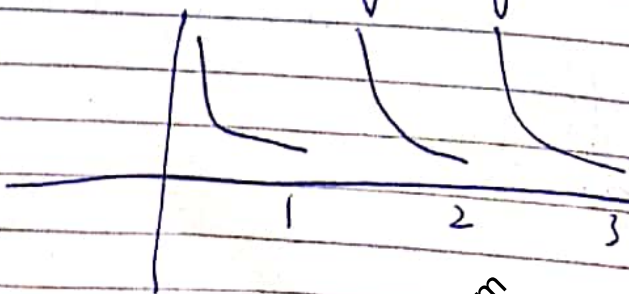
All useful practical, periodic signals have FS representation.

→ for example $\sin(\frac{2\pi}{T}t)$ with period T , have infinite number of maxima and minima over a period.



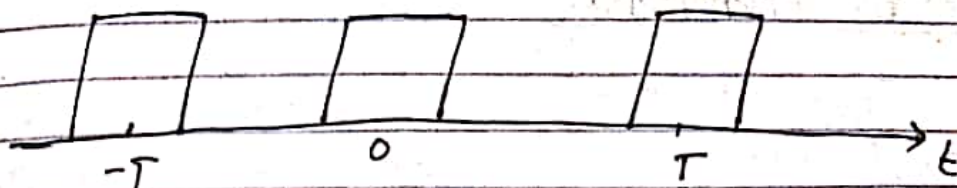
① $x(t) = \frac{1}{t} \quad 0 < t < 1$? to T_{in}

is not absolutely integrable \rightarrow no Fourier series.



Sketch \rightarrow draw?

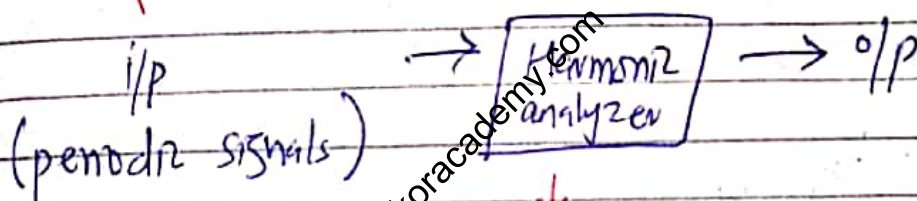
Consider the periodic square wave; \rightarrow discontinuous.



Fourier believed that Fourier series existed for this signal.

Michelson constructed Harmonic analyzer.

exp. setup



Function = Finite F.S representation.

1898

number of terms

$\leftarrow N \rightarrow 80$ (options)

For continuous signals, results were accurate and according to Fourier.

For discontinuous signals, results were strange.

Points of concern

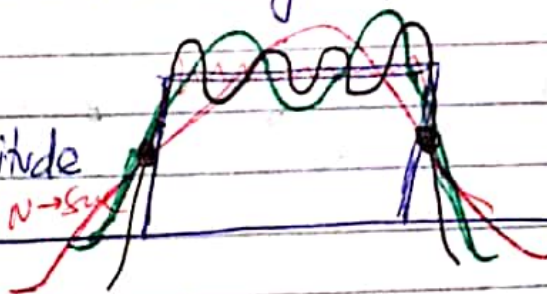
\rightarrow ripples

\rightarrow ripple amplitude

\hookrightarrow when $N \rightarrow \infty$

\rightarrow Behavior at

point of discontinuity.



$N=1$

$N=3$

$N=7$

$N=19$

$$\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{k} e^{j k \omega t}$$

Michelson was unable to explain. $k=N$

So he presented it to Josiah Gibbs.

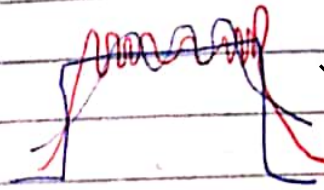
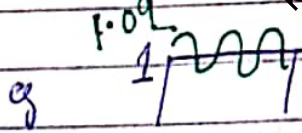
Gibb's Phenomena

① Truncated F.O.S approximation of a discontinuous signal $x(t)$ will in general exhibit high frequency ripples and overshoot near its discontinuity.

② The peak values of these ripples does not increase with increasing N .

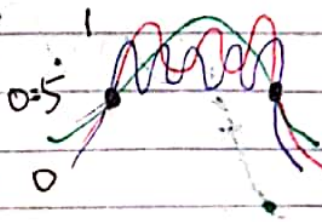
③ The peak value / overshoot is always 9% of the height of discontinuity.

of 1.09



④ As N increases, the ripples will compress towards point of discontinuity.

⑤ At point of discontinuity, the finite F.O.S converges to the average value of the original signal $x(t)$ on either side of the discontinuity.



cutting \checkmark $f \rightarrow \infty$
Discontinuity \rightarrow in Δx \rightarrow $f \rightarrow \infty$
Gibbs \rightarrow $f \rightarrow \infty$

Properties of CT F.S

Notation,

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} a_k$$

$x(t)$ is paired with its fourier coefficients.

① Linearity

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} a_k \\ y(t) &\xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} b_k \end{aligned}$$

$$z(t) = Ax(t) + By(t) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} c_k = Aa_k + Bb_k$$

If a signal is linear combination of two signals, its fourier coefficients will also be linear combination of their corresponding coefficients.

② Time Shifting

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} a_k$$

$$x(t-t_0) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} b_k = e^{-jk\omega_0 t_0} a_k$$

$$\text{As } a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

$$\rightarrow \text{let } b_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t-t_0) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

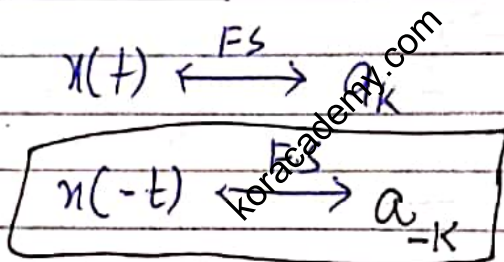
$$\text{let } \tau = t - t_0 \Rightarrow t = \tau + t_0$$

$$\Rightarrow b_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(\tau) e^{-jk\omega_0 \tau} e^{-jk\omega_0 t_0} d\tau$$

$$b_k = e^{-jk\omega_0 t_0} \left(\frac{1}{T} \int_T x(\tau) e^{-jk\omega_0 \tau} d\tau \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow b_k = e^{-jk\omega_0 t_0} a_k$$

③ Time Reversal



The synthesis equation;

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

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

Replace k by $-k$;

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

Mirror image of former coefficients.

→ If $x(t)$ is an even signal;
ie $x(t) = x(-t)$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = a_{-k} = \text{even}$$

→ If $x(t)$ is an odd signal;

$$\text{ie } x(t) = -x(-t)$$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = -a_{-k} = \text{odd}$$

④ Time Scaling

$$T, \omega_0 \leftarrow x(t) \xrightarrow{F.O.S} a_k$$

$$\alpha\omega_0, \frac{T}{\alpha} \leftarrow x(\alpha t) \xrightarrow{F.O.S} a_k$$

$T' = \frac{T}{\alpha}, \omega = \alpha\omega_0$
T & ω are inversely proportional
| αk | depend

$$\text{As } x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$x(\alpha t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 \alpha t}$$

→ The former coefficients will remain the same but the former series representation will change.

The position of the coefficient in the spectrum will change. ($\alpha\omega_0$)

⑤ Multiplication

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} a_k$$

$$y(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} b_k$$

$$z(t) = x(t)y(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} C_k = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} a_l b_{k-l}$$

↓
convolution

⑥ Conjugate and conjugate symmetry

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} a_k$$

$$x^*(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} a_{-k}^*$$

$$\text{As } x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$x^*(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k^* e^{-jk\omega_0 t}$$

Replace k by $-k$,

$$x^*(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_{-k}^* e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

If $x(t)$ is real;
 $x(t) = x^*(t)$

$$\Rightarrow a_k^* = a_{-k} \quad \rightarrow \text{conjugate symmetry}$$

$$\text{or } a_{-k}^* = a_k$$

Ex) $a_1 = 1 + j5$

$a_1^* = 1 - j5$

$\hookrightarrow a_{-1}$

$$a_k^* = a_{-k}$$

$a_k \rightarrow$ complex

Can be written as;

$$|a_k| \angle a_k \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Re}\{a_k\} + j \text{Im}\{a_k\}$$

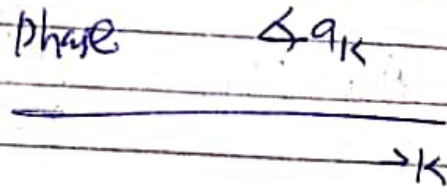
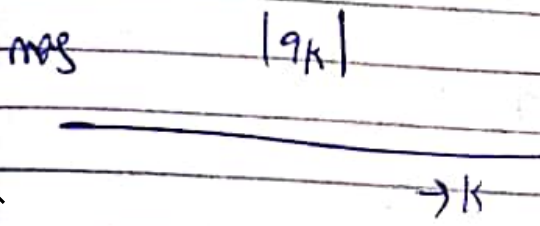
$$|a_k| = |a_{-k}|$$

$$\angle a_k = -\angle a_{-k}$$

$$\text{Re}\{a_k\} = \text{Re}\{a_{-k}\}$$

$$\text{Im}\{a_k\} = -\text{Im}\{a_{-k}\}$$

Graph of a_k ;



$\text{Re}\{a_k\}$

$\text{Im}\{a_k\}$

⑦ Differentiation

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} a_k$$

$$y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} x(t) \xrightarrow{F.S} b_k = jk\omega_0 a_k$$

⑧ Integration

$$y(t) = \int x(t) dt \xrightarrow{F.S} b_k = \frac{1}{jk\omega_0} a_k$$

Parseval's Relation

Say $x(t)$ with period T .

$$\text{Avg power} = \frac{1}{T} \int_T |x(t)|^2 dt$$

So according to Parseval;

$x(t)$ if periodic \rightarrow has F.S \rightarrow has F. coefft.

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{\text{F.S}} a_k$$

$$\text{Avg power} = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |a_k|^2$$

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |a_k| e^{j\omega_k t}$$

Discrete Time Fourier Series

Periodic signals in discrete time,

$$x[n] = x[n+N], \text{ for all } N$$

$N \rightarrow$ fundamental period

$$\frac{2\pi}{N} = \omega_0 \rightarrow \text{fundamental frequency.}$$

Representation of this periodic signal with period N in terms of complex exponential signals (periodic).

$$e^{j\omega_0 n} = e^{j\frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

\rightarrow periodic exponential signal with period N .

$\phi_k(t) = e^{jk\omega_0 t}$ → for every different value of k , we get a different periodic signal.

$\phi_k[n] = e^{jk\omega_0 n}$ → change value of k . → As number of values of k are completed, the signal will start repeating itself.

Harmonically related exponential signals;

$$\phi_k[n] = e^{jk\omega_0 n}, \quad k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

$$\phi_0[n], \phi_1[n], \phi_2[n], \phi_3[n] \dots \phi_{N-1}[n], \phi_N[n]$$

These two will be the same. → $\phi_{N+1} + \phi_{N+2} + \dots$
 so repetition starts.

N number of unique signals.

if starting at 1 start → $k=0$ → $N-1$
 if starting at $k=0$ → N

Linear combination of harmonically related exp signals;

$$x[n] = \sum_k a_k \phi_k[n]$$

→ All of these are periodic with period N .

$$\phi_k[n] = e^{jk\omega_0 n}$$

$$\phi_k[n] = \phi_{k+rN}[n] \quad r \rightarrow \text{multiple.}$$

ie $\phi_0 = \phi_N = \phi_{2N} = \phi_{3N}$

Linear combination;

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} a_k \phi_k[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} a_k e^{jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

$\langle \rangle$ means the start and end doesn't matter.
 → consider N number of values.

→ D.T F.S → Synthesis equation

In CT FS the summation is over an infinite range. (infinite range of exp terms)

In DT \rightarrow finite interval of summation.

\rightarrow there are no convergence issues as in CT FS.

$$x[n] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_k e^{jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

the series will always converge to the original signal.

Coefficient, $a_k = ?$

Using the same procedure as in CT,

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n \in \langle N \rangle} x[n] e^{-jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

Analysis equation.

In CT FS,

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t}$$

The difference is all s/c of different nature of harmonically related exponentials.

Consider, $x[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k \phi_k[n]$

let $x[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k \phi_k[n]$

Expanding,

$$x[n] = a_0 \phi_0[n] + a_1 \phi_1[n] + a_2 \phi_2[n] + \dots + a_{N-1} \phi_{N-1}[n]$$

or say $x[n] = \sum_{k=1}^N a_k \phi_k[n]$

Expanding

$$x[n] = a_1 \phi_1[n] + a_2 \phi_2[n] + \dots + a_N \phi_N[n]$$

Different terms, but we know that; $\phi_0 = \phi_N$

Generalizing

$$\Rightarrow a_0 = a_N$$

$$a_k = a_{k+N}$$

$$a_0 = a_N$$

$$a_1 = a_{N+1}$$

→ Same coefficients of DTFS repeat themselves after every N intervals.

↳ this behavior was not shown by CTFS.

↳ the a_k are periodic with period N .

Lecture 3

DT Fourier Series

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} a_k e^{jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n} \rightarrow \text{Synthesis}$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} x[n] e^{-jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n} \rightarrow \text{Analysis}$$

In DT, summation is over finite number of terms whereas in CT it over infinite interval.

The Fourier coefficients in DT are periodic in nature. $a_k = a_{k-10}$

Example $x[n] = \sin \omega_0 n$ DT FS?

Sin in DT may or may not be periodic.
checking periodicity;

(ii) \rightarrow If $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} = \text{integer} = N \rightarrow \text{period.}$

Say fulfilling;

$$\Rightarrow x[n] = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{N} n\right)$$

We want to represent $x[n]$ in this form;

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} a_k e^{jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

Using Euler's relation;

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2j} e^{j\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)n} - \frac{1}{2j} e^{-j\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)n}$$

What is $\frac{1}{2j}$ and $-\frac{1}{2j}$ representing?

\downarrow
 a_1

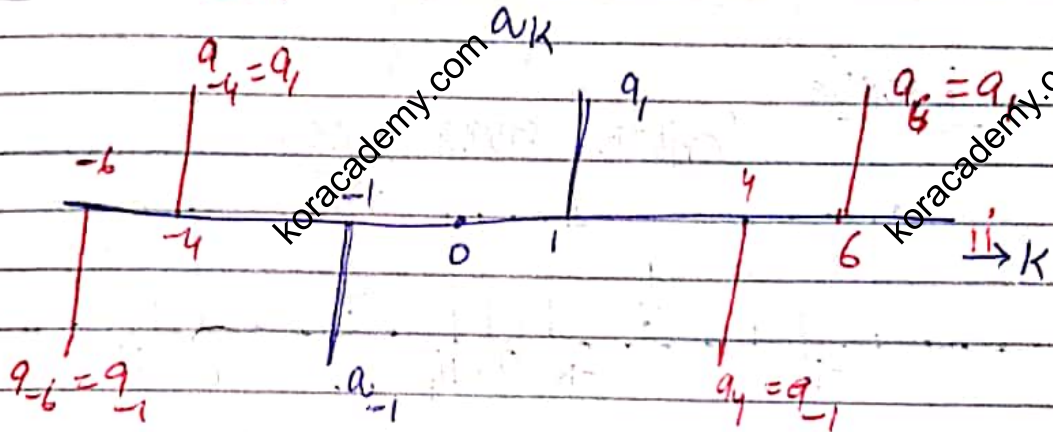
\downarrow
 a_{-1}

The rest coefficients are zero.

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{2j} \quad a_{-1} = -\frac{1}{2j}$$

$$a_k = 0, \quad k \neq \pm 1$$

Assume $N = 5$ period



ii. Consider the other possibility for periodicity; period?

ie if $\frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} \neq$ ratio of integers $\frac{N}{M}$

$$\Rightarrow \omega_0 = \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)M$$

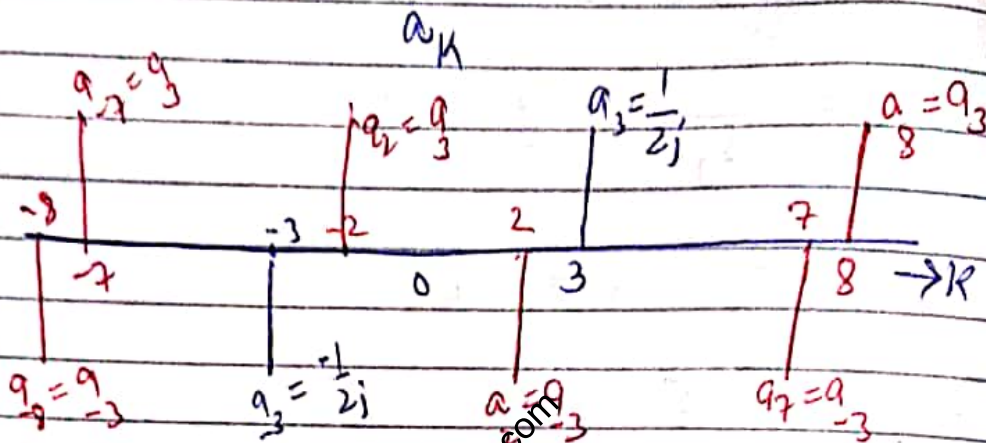
$$x[n] = \sin M \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)n$$

Again using Euler's relation:

$$x[n] = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2j}}_{a_m} e^{+jm\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)n} - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2j}}_{a_{-m}} e^{-jm\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right)n}$$

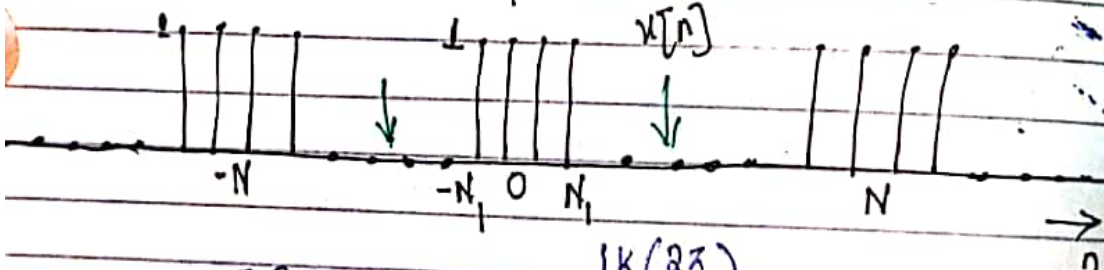
Assume $N=5, M=3$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2\pi}{\omega_0} = \frac{N}{M} = \frac{5}{3}$$



Example

Periodic square wave.



$$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n} = ?$$

$$A) a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-jk \frac{2\pi}{N} n}$$

but non zero only $-N_1 < n < N_1$ interval \leftarrow say $\frac{-N_1+1}{2}$ to $\frac{N_1}{2}$

$$\text{So } a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-N_1}^{N_1} (1) e^{-j \frac{2\pi}{N} nk}$$

modification (make lower limit zero.)

Let $m = n + N_1$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=0}^{2N_1} e^{-jk \frac{2\pi}{N} (m - N_1)}$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} e^{jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) N_1} \sum_{m=0}^{2N_1} e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) m}$$

As $\sum_{m=0}^M x^m = \frac{1 - x^{M+1}}{1 - x}$

$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{1}{N} e^{jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) N_1} \left[\frac{1 - e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) (2N_1 + 1)}}{1 - e^{-jk \frac{2\pi}{N}}}$$

After simplification, $\rightarrow e^{+j0} - e^{-j0} \rightarrow 0$

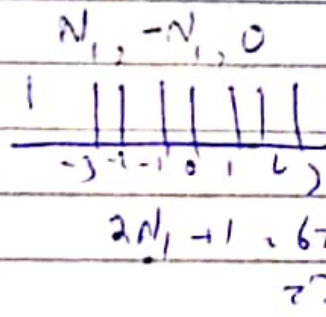
$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \left[\frac{\sin \left\{ \frac{2\pi}{N} k \left(N_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right\}}{\sin \left(\frac{\pi k}{N} \right)} \right] \quad \text{For } k \neq 0$$

$a_0 = ?$

\rightarrow is the DC or average value (no. of samples)

Adv. one period, but only in the discrete for unity signal is average.

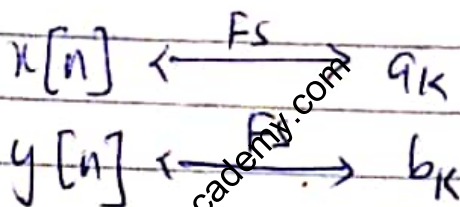
$$a_0 = \frac{2N_1 + 1}{N}$$



Properties of DT. FS

1. Linearity

similar as CT.



$$A x[n] + B y[n] = z[n] \xleftrightarrow{F.S} C_k = A a_k + B b_k$$

Not only for two, for n number of signals.

2. Time Reversal

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F.S} a_k$$

$$x[-n] \xleftrightarrow{F.S} a_{-k}$$

As synthesis eq; $x[n] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_k e^{j k \omega_0 n}$

So $x[-n] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_k e^{j k \omega_0 n}$ → This should be +.

Replace k by -k

$$x[-n] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_{-k} e^{j k \omega_0 n}$$

3. Time shifting.

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F.S} a_k$$

$$x[n-n_0] \xleftrightarrow{F.S} e^{-j k \omega_0 n_0} a_k$$

Proof As $x[n] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_k e^{j k \omega_0 n}$

Hence $x[n-n_0] = \sum_{k \in \langle N \rangle} a_k e^{j k \omega_0 (n-n_0)}$

9. Conjugate and Conjugate Symmetry

$$x[n] \xrightarrow{\text{FoS}} a_k$$

$$\boxed{x^*[n] \xrightarrow{\text{FoS}} a_{-k}^*}$$

If $x[n]$ is real; $x[n] = x^*[n]$

$\Rightarrow a_k = a_{-k}^* \rightarrow$ conjugate symmetry.

As a_k is complex $\text{Re}(a_k) = \text{Re}(a_{-k}^*)$

$$\text{Im}(a_k) = -\text{Im}(a_{-k}^*)$$

Similarly in polar form

$$|a_k| = |a_{-k}| \quad \text{and} \quad \angle a_k = -\angle a_{-k}$$

If $x[n]$ is real and even;

$$x[n] = x[-n]$$

$$a_k = a_{-k}$$

$\Rightarrow a_k^* = a_k$ as $a_k = a_{-k}$

$\hookrightarrow a_k$ is real and even.

If $x[n]$ is real and odd;

$$x[n] = -x[-n]$$

a_k is purely imaginary and odd.

5. First difference

$$x[n] \xrightarrow{FS} a_k$$

Differentiation in CT

$$x(t) \leftrightarrow a_k$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \leftrightarrow j\omega_0 k a_k$$

$$x[n] - x[n-1] = y[n] \iff b_k = a_k - e^{-jk\omega_0} a_k$$

$$b_k = a_k (1 - e^{-jk\omega_0})$$

6. Multiplication

$$x[n] \xrightarrow{FS} a_k \quad y[n] \xrightarrow{FS} b_k$$

$$x[n] \cdot y[n] \xrightarrow{FS} \sum_{p=\langle N \rangle} a_p b_{k-p}$$

↳ convolution

periodic

Parseval's Relation

$x[n]$ periodic with period N .

$$\text{Avg power} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} |x[n]|^2$$

$$\text{As } x[n] \xrightarrow{FS} a_k$$

$$\text{Parseval average power} = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} |a_k|^2$$

The Continuous time Fourier Transform.

1. For periodic signals we have FS which represent signals in terms of complex exponential signals ($e^{jk\omega_0 t}$) (linear combination)

2. We can also represent aperiodic signals in terms of complex exponential signal \rightarrow Fourier transform.

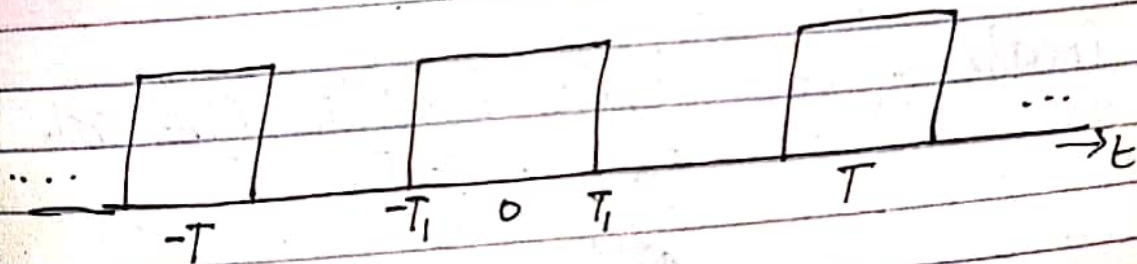
Q: What is the difference if both periodic and aperiodic signals can be represented in terms of exponentials?

3. For periodic signals the complex exponential signals are harmonically related.

4. For aperiodic signals, the comp exp signals are infinitesimally close in frequency and not harmonically related.

(5) Fourier reasoned that any aperiodic signal can be viewed as periodic signal with infinite period. (consider a periodic signal \rightarrow FS \rightarrow move to $FT = \alpha$ \leftarrow effect \leftarrow period)

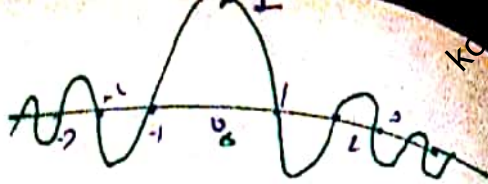
! Main concept development \rightarrow Development of Fourier transform:



FS coefficients;

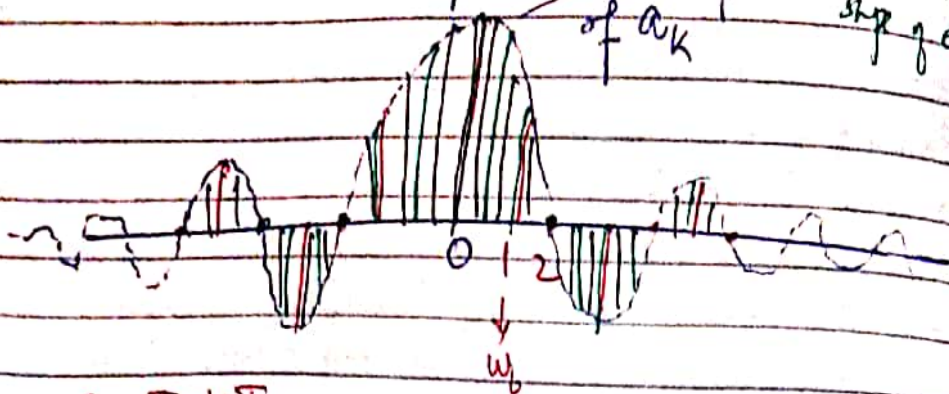
$$a_k = \frac{\int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \text{rect}(t/T_1) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt}{k\omega_0 T} \rightarrow \text{sinc function}$$

$$\text{sinc } \theta = \frac{\sin(\pi\theta)}{\pi\theta}$$



Assume T_1 is fixed.

→ envelope with main lobe
 → envelope of a_k → no change in slope of envelope



Say for $T = 4T_1$

Say $T = 8T_1$

T increase → ω_0 decrease.

↳ compress → close to each other

Say $T = 16T_1$

↳ more closer → getting congested.

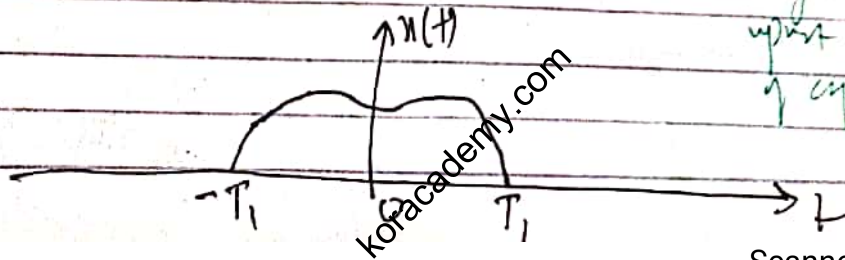
a_k are like samples of envelope

As period ↑ ⇒ sampling ↑

If we approach the period to ∞ , a_k would approach the envelope.

So the discrete nature of coefficients would convert into a continuous one.

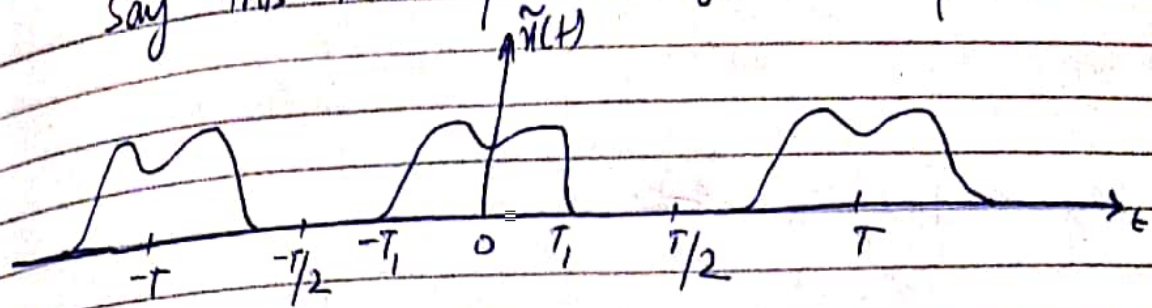
Consider a finite duration Appendix signal such that $x(t) = 0$ for $|t| > T_1$.



Say we want to upsample this in terms of samples expanded.

Idea of finite \Rightarrow Approx \rightarrow more periods

Say this is a periodic signal; with period T .



$\tilde{x}(t)$ is periodic version of $x(t)$.

$x(t)$ and $\tilde{x}(t)$ are equal in one period.

$x(t)$ is one period of $\tilde{x}(t)$.

As we increase T of $\tilde{x}(t)$, the time for which $x(t)$ and $\tilde{x}(t)$ are equal will increase.

If we make $T = \infty$ for $\tilde{x}(t)$, the two signals will be exactly equal for all time.

F.S of $\tilde{x}(t)$; $\tilde{x}(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$ \rightarrow ①

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_T \tilde{x}(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \tilde{x}(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

In this interval $x(t)$ and $\tilde{x}(t)$ are same:

$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt$$

$x \rightarrow$ If signal is zero otherwise

Say a function; ~~even~~ Envelope function;

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

($\omega = k\omega_0$)

$$a_k = \frac{1}{T} X(jk\omega_0) \rightarrow \text{in } \textcircled{1}$$

$$\tilde{x}(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{T} X(jk\omega_0) e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T} \Rightarrow \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{T}$$

$$\tilde{x}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} X(jk\omega_0) e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

Increase the period T and see what happens when $T \rightarrow \infty$.

As things small as ω , the difference will be so small that we will call it a continuous variable.

$$\tilde{x}(t) = x(t), \omega_0 \rightarrow 0, k\omega_0 \rightarrow \omega$$

$\sum \rightarrow \int$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Inverse FT

Synthesis eq

$$\text{weight} \leftarrow \frac{X(j\omega) d\omega}{2\pi} e^{j\omega t}$$

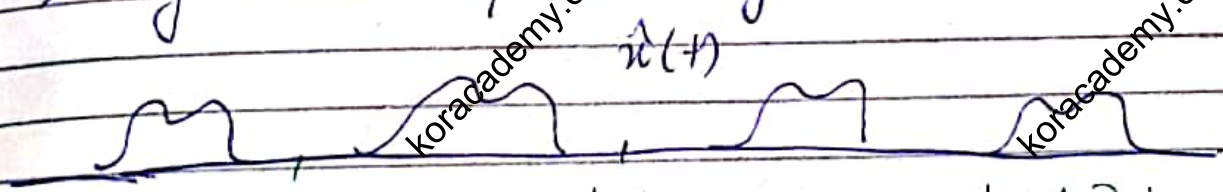
$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \quad \begin{matrix} \text{Forward} \\ \rightarrow \text{FT} \\ \rightarrow \text{Analysis eq.} \end{matrix}$$

sample $a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int x(jk\omega_0) =$ another point of view

$a_k = \frac{1}{T} X(j\omega) \Big|_{\omega = k\omega_0}$ for different values of k

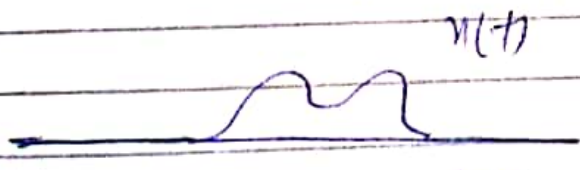
→ It appears as if Fourier coefficients are samples of Fourier transform

→ say we have a periodic signal; (more from)



$a_k = ?$ we can use the analysis eq, but we interpret it by another method.

say we take one period of the periodic signal;



↳ see this is aperiodic.

FS x FT $\rightarrow X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$

finding a_k of $x(t)$ with the help of

$a_k = \frac{1}{T} X(j\omega) \Big|_{\omega = k\omega_0}$

take samples

Convergence of FTCT

1. Not all Aperiodic signals will have FT.

Assume $X(j\omega)$ exists for some signals, say $x(t)$

$$\text{IFT} \quad \tilde{x}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

\rightarrow is a valid signal

Is $\tilde{x}(t)$ a valid representation of our original signal?

$$\text{Error} \rightarrow e(t) = \tilde{x}(t) - x(t)$$

\rightarrow (we try to minimize)

\rightarrow We decide on the basis of energy of error signal.

$$\text{Energy} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |e(t)|^2 dt = 0 \quad \text{converge}$$

Condition for FT to exist

1- $x(t)$ has finite energy.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |e(t)|^2 dt = 0$$

~~2.~~ Dirichlet's Condition for Convergence.

① $x(t)$ must be absolutely integrable.

ie $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)| dt < \infty$

Fin FS us
 finite FT us are
 period sig A →
 period

② $x(t)$ is having finite number of maxima and minima during any finite time interval.

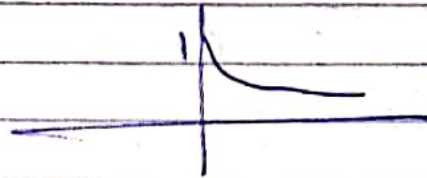
③ $x(t)$ is having finite number of finite discontinuities within any finite interval.

Example:

$x(t) = e^{-at} \cdot u(t)$, $a > 0$
 → exponentially decaying → Aperiodic

FT $X(j\omega) = ?$

As $X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$



$X(j\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-at} \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(a+j\omega)t} dt$

$X(j\omega) = \frac{1}{a+j\omega}$, $a > 0$

$\frac{e^{-(a+j\omega)t} \Big|_0^{\infty}}{-(a+j\omega)}$

→ Generally a complex function.

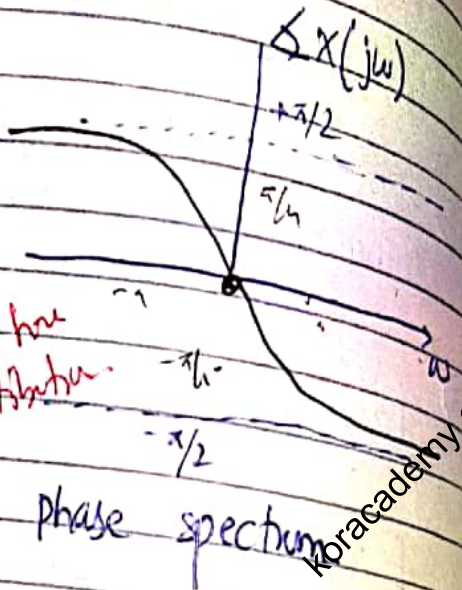
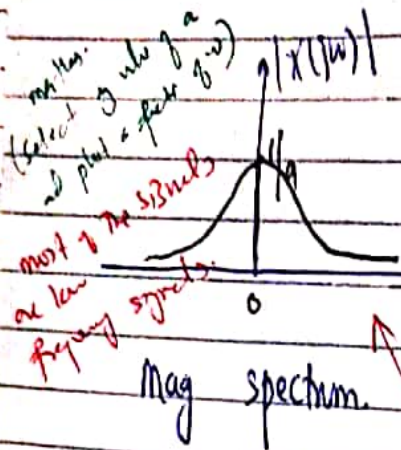
→ in polar form.

$|X(j\omega)| \angle X(j\omega)$

→ $\text{phase} = \frac{1}{a+j\omega}$

$$|X(j\omega)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + \omega^2}}$$

$$\angle X(j\omega) = 0 - \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega}{a}\right)$$



Spectrum \rightarrow frequency components.

Phase spectrum

Example

$$x(t) = \delta(t)$$

Aperiodic.

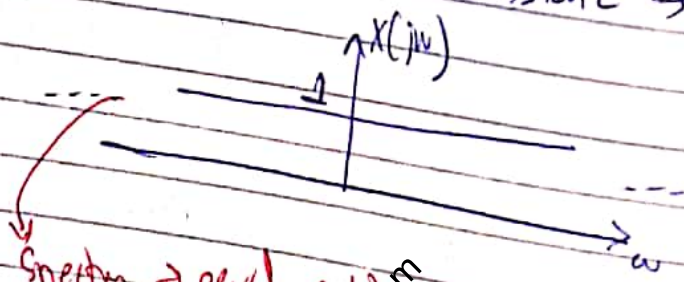
CTFT = ?



$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$\Rightarrow X(j\omega) = 1 \rightarrow \text{constant} \rightarrow \text{real}$$

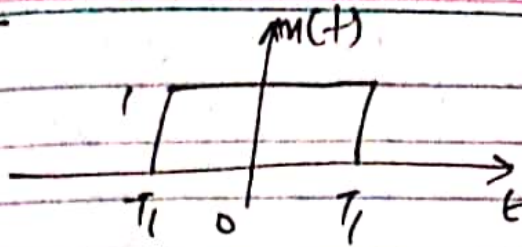
$$\boxed{x(t) \delta(t-t_0) = x(t_0) \delta(t-t_0)}$$



Spectrum \rightarrow equal contribution of all frequencies

Lecture

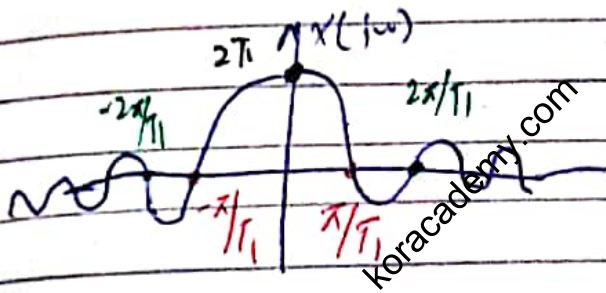
Example



$$x(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & |t| < T_1 \\ 0, & |t| > T_1 \end{cases}$$

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{-T_1}^{T_1} 1 \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$X(j\omega) = \frac{2 \sin \omega T_1}{\omega} \rightarrow \text{similar to sinc function.}$$

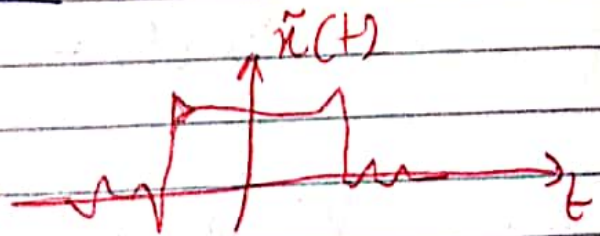


or if going in reverse order i.e. from $X(j\omega)$ to $x(t)$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

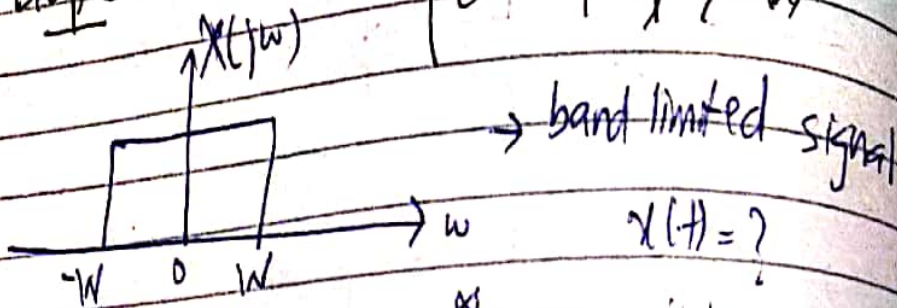
$$\tilde{x}(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{2 \sin \omega T_1}{\omega} e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Gibbs phenomena;



So for a finite duration signal, the bandwidth in frequency domain is infinite.

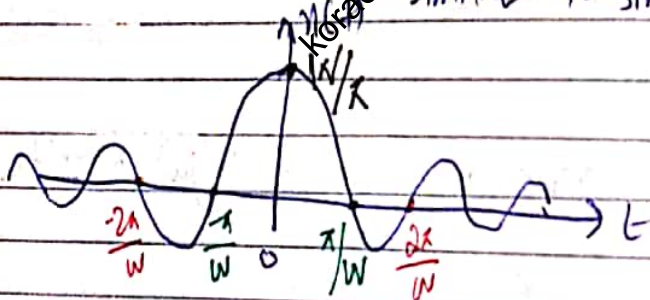
Example $x(j\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & |\omega| < W \\ 0 & |\omega| > W \end{cases}$



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

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-W}^W 1 e^{j\omega t} d\omega \Rightarrow x(t) = \frac{\sin Wt}{\pi t}$$

similar to sinc \leftarrow



Duality. $x(t) \longleftrightarrow X(j\omega)$

$$\text{sinc}(\theta) = \frac{\sin \pi \theta}{\pi \theta}$$

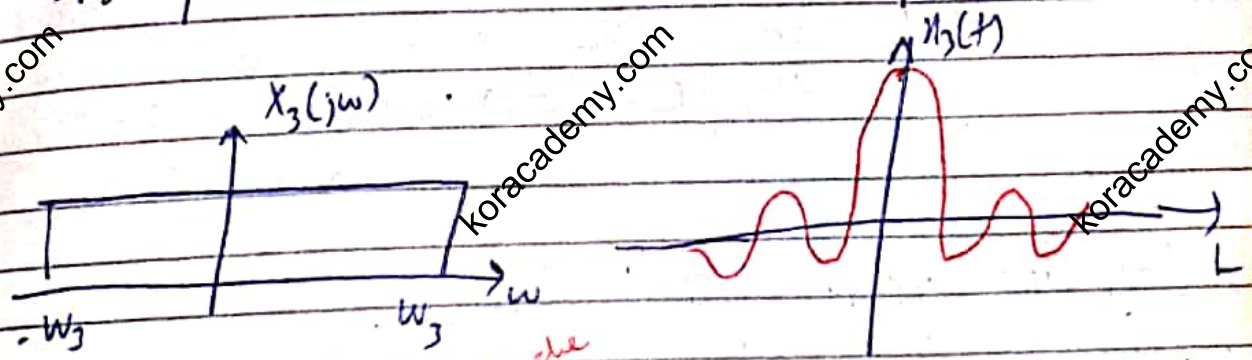
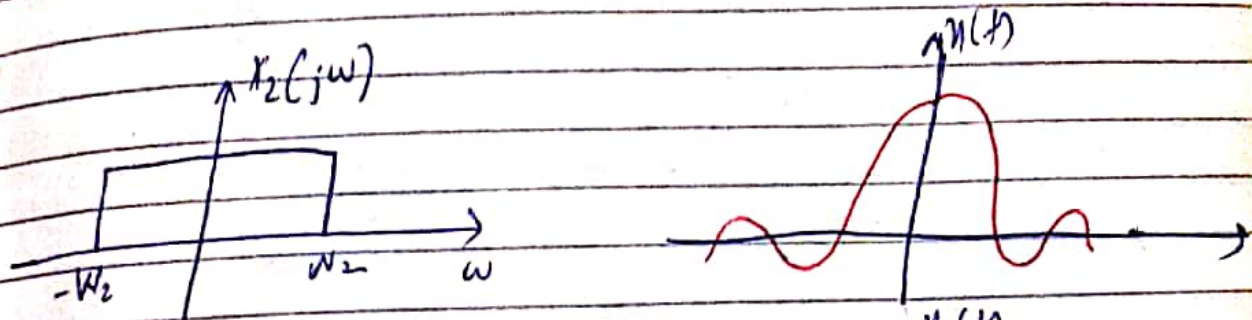
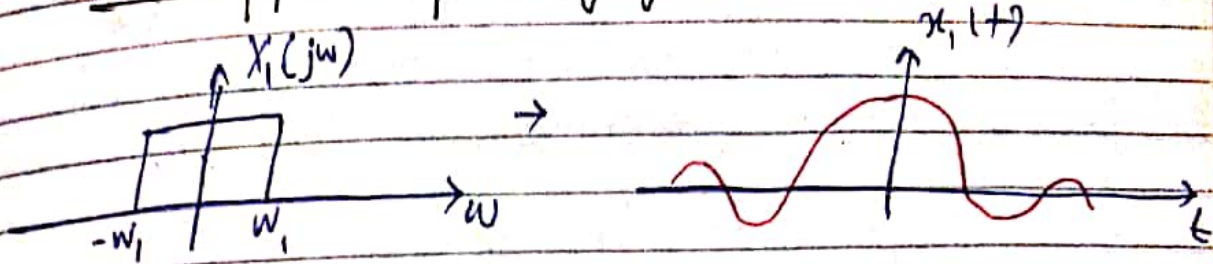
$$X(j\omega) = 2T_1 \frac{\sin \omega T_1}{\omega T_1}$$

$$x(t) = \frac{W}{\pi} \frac{\sin Wt}{tW}$$

$$x(j\omega) = 2T_1 \text{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega T_1}{\pi}\right) \quad x(t) = \frac{W}{\pi} \frac{\sin Wt}{tW}$$

$$x(t) = \frac{W}{\pi} \text{sinc}\left(\frac{Wt}{\pi}\right)$$

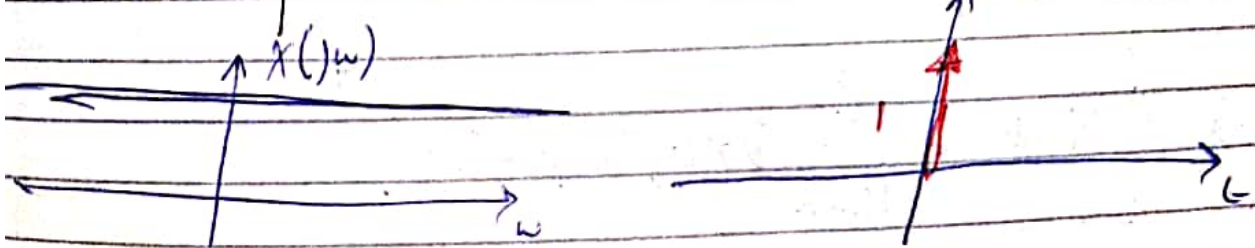
The effect of varying ω . (massig sand)



$\omega \uparrow \Rightarrow \frac{\omega}{\pi} \uparrow \Rightarrow \frac{\pi}{\omega} \downarrow$
 \hookrightarrow upward \hookrightarrow narrow

massig sand
 \Rightarrow signal is compressing in the domain and peak value at two times.

What if $\omega \rightarrow \infty$

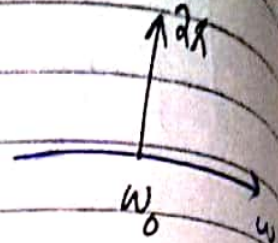


Time and frequency domain are inversely related.
Bandwidth $\uparrow \Rightarrow$ signal compress.
 $\downarrow \Rightarrow$ expand.

The Fourier Transform of Periodic Signals:

Assume that we have a Fourier transform in the form of impulse function i.e.

$$X(j\omega) = 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$$



$$x(t) = ?$$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\omega - \omega_0) e^{j\omega t} d\omega = e^{j\omega_0 t}$$

↳ periodic signal

For any general periodic signal $x(t)$

$$\text{FS } x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t}$$

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t} \xleftrightarrow{F} X(j\omega) = 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$$

$$a_k e^{jk\omega_0 t} \xleftrightarrow{F} 2\pi a_k \delta(\omega - k\omega_0)$$

$$X(j\omega) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi a_k \delta(\omega - k\omega_0)$$

* There will always be impulses in FT of periodic signals.

$$\cos \omega t = \frac{e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t}}{2}$$

Example $x(t) = \sin \omega_0 t \rightarrow$ periodic

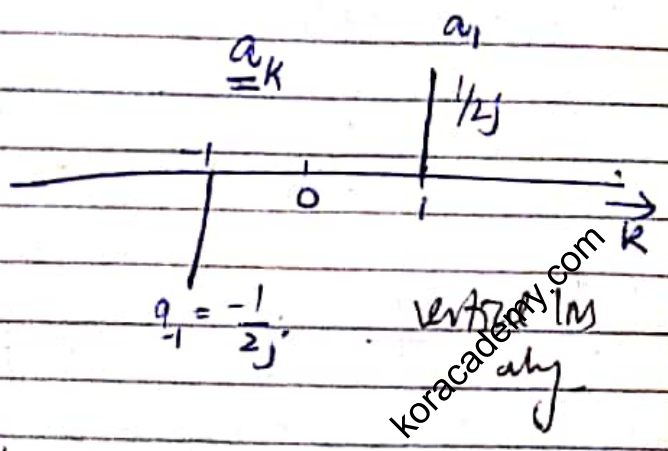
From Euler's relation;

$$x(t) = \frac{e^{j\omega_0 t} - e^{-j\omega_0 t}}{2j}$$

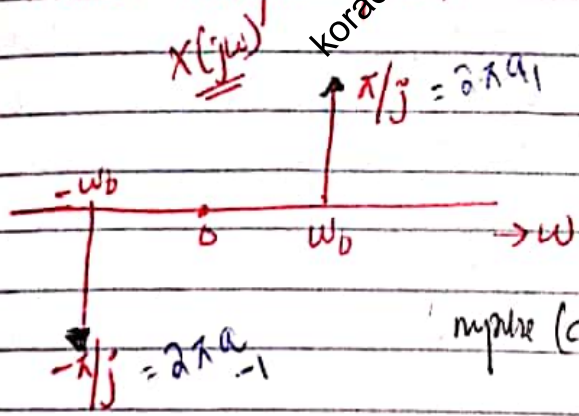
$$a_1 = \frac{1}{2j}, \quad a_{-1} = -\frac{1}{2j}$$

Fourier series plot;

Line spectrum



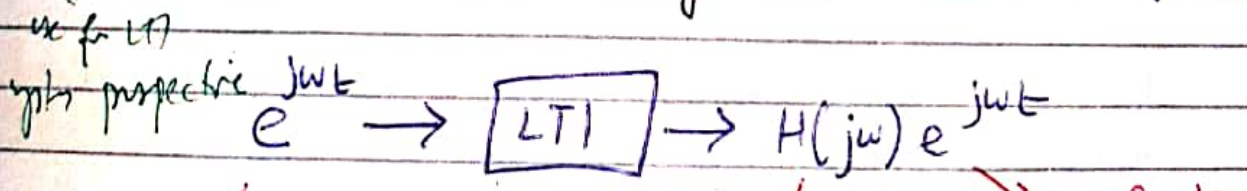
Fourier transform plot;



$$(2\pi a_k)$$

if $a_2 \neq 2\omega_0$
 $a_2 \rightarrow 2\omega_0$

Fourier Tool and LTI system \rightarrow can solve (equation)



eigen function

eigen value

eigen function

$$H(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \rightarrow \text{frequency response}$$

\rightarrow Fourier transform.

Frequency response: Basically the Fourier transform of impulse response of LTI system

$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega t}$
 \rightarrow [LTI]
 $\rightarrow y(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega t} H(jk\omega)$

we have different frequency response
 input & output multiple of ω .
 It has changed the F.S.C
 o/p sig for $\cos = a_k H(jk\omega)$

response of the LTI system - amplitude changes with the frequency
 F.O.C determines the amplitude of input spectrum

Filtering

In some applications, it is required to change the relative amplitudes of the frequency components in a signal or to eliminate some frequency components entirely.

- ① Frequency shaping filters.
- ② Frequency selective filters.

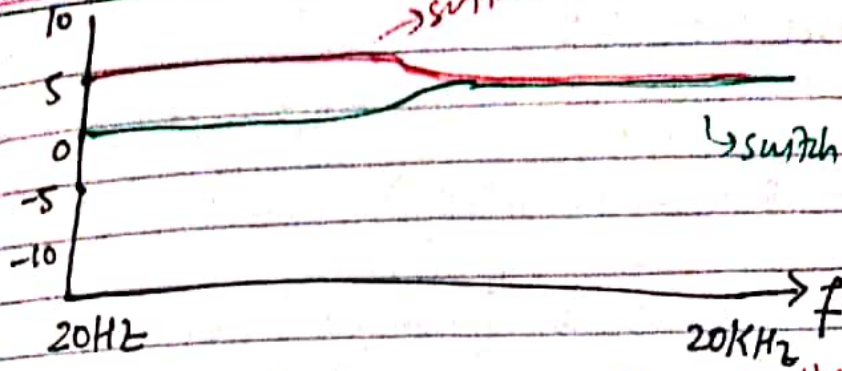
Frequency Shaping Filters

HiFi audio system; there are control buttons that allow listener to change the relative amplitude of low frequency (Bass) and high frequency components (Treble)

increase B \rightarrow \uparrow L.F.C \rightarrow heavy
 \uparrow T \rightarrow \uparrow H.F.C \rightarrow shrill
 { Equalizer }

\rightarrow laptop / computer sound settings

Response (dB)



changing relative amplitude (of some components) \rightarrow sub filter

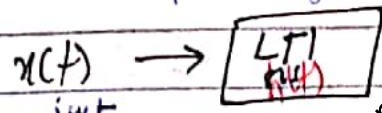
Increase amplitude of low frequency \rightarrow heavy sound.

Increase amplitude of high frequency \rightarrow shrill sound.

Practical / mathematical approach of box filters.

Consider

differentiator
simplified
(formula) eqn



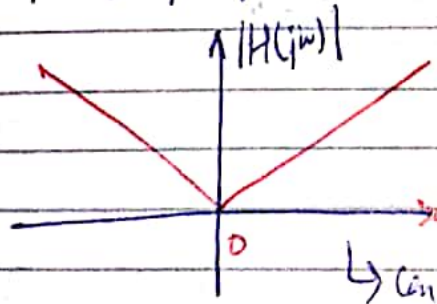
$$y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} x(t) = j\omega e^{j\omega t}$$

frequency response (eigen value)
 \rightarrow generally complex

$$H(j\omega) = j\omega$$

$$|H(j\omega)| = |\omega|$$

$$\angle H(j\omega) = \pm \pi/2 \rightarrow \text{depending on value of } \omega$$



\Rightarrow (so it can be used as a high pass filter.)

\rightarrow can be used to improve the higher frequencies in our signal.

High freq amplitude = \uparrow
Lower freq amplitude = \downarrow

\rightarrow This filter is useful in enhancing the rapid variations or transitions in a signal.

differentiator \rightarrow emphasize H.F.s and de-emphasize L.F.s.

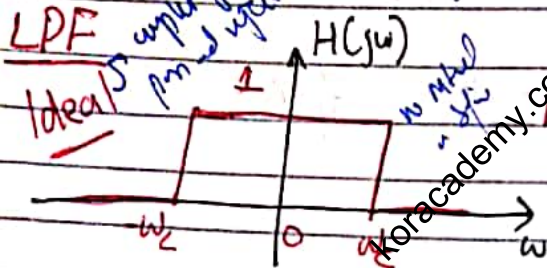
\rightarrow in the domain \rightarrow differentiate

in f domain \rightarrow H.P. filter

Frequency selective Filters.

1. Low Pass filter. (LPF) → passes low and attenuates high f.
 2. High pass filter. (HPF) → passes high and rejects low f.
 3. Band pass filter. (BPF) → passes a band & attenuates the rest.
 4. Band stop filter (BSF) → stops a band and passes the rest.
- ↳ Notch filter

We will see which frequencies are being blocked and passed by frequency response.



↳ parameter now on the basis of which we are talking of filtering.

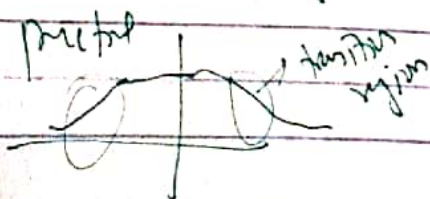
$$H(j\omega) = \begin{cases} 1, & |\omega| \leq \omega_c \\ 0, & |\omega| > \omega_c \end{cases}$$

← stop band → | ← pass band → | ← stop band →

ω_c → cut off frequency.

Quality of frequency selective filters

1. How effective is the filter at passing frequencies in the pass band.
 2. How effective is it at attenuating frequencies in the stop band.
 3. How sharp is the transition near the cut off frequency.
- ideal → ideal sharp → duty on f pass to stop band.

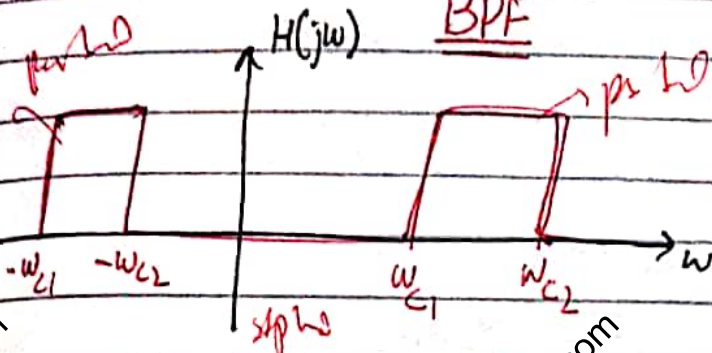


HPF



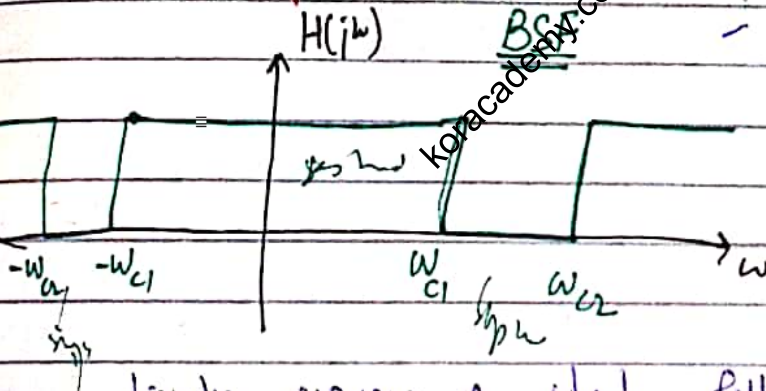
why am I calling these ideal?
 why can we not design such set of filters practically?

BPF



The same graphs are frequency responses of the systems (filters).

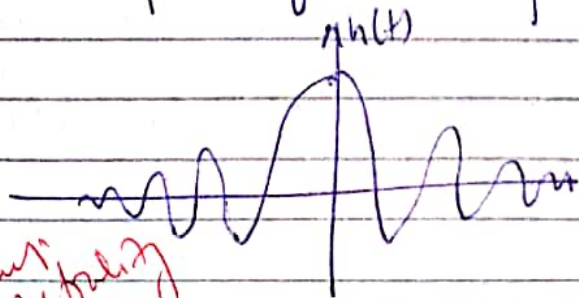
BSF



The complex FT pair (h(t)) imply signs of f.d.

$$h(t) \Rightarrow \text{non causal}$$

Impulse response of ideal filters, \rightarrow sinc.



$h(t) \neq 0$ for $t < 0$
 \downarrow
 non causal

problem with causality

All practical systems are causal \rightarrow so ideal filters are not possible.

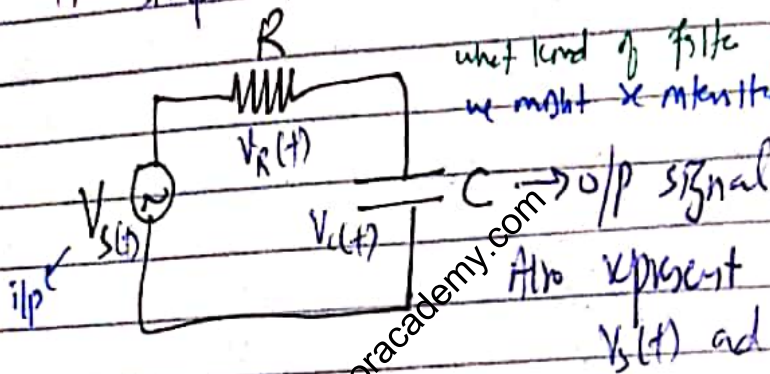
can't be physically realized

Ideal filters discussed before are not realizable so we need to find filters that can be realized and their behavior/performance can be approximately close to ideal one.

Realizable Filters.

depends on output com. with the input

A simple RC circuit; can be used as a practical filter



what kind of filter is it?

we might be interested in knowing some frequencies.

Also represent $V_c(t)$ in terms of $V_s(t)$ and $V_c(t)$.

KVL \Rightarrow

$$V_s(t) = RC \frac{dV_c}{dt} + V_c(t) \rightarrow \text{LCCDE} \quad (A)$$

Linear constant coefficient differential equation

So this circuit is an LTI system. \rightarrow Linear and time invariant

\rightarrow Frequency response = ?

\rightarrow only then can we characterize it and tell what sort of filter it is.

If sinusoidal i/p is applied;

$$\text{i.e. } V_s(t) = e^{j\omega t}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{o/p} = V_c(t) = H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t}$$

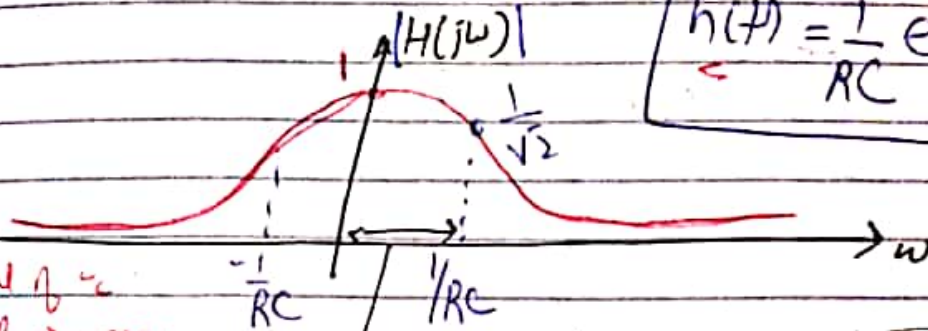
$$(A) \Rightarrow RC \frac{d}{dt} \{ H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} \} + H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} = e^{j\omega t}$$

$$\Rightarrow RC j\omega H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} + H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} = e^{j\omega t}$$

$$\Rightarrow H(j\omega) = \frac{1}{1 + RC j\omega} \quad \leftarrow |F1|$$

$$h(t) = \frac{1}{RC} e^{-t/RC} u(t)$$

LPF

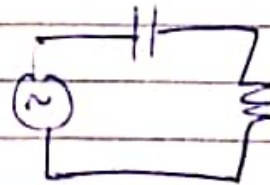


cut in practical of ω_c
is not defined \Rightarrow approx
Bandwidth not be defined.

(The same point for Bandwidth)
 \hookrightarrow the freq which filter off $\leq 1/\sqrt{2}$ of the maximum.

\Rightarrow Now if we use Resistor as o/p;

KVL and represent $V_c(t)$ in terms
of $V_s(t)$ or $V_R(t)$.



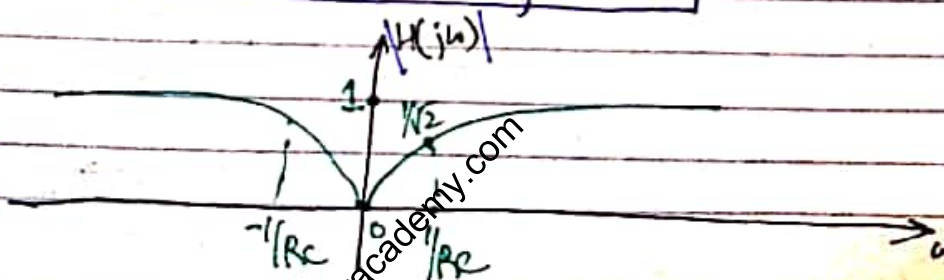
$$RC \frac{d}{dt} V_R(t) + V_R(t) = RC \frac{d}{dt} V_S(t) \rightarrow \textcircled{A}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{If } V_S = e^{j\omega t} \\ V_R(t) = H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} \end{array} \right.$$

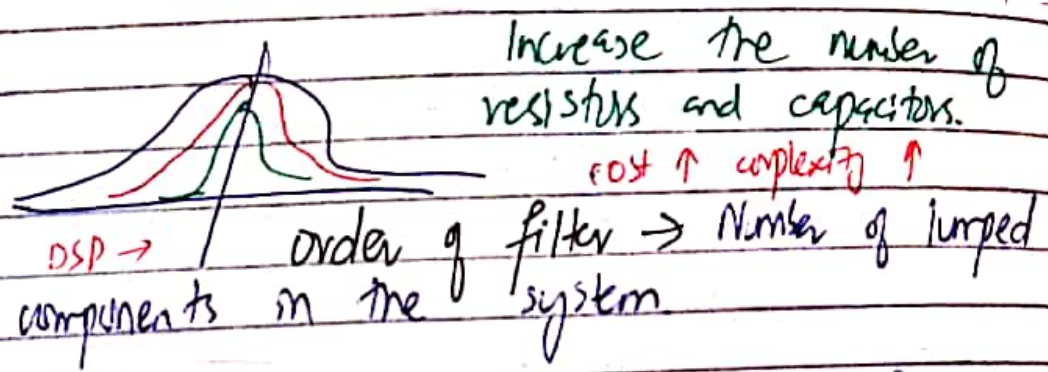
$\textcircled{A} \Rightarrow$

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega RC}{1 + j\omega RC}$$

HPF



How to improve response of the filter?
 be close to ideal.



Impulse response of realizable LP RC filter;



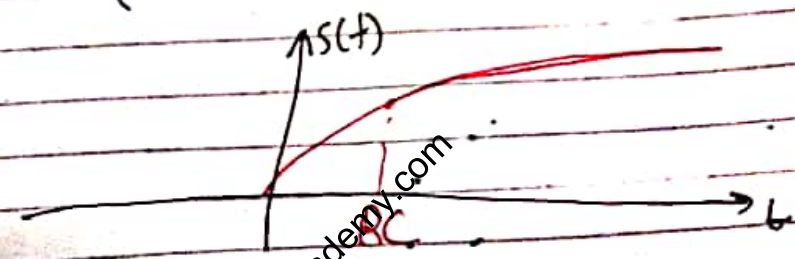
Realizable → the impulse response is zero for $t < 0$
 So causal.

Step Response



$h(t) = \frac{d s(t)}{dt}$ or $s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t h(\tau) d\tau$

$s(t) = (1 - e^{-t/RC}) u(t)$



RC time constant

Limitation \Rightarrow when you analyze/design a filter, you will not conclude it to be a good/bad filter only on the basis of its frequency response. Also see impulse and step response

\rightarrow As RC is increased, the frequency response ^(the domain) improves but the time response becomes slower \leftarrow

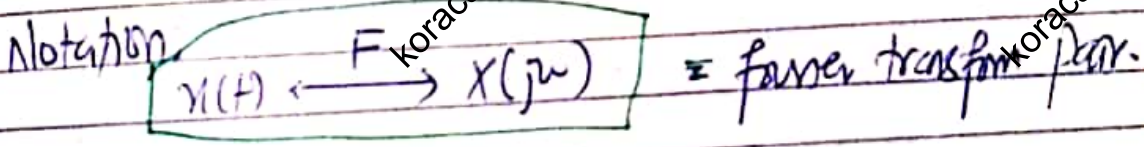
Lecture

Unit will operate slowly. \rightarrow when input is applied on the object (opp) will the same time + occur. performance

Properties of CTFT

analysis eq $X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$

synthesis eq $x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{+j\omega t} d\omega$



i. Linearity

if $x(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$
 and $y(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} Y(j\omega)$

then $\boxed{ax(t) + by(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} aX(j\omega) + bY(j\omega)}$

Proof. let $z(t) = ax(t) + by(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} z(j\omega) = ?$

$z(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} z(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [ax(t) + by(t)] e^{-j\omega t} dt$

$= a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt + b \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$
 $\rightarrow z(j\omega) = aX(j\omega) + bY(j\omega)$

$$x(t+b) \xrightarrow{F} X'(j\omega) = e^{j\omega b} X(j\omega)$$

left shift

2. Time shifting

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$x(t-t_0) \xrightarrow{F} X'(j\omega) = e^{-j\omega t_0} X(j\omega)$$

right shift

As $X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$

So $X'(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t-t_0) e^{-j\omega t} dt$

let $t-t_0 = \tau \rightarrow dt = d\tau$ $\rightarrow \tau$ is constant

$$X'(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\omega(\tau+t_0)} d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} e^{-j\omega t_0} d\tau$$

$$X'(j\omega) = e^{-j\omega t_0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau = e^{-j\omega t_0} X(j\omega)$$

$$|X(j\omega)| = |X'(j\omega)| \quad \text{as } |e^{-j\omega t_0}| = 1$$

So time shifting only affects the phase.

3. Conjugate and Conjugate Symmetry

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$x^*(t) \xrightarrow{F} X^*(-j\omega)$$

As $x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$

$$x^*(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(j\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega$$

Replace ω by $-\omega$

$$x^*(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(-j\omega) e^{+j\omega t} d\omega$$

If $x(t)$ is a real signal, i.e. $x(t) = x^*(t)$
 $\Rightarrow X(j\omega) = X^*(-j\omega)$

FT is conjugate symmetric

$$X(j\omega) = |X(j\omega)| \angle X(j\omega) \quad \text{①} \quad X(j\omega) = \text{Re}\{X(j\omega)\}$$

$$|X(j\omega)| = |X(-j\omega)| \quad \text{even} \quad \text{Im}\{X(j\omega)\}$$

$$\text{and } \angle X(j\omega) = -\angle X(-j\omega) \quad \text{odd}$$

$$\text{②} \quad \text{Re}\{X(j\omega)\} = \text{Re}\{X(-j\omega)\}$$

$$\text{Im}\{X(j\omega)\} = -\text{Im}\{X(-j\omega)\}$$

If $x(t)$ is real and even;

then $X(j\omega)$ is real and even.

If $x(t)$ is real and odd;

then $X(j\omega)$ is imaginary and odd.

4. Time Scaling:

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$x(at) \xrightarrow{F} X'(j\omega) = \frac{1}{|a|} X\left(j\frac{\omega}{a}\right)$$

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

\rightarrow if a is positive & negative

$$b \quad X'(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(at) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$\text{let } at = \tau \Rightarrow \frac{d\tau}{dt} = a$$

$$\Rightarrow X'(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\left(\frac{\omega}{a}\right)\tau} \frac{d\tau}{a}$$

$$\Rightarrow X'(j\omega) = \frac{1}{a} X\left(j\frac{\omega}{a}\right) \quad \text{FT for which } \omega = \frac{\omega}{a}$$

compress in time = expand in frequency and vice versa.

Indirect relation b/w time and frequency domain.
 a multiplied in time is divided in frequency.

Time Reversal

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

So by time scaling;
 $a = -1,$

$$\boxed{x(-t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(-j\omega)}$$

Duality Property.

$$\text{FT eq} \quad X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

both equations are similar with the roles of t and ω interchanged.

$$\text{IFT eq} \quad x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Rearranging $x(t)$ to get something like $X(j\omega)$

$$2\pi x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

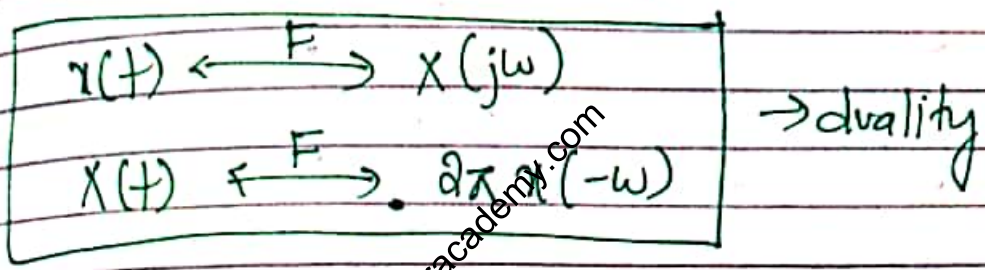
Replace t by $-t$

$$21. x(-t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega$$

Replace ω by t and t by ω .

$$22. x(-\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(jt) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

↑
 $s = \sigma + jt$



7. Convolution Property

$$x(t) \rightarrow [LTI] \rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

$$\text{If } \begin{aligned} x(t) &\xleftrightarrow{F} X(j\omega) \\ y(t) &\xleftrightarrow{F} Y(j\omega) = ? \\ h(t) &\xleftrightarrow{F} H(j\omega) \end{aligned}$$

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t) \iff Y(j\omega) = ?$$

$$A. Y(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [x(t) * h(t)] e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$X(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) h(t-\tau) d\tau \right] e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

changing the order of integration;

$$Y(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t-\tau) e^{-j\omega t} dt \right] d\tau$$

Time shift

$$Y(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} H(j\omega) d\tau$$

$$Y(j\omega) = H(j\omega) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$$

$$Y(j\omega) = H(j\omega) X(j\omega)$$

$$x_1(t) * x_2(t) \xrightarrow{F} X_1(j\omega) X_2(j\omega)$$

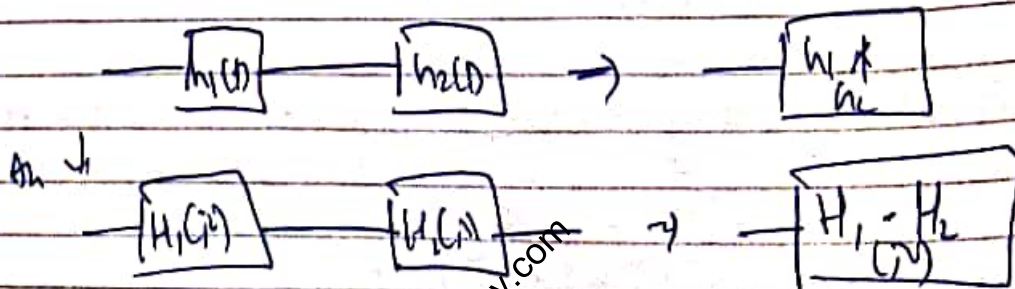
$H(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$
 ↑ frequency response
 ↓ impulse response

frequency response of two systems do not exist if this integral is not convergent

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)| dt < \infty \quad \text{stable system}$$

↳ frequency response

In cascaded systems;



significance of multiplying two signals
 modulation in time domain \rightarrow message (carrier)
 modulation in f domain \rightarrow why? to shift frequency
 modulation in f domain \rightarrow information spectral shifts to the frequency of carrier signal.

8. Multiplication property

$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(j\omega) \quad x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X_2(j\omega)$$

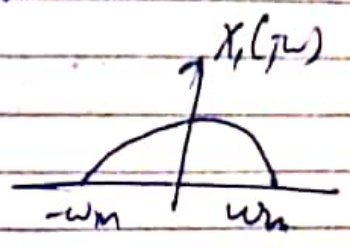
$$x_1(t) x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} [X_1(j\omega) * X_2(j\omega)] \frac{1}{2\pi}$$

information carrier

Also called modulation property. (in cos)

Let $x_1(t) \cos \omega_0 t$

\rightarrow carrier frequency



$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(j\omega)$$

$$\cos \omega_0 t \xleftrightarrow{F} \pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0) + \pi \delta(\omega + \omega_0)$$

$$x(t) \cos \omega_0 t \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(\omega) * \pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0) + X_1(\omega) * \pi \delta(\omega + \omega_0)$$

$$\pi X_1(\omega - \omega_0) + \pi X_1(\omega + \omega_0)$$



9. Differentiation Property

Time domain $x(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$

$$\frac{d^n x(t)}{dt^n} \xleftrightarrow{F} (j\omega)^n X(j\omega)$$

$$As \quad x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dt} x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) j\omega e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Frequency domain. $x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$

$$t^k x(t) \xrightarrow{F} (j)^k \frac{d^k X(j\omega)}{d\omega^k}$$

Frequency shift.

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$$

$$e^{j\omega_0 t} x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j(\omega - \omega_0))$$

(duality/
modulation)

↑
carrier

II. Integration. $x(t) \xrightarrow{F} X(j\omega)$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) d\tau \xrightarrow{F} \frac{X(j\omega)}{j\omega} + \pi X(0) \delta(\omega)$$

FT of constant
value like dc term.

$$\text{Constant value} \rightarrow a_0 \xrightarrow{F} 2\pi a_0 \delta(\omega)$$

Taking to LTI system

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

$$h(t) = u(t)$$

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

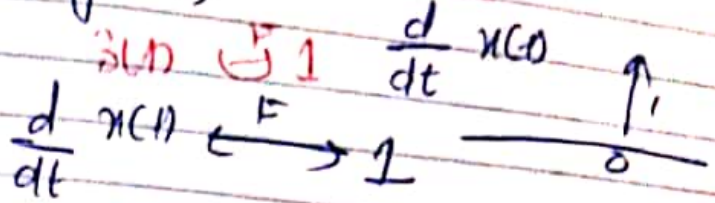
$$\therefore y(t) = x(t) * u(t)$$

$$\rightarrow Y(j\omega) = X(j\omega) U(j\omega)$$

$U(j\omega) = ?$ A represent it as another function.



$u(t) = \text{say } x(t)$



I don't need FT of derivative with 1 and of $x(t)$.

$$j\omega X(j\omega) \xrightarrow{F} 1$$

no derivative, the original is called zero

$$X(j\omega) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi \delta(\omega)$$

↳ Avg value of $u(t)$

$$\Rightarrow U(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi \delta(\omega)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(j\omega) = X(j\omega) \left[\frac{1}{j\omega} + \pi \delta(\omega) \right]$$

→ each any $\omega = 0$

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{X(j\omega)}{j\omega} + \pi X(0) \delta(\omega)$$

$x(t) \delta(t-t)$
 $= x(t) \delta(t)$

Parseval's Relation.

Energy present in signal can be related to the energy in FT of that signal.

$x(t) \Rightarrow X(j\omega)$
 $X(j\omega) \Rightarrow x(t)$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(j\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

Proof

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \cdot x^*(t) dt$$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(j\omega) e^{-j\omega t} d\omega \right] dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(j\omega) \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \right\} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X^*(j\omega) X(j\omega) d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(j\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

Systems characterized by LCCDE: (Role of FT in solving such set of eqs).

Nth order LCCDE:

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k} \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

Frequency response, $H(j\omega) = ?$

M1 If $x(t) = e^{j\omega t}$ then $y(t) = H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t}$

At these two values in (A)

M2 Take FT of (A)

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \mathcal{F} \left\{ \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} \right\} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \mathcal{F} \left\{ \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k} \right\}$$

$$x(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} X(j\omega)$$

$$y(t) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} Y(j\omega)$$

Different property;

$$\sum_{k=0}^N q_k (j\omega)^k Y(j\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k (j\omega)^k X(j\omega)$$

$$Y(j\omega) \sum_{k=0}^N q_k (j\omega)^k = X(j\omega) \sum_{k=0}^M b_k (j\omega)^k$$

$$\frac{Y(j\omega)}{X(j\omega)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k (j\omega)^k}{\sum_{k=0}^N q_k (j\omega)^k}$$

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k (j\omega)^k}{\sum_{k=0}^N q_k (j\omega)^k}$$

We can find $H(j\omega)$ directly by taking st of LCCDE.

condition put $y(t) = h(t)$
 $Y(s) = H(s) \cdot 1$

coefficients

Exple

$$\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = x(t)$$

$$b_0 = 1, k=0 \Rightarrow H(j\omega) = \frac{1}{2 + j\omega}$$

$$a_0 = 2, q_1 = j\omega$$

$$e^{-at} u(t) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{a + j\omega}$$

$$h(t) = e^{-2t} u(t)$$

or by solving $h(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$

Exple $\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + 4 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} x(t) + 2x(t)$

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega)^2 + 4(j\omega) + 3}$$

If $h(t) = ?$

→ reduce the given fraction into simple terms.

By partial fraction expansion method

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega)^2 + 4j\omega + 3} = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega + 1)(j\omega + 3)}$$

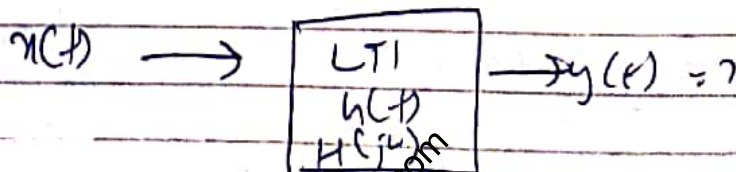
$$H(j\omega) = \frac{A_1}{j\omega + 1} + \frac{A_2}{j\omega + 3} \quad A_1 = A_2 = 1/2$$

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{j\omega + 1} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{j\omega + 3} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow h(t) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-t} u(t) + \frac{1}{2} e^{-3t} u(t)$$

Exple $x(t) = e^{-t} u(t) \quad H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega)^2 + 4j\omega + 3}$

$y(t) = ?$



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

$$Y(j\omega) = X(j\omega) H(j\omega)$$

$$x(t) = e^{-t} u(t) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{j\omega + 1}$$

$$H(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega + 1)(j\omega + 3)}$$

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega + 2}{(j\omega + 1)^2 (j\omega + 3)}$$

partial fraction

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{A_{11}}{j\omega + 1} + \frac{A_{12}}{(j\omega + 1)^2} + \frac{A_{21}}{j\omega + 3}$$

$$A_{11} = \frac{1}{4}, A_{12} = \frac{1}{2}, A_{21} = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$Y(j\omega) = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{j\omega + 1} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{(j\omega + 1)^2} \right) + \frac{-1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{j\omega + 3} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = \frac{1}{4} e^{-t} u(t) + \frac{1}{2} t e^{-t} u(t) - \frac{1}{4} e^{-3t} u(t)$$

$\frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} e^{-at} u(t) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{(a + j\omega)^n}$

$$t e^{-at} u(t) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{(s+a)^2}$$

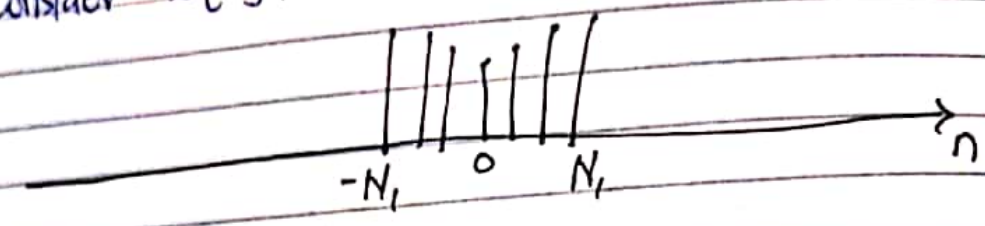
$$\frac{1}{(s+a)^2}$$

Lecture The Discrete Time Fourier Transform

' is used for Aperiodic signals.

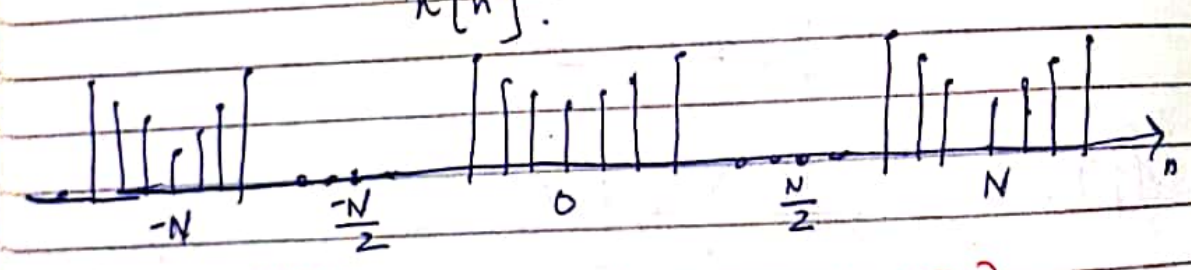
Aperiodic \rightarrow periodic version \rightarrow Increase period.

consider $x[n]$,



We want to represent this Aperiodic in terms of complex exponentials $e^{j\omega n}$.

Consider a periodic version of $x[n]$, $\tilde{x}[n]$.



$\tilde{x}[n]$ is a periodic version of $x[n]$.
 $x[n]$ is one period of $\tilde{x}[n]$.

As N increases, $x[n]$ and $\tilde{x}[n]$ become identical over a longer interval of time.

As $N \rightarrow \infty$, $x[n] = \tilde{x}[n]$ for all values of n .

For periodic signal $\tilde{x}[n]$, we have DTFS representation;

CTFS \rightarrow sum of finite
 DTFS \rightarrow sum of infinite periodic

\hookrightarrow normally called cycles as finite
 expect with 2a) and with 2b)

$$\tilde{x}[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} a_k e^{jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

\rightarrow Synthesis eq

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=\langle N \rangle} \tilde{x}[n] e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

\rightarrow Analysis eq

we can consider any period.
 \hookrightarrow It is more convenient to use $-\frac{N}{2} + \frac{N}{2}$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\frac{N}{2}}^{\frac{N}{2}} \tilde{x}[n] e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

also approximated signal is equal to the original one.

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\frac{N}{2}}^{\frac{N}{2}} x[n] e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-N_1}^{N_1} x[n] e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

\rightarrow WB

$$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

s/c function is zero outside $-N_1$ to N_1 .

let $X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n} \rightarrow k\omega_0$

\hookrightarrow function of continuous variable

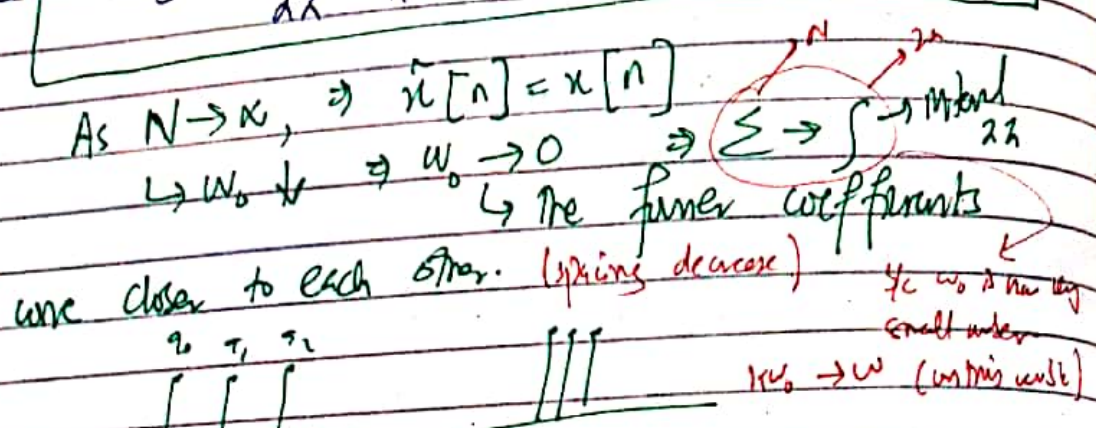
$$\Rightarrow a_k = \frac{1}{N} X(e^{jk\omega_0})$$

\rightarrow Fourier coefficients (a_k) are samples of $X(e^{j\omega})$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{x}[n] = \sum_{k=\langle N \rangle} X(e^{jk\omega_0}) e^{jk \left(\frac{2\pi}{N}\right) n}$$

As $\omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{N} \Rightarrow \frac{\omega_0}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{N}$

As $N \rightarrow \infty$, $\Rightarrow \tilde{x}[n] = x[n]$
 $\Rightarrow \omega_0 \downarrow \Rightarrow \omega_0 \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \sum \rightarrow \int$
 The finer coefficients are closer to each other. (spacing decrease)



Synthesis Eq

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} X(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$$

where

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n} \rightarrow \text{Analysis Eq}$$

Input part: As CTFT: $\text{diff. } \omega \text{ CFT} \rightarrow \text{DTFT}$
 DTFT is periodic with period 2π .
 CTFT is nonperiodic.

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

① DTFT is always periodic with period 2π .
 CTFT is nonperiodic.

fundamental difference.

② The signal is a discrete time signal but DTFT is continuous. (function of ω)

Example $x[n] = a^n u[n], |a| < 1$

If this condition is not given, the signal will not converge.

$X(e^{j\omega}) = ?$

$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n}$

$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a^n u[n] e^{-j\omega n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n e^{-j\omega n}$

$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a e^{-j\omega})^n = \frac{1}{1 - a e^{-j\omega}}$ Ans

↓

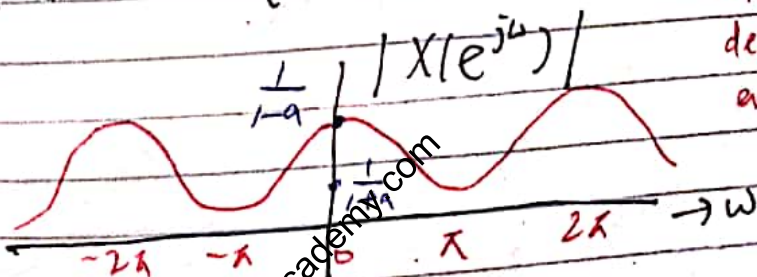
Generally complex

↳ mag + phase

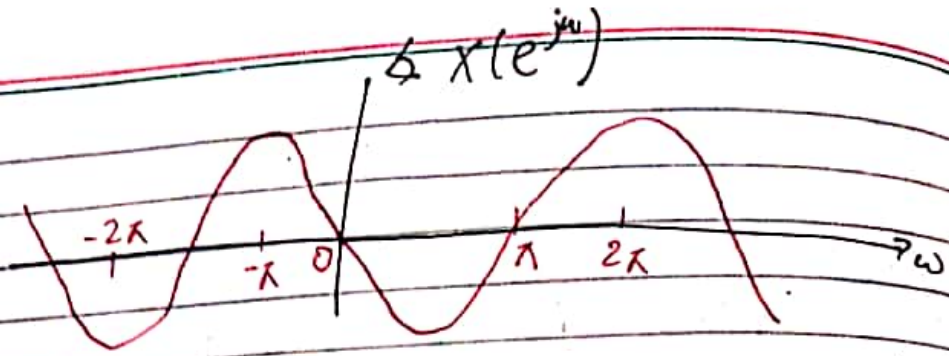
$|X(e^{j\omega})|, \angle X(e^{j\omega})$

$e^{-j\pi} = -1$

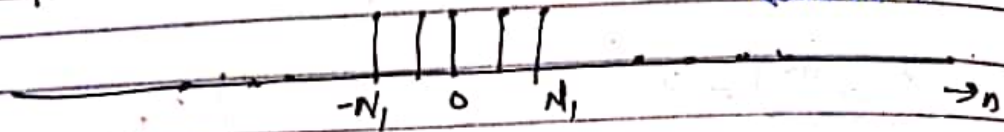
If a is +ve (0.9, 0.8 ...)



continuous and defined for any value of ω .



Example Rectangular pulse in DT. (even signal)



$$x[n] = \begin{cases} 1, & |n| < N_1 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

real and even \rightarrow
real and odd

$$A \quad X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n}$$

$$\rightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-N_1}^{N_1} 1 e^{-j\omega n}$$

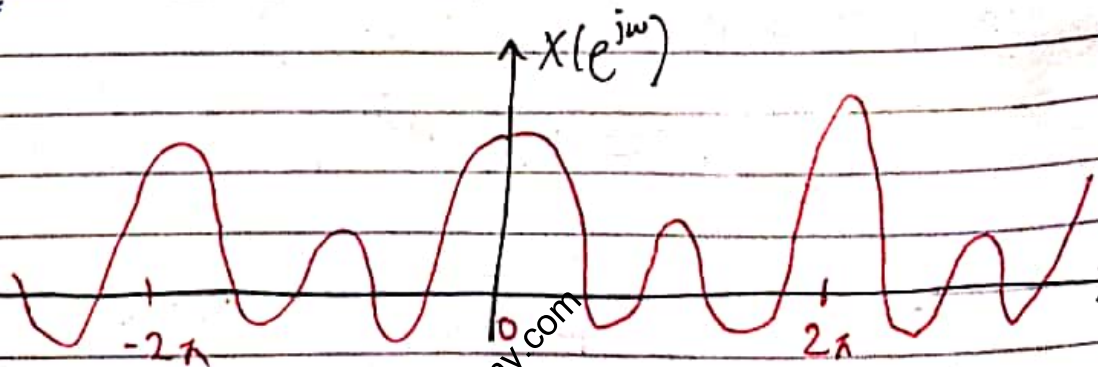
or as $\sum_{n=0}^{2N_1}$
make lower limit zero
let $m = n + N_1$

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{m=0}^{2N_1} e^{-j\omega(m-N_1)} = e^{j\omega N_1} \sum_{m=0}^{2N_1} (e^{-j\omega})^m$$

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{\sin \omega \left(N_1 + \frac{1}{2} \right)}{\sin(\omega/2)}$$

Sinc

real



And the diff

in DTFT

DTFT analysis of $x(n)$ has convergence \rightarrow $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)| < \infty$

when synthesis of $x(n)$ does not have any $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ factor.

Convergence of DTFT:

If $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x(n)| < \infty$ then $X(e^{j\omega})$ will not be equally good for all ω .

$$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n}$$

Conditions

DTFT

1. The signal must be absolutely summable.

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]| < \infty$$

2. The signal must be finite energy signal,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |x[n]|^2 < \infty$$

General Framework.

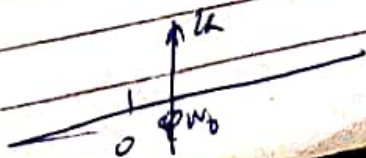
→ Fourier transform of periodic discrete time signals.

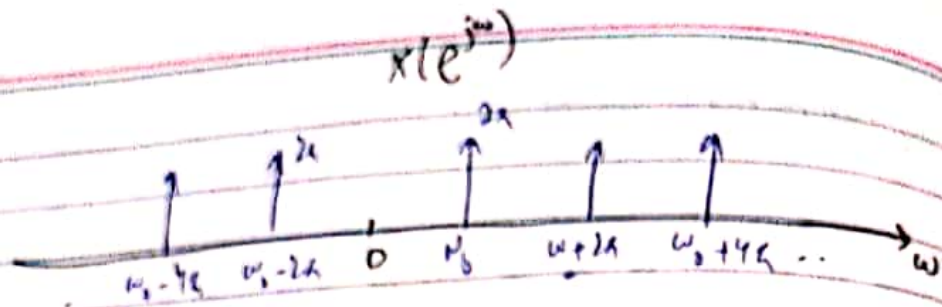
→ For periodic DT signals, the Fourier transform must consist of impulses.

eg $x[n] = e^{j\omega_0 n}$
 $X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0 - 2\pi l)$

As in CT.

$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t}$
 $X(j\omega) = 2\pi \delta(\omega - \omega_0)$





We assumed a specific periodic signal, but what if we have any general periodic signal?

For any arbitrary periodic signal $x[n]$ with period N , fourier series exist:

$$ie \quad x[n] = \sum_{k < N} a_k e^{jk(\frac{2\pi}{N})n}$$

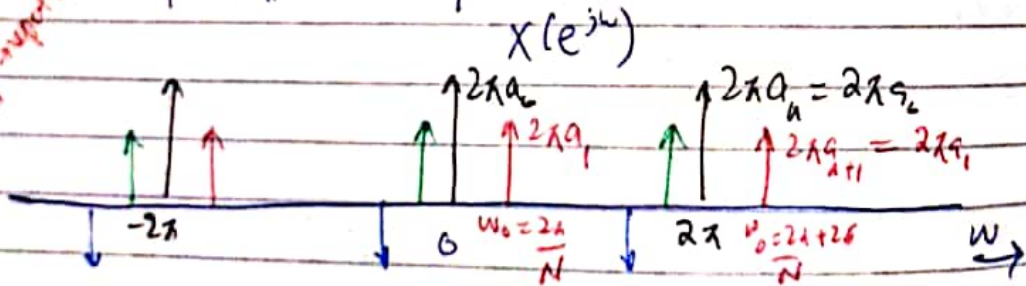
$x[n] \rightarrow$ harmonically related spectra.

$$x[n] \xrightarrow{F} \sum_{k} 2\pi a_k \delta(\omega - \frac{2\pi k}{N})$$

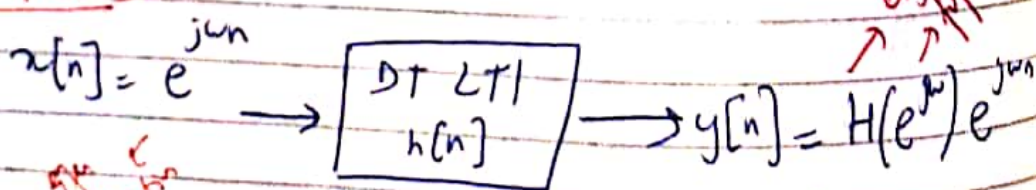
$$\Rightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} 2\pi a_k \delta(\omega - \frac{2\pi k}{N})$$

periodicity already included due to a_k .
periodic with period N .

$x[n]$ is periodic with period N .



DFT and filtering



$$\Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h[n] e^{-j\omega n}$$

Eigen value (Frequency response) is the function of impulse response

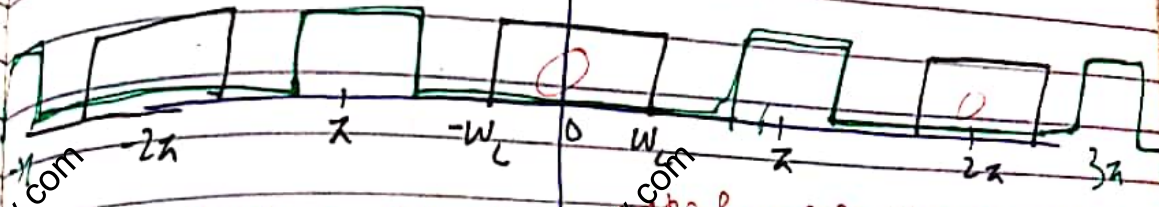
For a CT LTI system, frequency response is Aperiodic.
 For a DT LTI system, frequency response is periodic.

Now we apply this concept to filtering

HPE LPE

$H(e^{j\omega})$

LPE
HPE
BPF
DSSF



In discrete domain, ω is 2π rad/sec. In frequency domain, ω is 0 to 2π rad/sec.

Frequencies near 0 and 2π are low frequencies.
 Frequencies near π and $-\pi$ are high frequencies.

Example: a system for what type of filter is this?

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\text{DT LTI}} \rightarrow y[n] = \frac{1}{2} (x[n] + x[n-1])$$

So we find the frequency response, i.e. $H(e^{j\omega})$.

Impulse response, $h[n] = \frac{1}{2} (\delta[n] + \delta[n-1])$.

Now $H(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} h[n] e^{-j\omega n}$

$$\Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + e^{-j\omega})$$

$$\rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\omega/2} (e^{j\omega/2} + e^{-j\omega/2})$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\omega/2} [2 \cos(\omega/2)]$$

$$|H(e^{j\omega})| = \cos(\omega/2)$$

actually have a point
to $f = 2$ → both starting
up $f = 2$



So this is a LPF.

o/p only depends on present i/p → Non recursive

i/p depends on present i/p and past o/p → Recursive

Consider $y[n] - a y[n-1] = x[n]$ (Recursive)

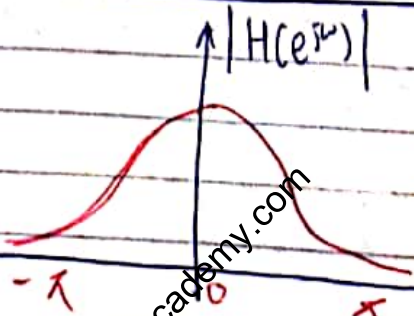
If $x[n] = e^{j\omega n}$ $y[n] = H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n}$

$$\rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} - a H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega(n-1)} = e^{j\omega n}$$

Rearrange for $H(e^{j\omega})$

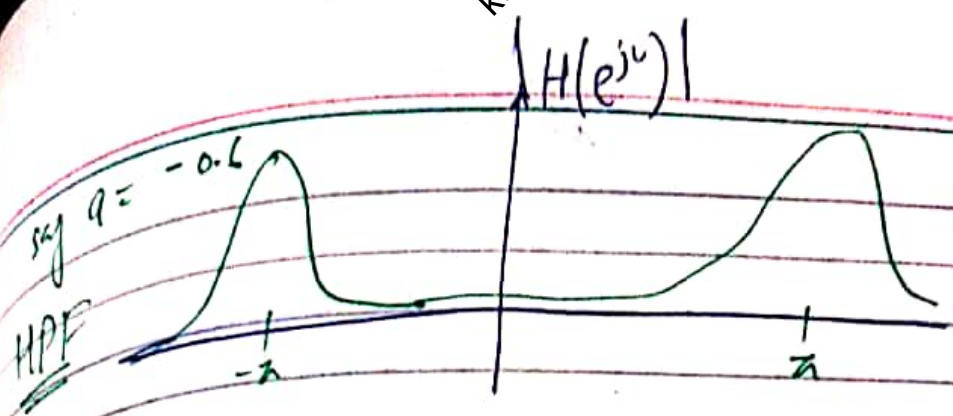
$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - a e^{-j\omega}}$$

$a = ?$



Say $a = +0.6$

LPF



the constant 'a' on effect property of filter

2. Consider a nonrecursive DT filter;

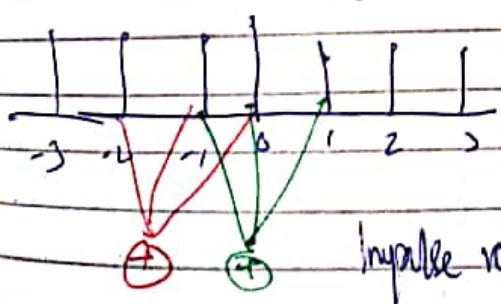
$$y[n] = \sum_{k=-N}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

called a moving average filter

eg we have a 3 point moving average filter

the op is such that we are taking average of three samples

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{3} (x[n-1] + x[n] + x[n+1])$$



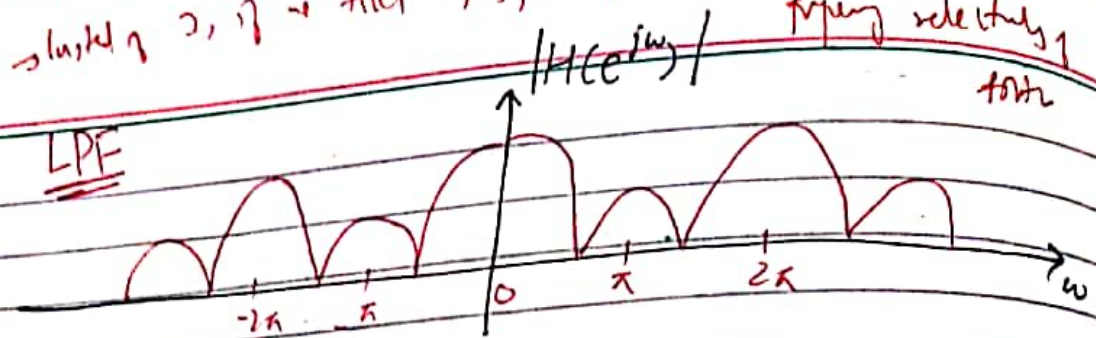
impulse resp $h[n] = \frac{1}{3} [\delta[n-1] + \delta[n] + \delta[n+1]]$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{3} (e^{j\omega} + 1 + e^{-j\omega})$$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{3} (1 + 2\cos\omega)$$

→ If sampled & 2 point avg filter → filter shown in class room
 → instead of 3, 4, 5, 6... points we can improve the filtering selectively

LPF



Instead of taking 3 points, take $N+M+1$ points
 moving average.
 system trying to create 1/3, as per in frequency and slowly light

So the 1/p relation for generalized moving point average filter will be;

$$y[n] = \frac{1}{N+M+1} \sum_{k=-M}^M x[n-k]$$

→ moving avg

Properties of DTF

notation

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega}) \quad \text{FT pair}$$

data → filter out → keeping useful (almost) → remove → slow moving data → noise

1. Periodicity.

$$X(e^{j(\omega+2\pi)}) = X(e^{j\omega})$$

2. Linearity.

$$x_1[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X_1(e^{j\omega}), \quad x_2[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X_2(e^{j\omega})$$

$$ax_1[n] + bx_2[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} aX_1(e^{j\omega}) + bX_2(e^{j\omega})$$

3. Time shifting.

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega})$$

$$x[n-n_0] \xleftrightarrow{F} e^{-j\omega n_0} X(e^{j\omega})$$

4. Frequency Shift

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega})$$

$$e^{+j\omega_0 n} x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j(\omega - \omega_0)})$$

carrier

information \rightarrow spectrum shift modulation
 info you multiply.

5. Difference Property. $x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega})$

$$x[n] - x[n-1] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega}) - e^{-j\omega} (X(e^{j\omega}))$$

$$x[n] - x[n-1] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega}) [1 - e^{-j\omega}]$$

Summation / Accumulation

$$x[n] \xleftrightarrow{F} X(e^{j\omega})$$

$\times X(e^{j\omega}) \delta(\omega)$

\rightarrow DC const / DC component

$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^n x[m] \xleftrightarrow{F} \frac{X(e^{j\omega})}{1 - e^{-j\omega}} + \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \pi X(e^{j\omega}) \delta(\omega - 2\pi k)$$

\rightarrow const value is periodic.

Duality property.

Convolution property.

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{LTI} \\ \text{H}(\omega) \end{matrix}} \rightarrow y[n] = x[n] * h[n]$$

$$Y(e^{j\omega}) = X(e^{j\omega}) H(e^{j\omega})$$

multiply

$$x[n] \cdot y[n] \leftrightarrow X(e^{j\omega}) * Y(e^{j\omega})$$

Continuous time

Fourier series

No duality

Continuous time

$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega t}$

Frequency domain

$a_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-j\omega_0}^{-j\omega_0 + j\omega_0} x(t) e^{-jk\omega t} dt$

Continuous time
Periodic in time

Discrete frequency
Aperiodic in frequency

Discrete time

$x[n] = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} a_k e^{jk\omega n}$

Frequency domain

$a_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-jk\omega n}$

Discrete time
Periodic in frequency

Discrete frequency
Aperiodic in time

Fourier Transform

Fourier Transform

Duality exists.

Time domain

$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$

Frequency domain

$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$

Aperiodic in time
Continuous in frequency

Continuous in frequency
Aperiodic in time

Discrete time

Duality exists

Time domain

$x[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$

Frequency domain

$X(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\omega n}$

Discrete in time
Aperiodic in frequency

Continuous in frequency
Periodic in frequency

Application of DFT on systems characterized by LCCDE

$$x[n] \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{matrix} DF \\ LTI \end{matrix}} \rightarrow y[n]$$

if eq of p represented by N^{th} order LCCDE;

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k]$$

Frequency response, $(H(e^{j\omega})) = ?$

$$H(e^{j\omega}) \xleftrightarrow{F} h[n]$$

M1 For $x[n] = e^{j\omega n}$

$$\Rightarrow y[n] = H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n}$$

substitute $x[n]$ and $y[n]$ into LCCDE and solve for $H(e^{j\omega})$.

M2 Take DFT of LCCDE;

$$F \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^N a_k y[n-k] \right\} = F \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^M b_k x[n-k] \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^N a_k F \left\{ y[n-k] \right\} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k F \left\{ x[n-k] \right\}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k (e^{-j\omega})^k y(e^{j\omega}) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k (e^{-j\omega})^k x(e^{j\omega})$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(e^{j\omega}) \sum_{k=0}^N a_k e^{-j\omega k} = X(e^{j\omega}) \sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Y(e^{j\omega})}{X(e^{j\omega})} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k e^{-j\omega k}}$$

$$\Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k e^{-j\omega k}}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k e^{-j\omega k}}$$

Example

$$y[n] - ay[n-1] = x[n].$$

Find $H(e^{j\omega})$ and $h[n]$.

$$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-j\omega}}$$

we know $h[n] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} H(e^{j\omega}) e^{j\omega n} d\omega$

Basic DTFT pairs;

$$a^n u[n] \xrightarrow{F} \frac{1}{1 - ae^{-j\omega}}$$

$$\rightarrow h[n] = a^n u[n].$$

ANS.

Example $y[n] - \frac{3}{4}y[n-1] + \frac{1}{8}y[n-2] = 2x[n]$

$H(e^{j\omega})$ and $h[n] = ?$

$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{2}{1 - \frac{3}{4}e^{-j\omega} + \frac{1}{8}e^{-j2\omega}}$

Use order poly find a fun of prod 1st order

Using partial fraction; \rightarrow transfer $H(z)$ in fun of z

$H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{2}{(1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega})(1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega})}$

$= \frac{A}{(1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega})} + \frac{B}{(1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-j\omega})}$

Solving $\Rightarrow A = 4, B = -2$

$\Rightarrow H(e^{j\omega}) = \frac{4}{1 - \frac{1}{2}e^{-j\omega}} - \frac{2}{1 - \frac{1}{4}e^{-j2\omega}}$

$\Rightarrow 4\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n u[n] - 2\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^n u[n] = h[n]$

Ans

The Laplace Transform:

① Laplace transform is the generalization of CTFT.

② Laplace transform is the CTFT of a signal multiplied with real exponential signals.

(The generalization of DTFT is Z transform)

lets go into the mathematical aspects of Laplace

$$x(t) = e^{st} \longrightarrow \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{LTI} \\ h(t) \end{matrix}} \longrightarrow y(t) = H(s) e^{st}$$

where $s = \text{complex}$

$$s = \sigma + j\omega$$

sigma

In CTFT
 $\sigma = 0$
 $\rightarrow e^{j\omega t}$

where s is complex, real or imaginary, it is eigen function of LTI system.
 \rightarrow complex exponential

$H(s) \rightarrow$ Transfer function @ System function.
 \rightarrow eigen value in matrix.

Convolution $\rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{-st} dt \rightarrow \text{Laplace transform}$$

System function is the Laplace transform of impulse response $h(t)$.

when s is purely imaginary, system function reduces to frequency response \leftarrow

Generalizing for any signal; $x(t)$.

LT of $x(t)$;

$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

In pair form

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s)$$

① \Rightarrow CTFT is the special case of LT.

\downarrow
 $s = j\omega$

\downarrow
 $s = \sigma + j\omega$

For $s = j\omega$

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

\hookrightarrow CTFT

LT reduced to
 $x = j\omega$ same
 FT of FT eqn

$$X(s) \Big|_{s=j\omega} = F. \{ x(t) \}$$

② What is general relation b/w LT and F other than $s = j\omega$.

If $s = \sigma + j\omega$

$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

like it is σ

$$\Rightarrow X(\sigma + j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma t} e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

like

TF b/w

Return in time

$$\rightarrow X(s) = F \int_0^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$$

Decay if σ is +ve.
Growth if $\sigma = -ve$

Example $x(t) = e^{-at} u(t)$

$$X(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j\omega t} u(t) dt$$

This will converge only for $a > 0$;

$$X(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega + a}, \quad a > 0$$

Now $X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} u(t) dt$

$$X(b + j\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-bt} u(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$X(b + j\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(b+a)t} \cdot e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

Will converge only if $b+a > 0$

$$X(b + j\omega) = \frac{1}{(b+a) + j\omega}, \quad b+a > 0$$

$\Rightarrow b > -a$

$$\Rightarrow X(s) = \frac{1}{s+a}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -a$$

By relating it to σ for real frequency ω do not change

Laplace transform may converge for some values of $\text{Re}\{s\}$ and not for others.

For $a > 0$;

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+a}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -a$$

$$X(s) \Big|_{s=j\omega} = \frac{1}{j\omega + a} \quad \text{CTFF}$$

For $a < 0$

CTFF does not converge \Rightarrow will not have a FT.

LT ?

LT still exists under the R

converges because the $\text{Re}\{s\} > -a$ respect

If a being the ω -ve.

There are signals whose CTFF does not exist but LT does.

Example $x(t) = -e^{-at} u(-t), \quad X(s) = ?$

$$\text{As } X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt = - \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-at} e^{-st} dt =$$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+a}, \quad \text{Re}\{s\} < -a$$

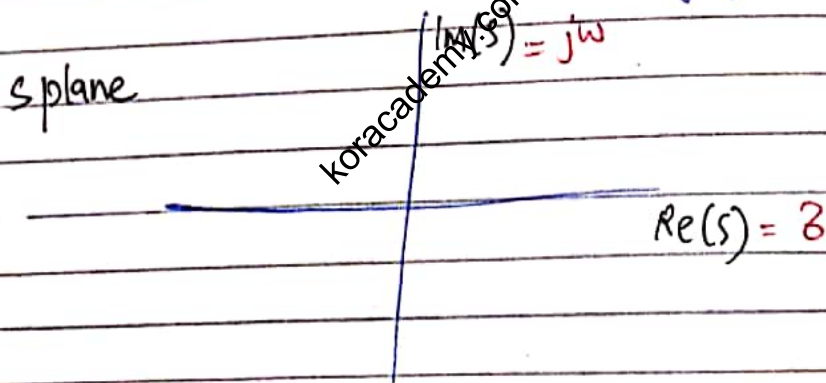
There can be different factors with the same Laplace transform (with different regions)

There are two things associated with Laplace transform; *completely changed by two things.*

- ① Algebraic expression, $X(s) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
- ② Values of s for which this algebraic expression is valid. (Integral should be finite.)

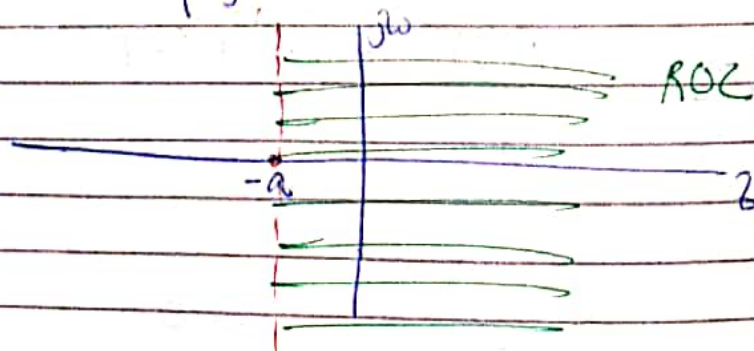
↳ Region of convergence (ROC)

↳ we will also show it graphically.

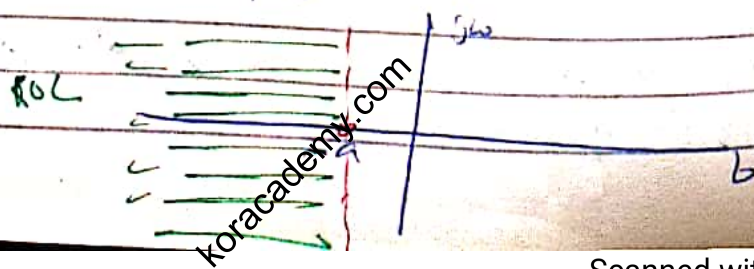


As an example 1;

$$\text{Re}\{s\} > -a \quad \text{or} \quad \sigma > -a$$



In Ex 2; $\text{Re}\{s\} < -a$; $\sigma < -a$



lin \rightarrow \int to \rightarrow \rightarrow

Exple

$$x(t) = 3e^{-2t} u(t) - 2e^{-t} u(t)$$

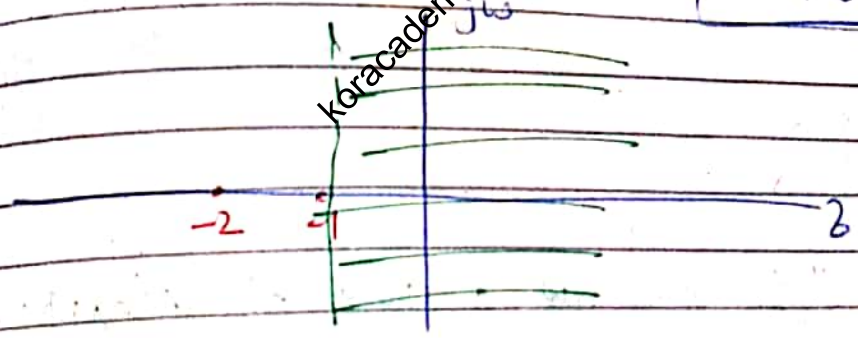
$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (3e^{-2t} u(t) - 2e^{-t} u(t)) dt$$

$$\rightarrow X(s) = 3 \int_0^{\infty} e^{-2t} e^{-st} dt - 2 \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} e^{-st} dt$$

$$\rightarrow X(s) = 3 \frac{1}{s+2} - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{s+1}$$

\downarrow
 > -2

Roc; $\boxed{\text{Re}\{s\} > -1}$



\rightarrow Most of the time we will get LT in the form, $X(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} \rightarrow$ Rational LT.

Roots of $N(s) \rightarrow$ zeros of $x(s)$, $x(s) = 0$
 Roots of $D(s) \rightarrow$ poles of $x(s)$, $x(s) = \infty$

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+2}$$

$s = -2 \rightarrow$ root of $x(s) \Rightarrow$ pole

Exple $X(s) = \frac{s-1}{s+2}$

ROC $\text{Re}\{s\} > -2$

$s=1 \rightarrow$ root of $N(s) \rightarrow$ zero of $X(s)$
 $s=-2 \rightarrow$ root of $D(s) \rightarrow$ pole of $X(s)$



Poles and zeros at infinity

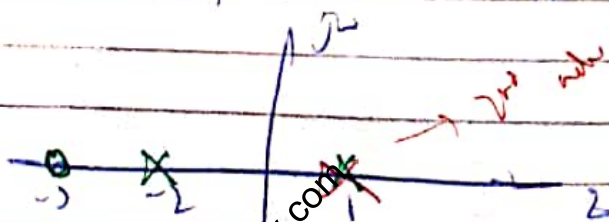
\rightarrow If the order of $D(s)$ is greater than the order of $N(s)$, then $X(s)$ will have zero at infinity.

\rightarrow If order of $N(s)$ is greater than the order of $D(s)$, then $X(s)$ will have a pole at infinity.

Ex $X(s) = \frac{s+3}{(s-1)^2 (s+2)}$

$s=-3 \rightarrow$ zero $s=-2$ pole

$(s+1)^2 \Rightarrow$ two poles at $s = -1$

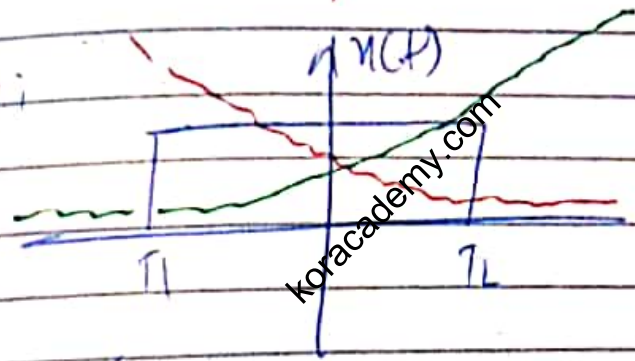


Properties of ROC.

(2/5)

- ① The ROC of $X(s)$ consists of strips parallel to the $j\omega$ axis in the s plane.
- ② For rational LT $X(s)$, the ROC does not contain any poles. \rightarrow LT not change.
- ③ If $x(t)$ is of finite duration and is absolutely integrable, then the ROC is the entire s plane.

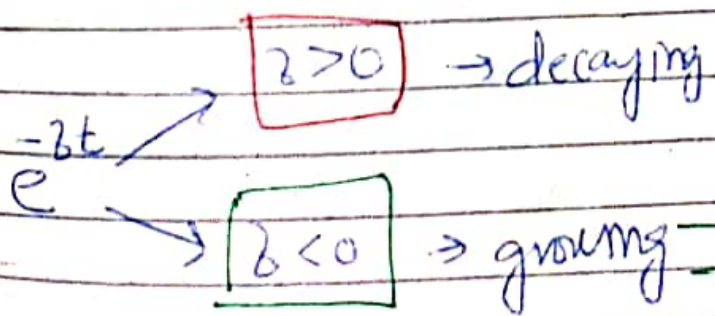
consider:



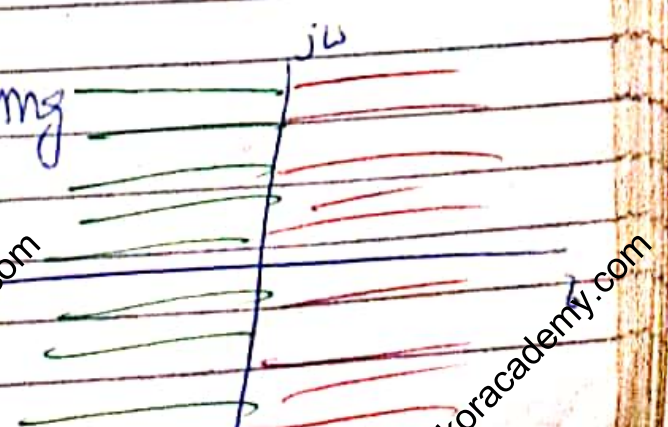
$$\int_{-T_1}^{T_2} |x(t)| e^{-\sigma t} dt$$

$$X(s) = \int_{-T_1}^{T_2} x(t) e^{-\sigma t} e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

For what values of σ will it converge i.e. $X(s) < \infty$.

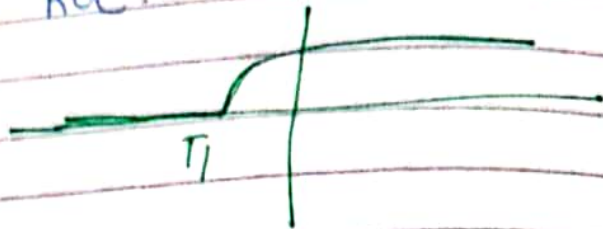


entire s plane is ROC.



④ If $x(t)$ is right sided, and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC, then all values of s for which $\text{Re}\{s\} > \sigma_0$ will also be in the ROC.

Zero all T_1 and no zero afterwards.



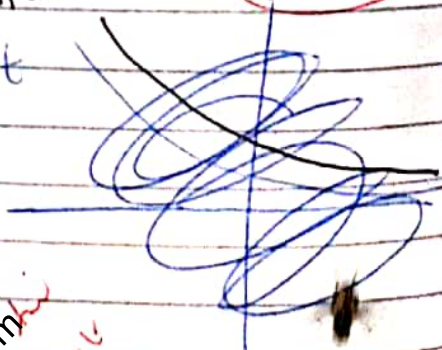
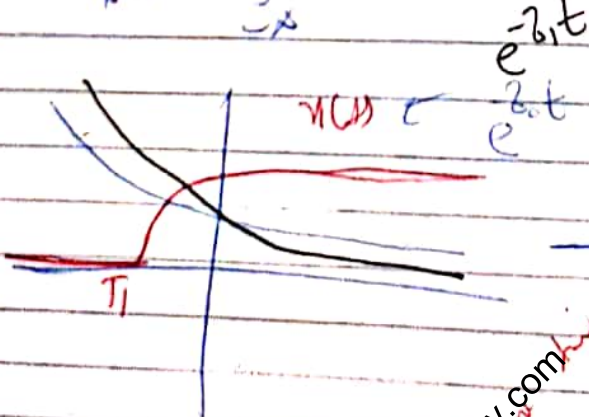
So ROC is also right sided for right sided signal.

$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma t} e^{-j\omega t} dt < \infty$$

let $\sigma = \sigma_0$ $X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma_0 t} e^{-j\omega t} dt$

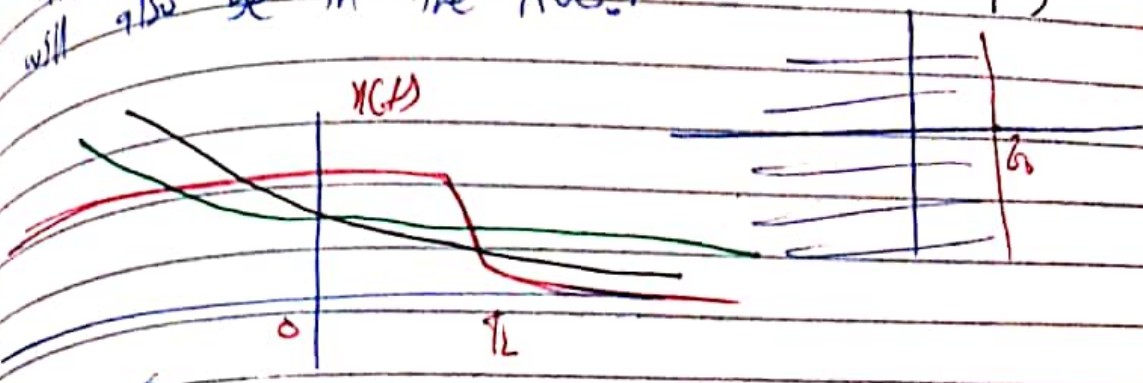
let $\sigma_1 > \sigma_0$ so unbounded signal is $e^{\sigma_1 t}$

$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma_1 t} e^{-j\omega t} dt < \infty$$



gundik fashir nik

⑤ If $x(t)$ is a left sided signal and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC, then all the values of s for which $\text{Re}\{s\} < \sigma_0$ will also be in the ROC.



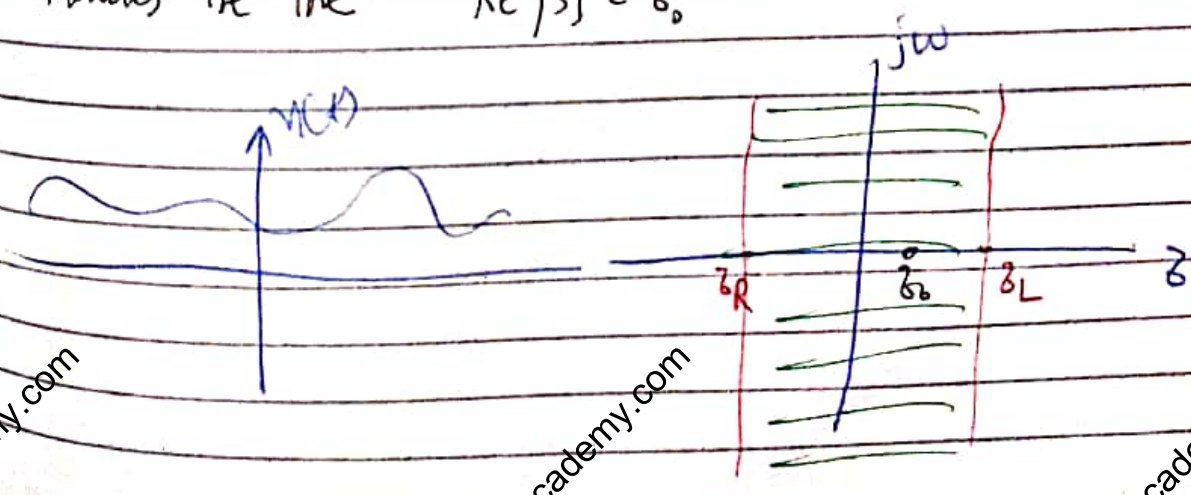
$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma_0 t} e^{-j\omega t} dt < \infty$$

for $\sigma_1 < \sigma_0$

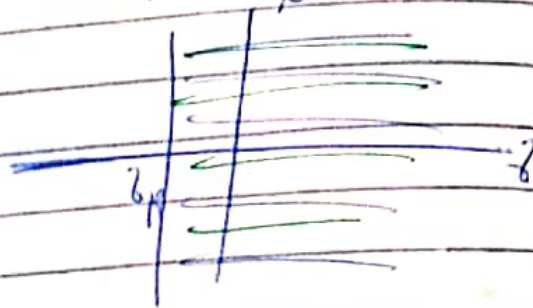
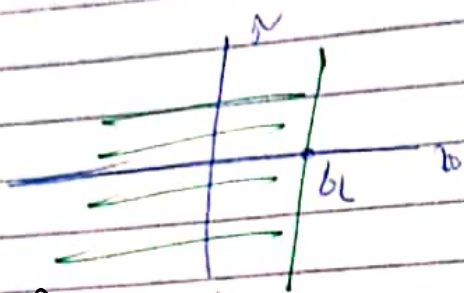
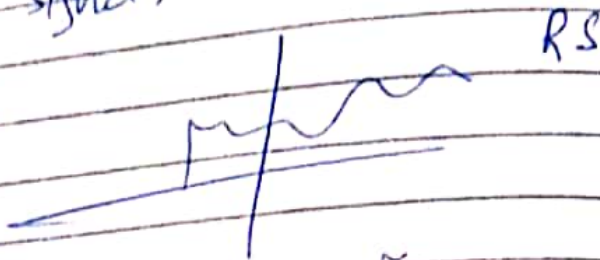
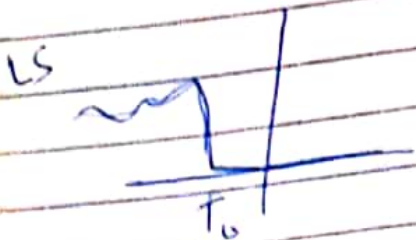
$$X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma_1 t} e^{-j\omega t} dt < \infty$$

$e^{\sigma_0 t}, e^{\sigma_1 t}$ \nearrow sign

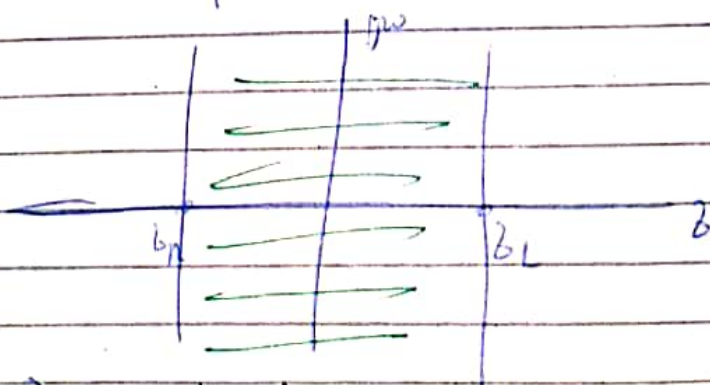
⑥ If $x(t)$ is two sided, and if the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$ is in the ROC then the ROC will consist of a strip in the s plane that includes the line $\text{Re}\{s\} = \sigma_0$.



Divide the signal into two parts as a left and a right sided signal;



→ The ROC for the signal $x(t)$ is;



⊗ If $X(s)$ is rational, then its ROC is bounded by poles or extends to infinity.

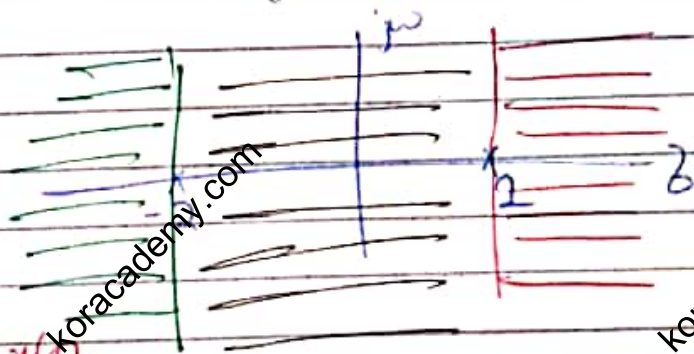
In addition no poles of $X(s)$ are contained in the ROC.

stz \rightarrow 7.52

③ If $X(s)$ is rational, then if $X(t)$ is right sided, the ROC is to the right of the right most pole.
 If $X(t)$ is left sided, then ROC is to the left of left most pole.

Say $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s-1)(s+2)}$

ROC is right sided



If right sided $x(t)$.

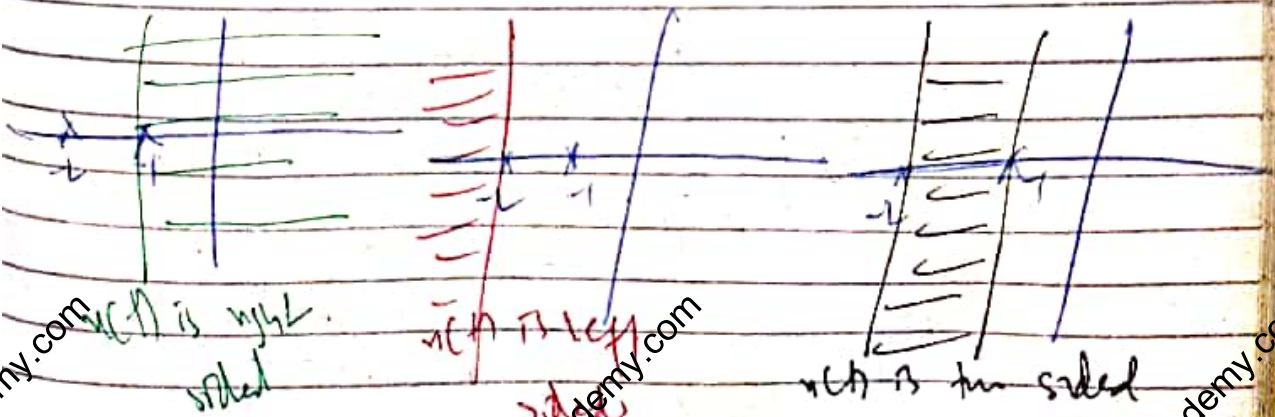
If $x(t)$ is left sided.

If $x(t)$ is two sided.

Example: $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$

poles = -1, -2

Possible ROC = ?



Lecture

The same algebraic expression can be realized with three different blocks.
 ROC may give us information about a function.

We haven't discussed the synthesis eq;

Laplace Transform $X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt$ Analysis Eq

Inverse Laplace transform $x(t) = \{X(s)\}^{-1}$?

$$X(s) = X(\sigma + j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-\sigma t} e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

IFT $\Rightarrow x(t) e^{-\sigma t} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\sigma + j\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$

Multiply b's by $e^{\sigma t}$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(\sigma + j\omega) e^{(\sigma + j\omega)t} d\omega$$

We need the values of σ to $x(t)$ the pole

$s = \sigma + j\omega$
 $ds = j d\omega \Rightarrow d\omega = ds/j$

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{\sigma - j\infty}^{\sigma + j\infty} X(s) e^{st} ds$$

Synthesis equation

$X(s) \leftrightarrow x(t)$

partial fraction expansion

complex integrator I.L.T.

Example ① $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$ $\text{Re}\{s\} > -1$
 $x(t) = ?$



$$X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{A}{s+1} + \frac{B}{s+2}$$

Solving $\Rightarrow A=1, B=-1$ individually right side

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2}$$

$-at \quad e^{-at} u(t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+a}$

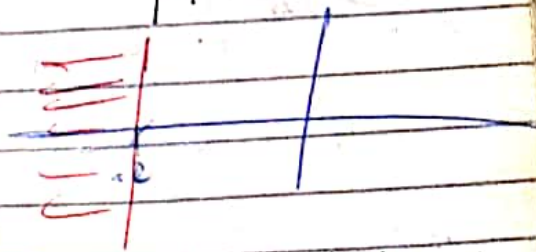
$$e^{-t} u(t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$$

$$e^{-2t} u(t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -2$$

$\Rightarrow x(t) = e^{-t} u(t) - e^{-2t} u(t)$

Example ② $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$ $\text{Re}\{s\} < -2$

Similarly by partial fraction



$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2}$$

individually left side

$$-e^{-t} u(-t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} < -1$$

$$-e^{-2t} u(-t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{Re}\{s\} < -2$$

$$-e^{-at} u(-t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+a}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = -e^{-t} u(-t) + e^{-2t} u(-t)$$

Exple ① $X(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$, $-2 < \text{Re}\{s\} < -1$

Again partial fraction;

$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2}$$



$$-e^{-t} u(-t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+1}, \text{Re}\{s\} < -1 \quad \text{L-1}$$

$$e^{-2t} u(t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+2}, \text{Re}\{s\} > -2 \quad \text{L-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow x(t) = -e^{-t} u(-t) + e^{-2t} u(t)$$

Properties of the Laplace Transform:

① Linearity:

$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_1(s) \text{ with ROC} = R_1$$

$$x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} X_2(s) \text{ with ROC} = R_2$$

$$a x_1(t) + b x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} a X_1(s) + b X_2(s)$$

with ROC containing $R_1 \cap R_2$.

at least.

maybe more than intersection.

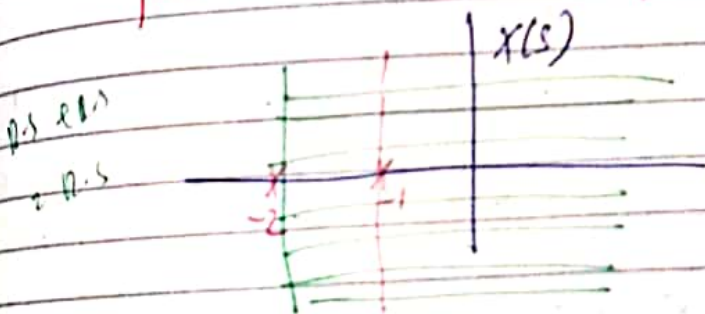
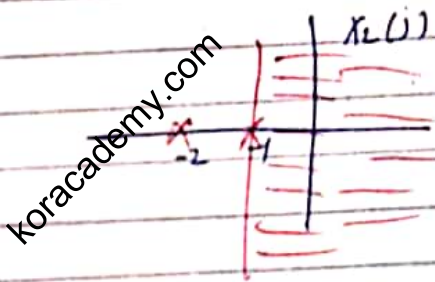
$$x(t) = x_1(t) - x_2(t)$$

Example $x_1(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$

$$x_2(s) = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} \quad \text{Re}\{s\} > -1$$

applying linearity property $x(s) = x_1(s) - x_2(s)$

$$x(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} = \frac{1}{s+2}$$



if γ of ROC = 0
LT out early

② Time shifting Property

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s) \quad \text{with ROC} = R$$

$$x(t-t_0) \xleftrightarrow{L} e^{-st_0} X(s) \quad \text{with ROC} = R$$

③ Shifting in s-domain

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s) \quad \text{with ROC} = R$$

$$e^{s_0 t} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s-s_0) \quad \text{with ROC} = R + \text{Re}\{s_0\}$$

Shift =

④ Time Scaling: $x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s)$ with $\text{ROC} = R$

$$\boxed{x(at) \xleftrightarrow{L} \frac{1}{|a|} X\left(\frac{s}{a}\right)}$$

with $\text{ROC} = aR$
 $a < 1$ compress
 $a > 1$ expand

⑤ Time reversal

~~Special case of time scaling with $a = -1$.~~

$$\boxed{x(-t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(-s)}$$

with $\text{ROC} = -R$

⑥ Convolution property

$$x_1(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X_1(s) \text{ with } \text{ROC} = R_1$$

$$x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X_2(s) \text{ with } \text{ROC} = R_2$$

$$\boxed{x_1(t) * x_2(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X_1(s) \cdot X_2(s)}$$

with ROC containing at least $R_1 \cap R_2$

⑦ Conjugation property

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s) \text{ with } \text{ROC} = R$$

$$\boxed{x^*(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X^*(s^*)}$$

with $\text{ROC} = R$

If $x(t)$ is real $\Rightarrow x(t) = x^*(t)$

$$\Rightarrow X(s) = X^*(s^*)$$

⑧ Differentiation Property

In Time domain $x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s)$ with ROC = R

$$\boxed{\frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k} \xleftrightarrow{L} s^k X(s)}$$

with ROC at least containing R.

if γ pole $\leftarrow \frac{1}{s} \rightarrow s=0 \rightarrow$ residue pole \rightarrow pole moves.

In s domain $x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s)$ with ROC = R

$$\boxed{-t x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} \frac{dX(s)}{ds}}$$

with ROC = R

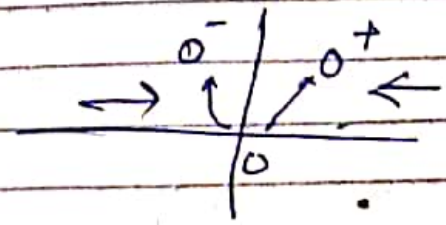
Initial and Final value theorems

\rightarrow If $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ and

$x(t)$ contains no impulses or higher order singularities (discontinuities) at the origin.

$$x(0^-) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} s X(s)$$

Initial value theorem.



\rightarrow If $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ and $x(t)$ has a finite limit as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s X(s)$$

\rightarrow final value theorem.

Basic Laplace Transform Pairs (Table 9.2)

<u>$x(t)$</u>	<u>$H(s)$</u>	<u>ROC</u>
Impulse $\delta(t)$	1	Entire s plane
$u(t)$	$1/s$	$\text{Re}\{s\} > 0$
$-u(-t)$	$1/s$	$\text{Re}\{s\} < 0$
$\frac{t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} u(t)$	$1/s^n$	$\text{Re}\{s\} > 0$

Analysis and characterization of LTI systems using the Laplace transform.

$$x(t) \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{LTI} \\ h(t) \end{matrix}} \rightarrow y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

$$X(s) \rightarrow \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{LTI} \\ H(s) \end{matrix}} \rightarrow Y(s) = H(s) X(s)$$

Causality and stability with impulse response? ROC = ?

Causality

In the domain,
for causal LTI systems;

$$h(t) = 0 \quad \text{for } t < 0.$$

Right sided signal.

$h(t) \leftrightarrow H(s) = \dots$ ROC = right sided half plane

"The ROC associated with the system function for a causal system is a right half plane."

The converse of this statement is not necessarily true. (if the ROC is right half plane, it is a causal system) \times

It guarantees only that the impulse response is right sided.

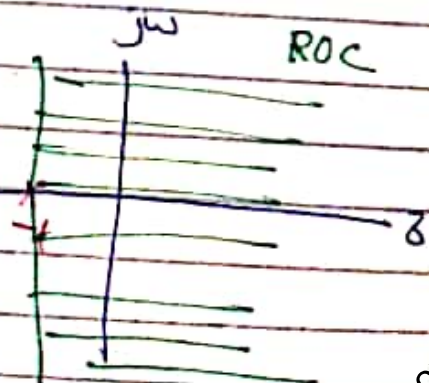


When will this converse statement be true?

→ For a system with a rational system function causality of the system is equivalent to the ROC being the right half plane to the right of the right most pole.

Example $h(t) = e^{-t} u(t)$
 system is causal

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$



Exple $h(t) = e^{-|t|}$ → two sided
 system is non causal



$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 - 1}$$

Example $H(s) = \frac{e^s}{s+1}$

$\text{Re}\{s\} > -1$

Is the system causal?



$e^{-t} u(t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{s+1}$

Time shift

$h(t) = e^{-(t+1)} u(t+1) \leftrightarrow \frac{e^s}{s+1}$

$(h(t) = 0 \text{ for } t < 0) \times$

So the system is non-causal. *even though ROC is in the right half plane*

Stability

An LTI system is stable if and only if the ROC of its system function includes the entire jw axis. *i.e. $\text{Re}\{s\} = 0$*



Stable



unstable

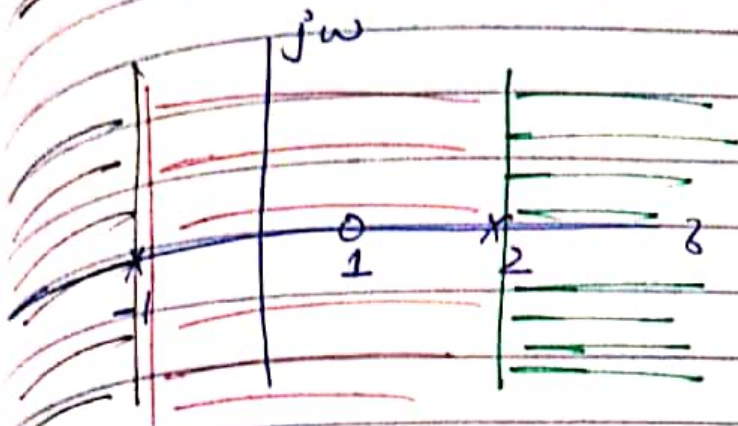
We know that $X(s) \Big|_{s=jw} = F(\omega)$

\Rightarrow If the FT exists, the system is stable.

Example

$$H(s) = \frac{s-1}{(s+1)(s-2)}$$

ROC = ?

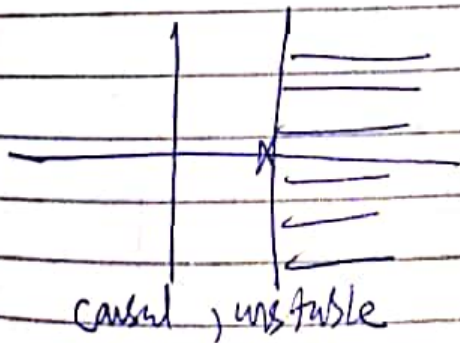


If system is causal; $h(t) = \left(\frac{2}{5}e^{-t} + \frac{1}{3}e^{2t}\right)u(t)$
 $\text{Re}\{s\} > 2$

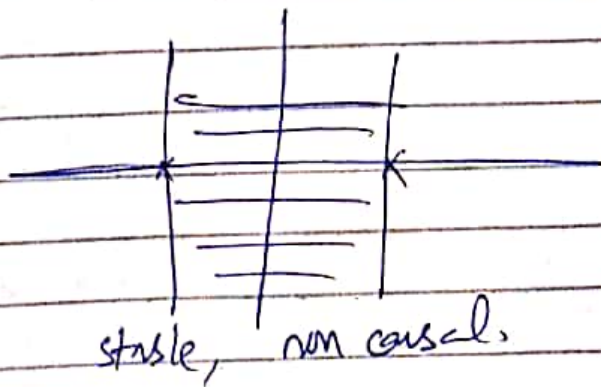
If system is stable; $h(t) = \frac{2}{5}e^{-t}u(t) - \frac{1}{3}e^{2t}u(-t)$
 $-1 < \text{Re}\{s\} < 2$

ROC: $\text{Re}\{s\} < -1$
 unstable, non causal

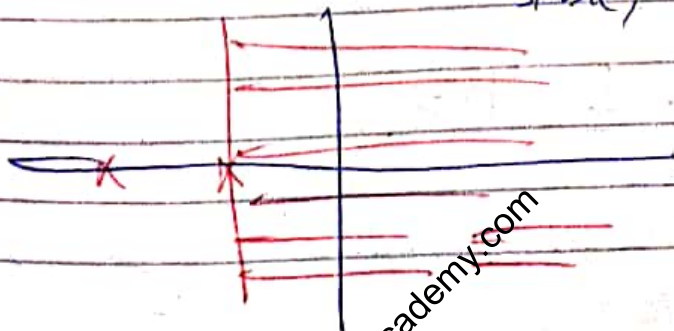
→ A causal system with rational system function is stable if and only if all the poles of $H(s)$ lie in the left half of the s plane i.e. all poles have negative real parts.



causal, unstable



stable, non causal



stable + causal

LTI Systems Characterized by LCCDE.

$$\text{Say } \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) = x(t)$$

$$H(s) = ? \quad h(t) = ?$$

$$\text{If } x(t) = e^{st} \Rightarrow y(t) = H(s) e^{st}$$

Put values of $x(t)$ and $y(t)$ in LCCDE and solve for $H(s)$.

Or method 2 By taking Laplace transf;

$$L \left\{ \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 3y(t) \right\} = L \{ x(t) \}$$

$$sY(s) + 3Y(s) = X(s)$$

$$Y(s)(s+3) = X(s)$$

$$\frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{1}{(s+3)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{H(s) = \frac{1}{s+3}}$$

ROC = ?

To find ROC, extra information is required.
ie about stability, causality etc!

Nth order LCCDE

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k}$$

Apply LT;

$$\sum_{k=0}^N a_k L \left\{ \frac{d^k y(t)}{dt^k} \right\} = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k L \left\{ \frac{d^k x(t)}{dt^k} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k Y(s) = \sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k X(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(s) \sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k = X(s) \sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = H(s) = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^M b_k s^k}{\sum_{k=0}^N a_k s^k}$$

ROC: extra info

$$\# X(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt \rightarrow \text{Bilateral Laplace transform}$$

Similarly we have;

$$X(s) = \int_0^{\infty} x(t) e^{-st} dt \rightarrow \text{Unilateral Laplace transform}$$

① If $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$;
 $X(s) = x(s)$

② Two signals that differ for $t < 0$, but are identical for $t \geq 0$;

$X(s)$ for both is same different
 $x(t)$ for both is same.

ROC for $x(s)$

↳ Always Right Half plane

Properties of ULLT $x(s)$

The rest properties are same as that of bilateral LT.
The different discussed;

Differentiation Property

Bilateral $x(s)$

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} X(s)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} sX(s)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{L} s^2 X(s)$$

Unilateral, $x(s)$

$$x(t) \xleftrightarrow{UL} X(s)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{UL} sX(s) - x(0)$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) \xleftrightarrow{UL} s^2 X(s) - sx(0) - x'(0)$$

first derivative

Why Laplace transform Unilateral?

→ It is better to use $x(s)$ for causal systems.

LTI described by LCCDE.

(more applicable)
Till when it is not applied it is zero.

initial conditions zero @ initial rest condition
 $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$
 so $y(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ → bilateral

Non zero initial conditions; \rightarrow unilateral

ie if $x(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$,
so $y(t) \neq 0$ for $t < 0$

Example $\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + 3 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + 2y(t) = x(t)$

$H(s) = ?$ $Y(s) = ?$ $y(t) = ?$

for $x(t) = \infty u(t)$. initial rest condition

LT; Bilateral:

$$s^2 Y(s) + 3s Y(s) + 2Y(s) = X(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + 3s + 2} = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

$$X(s) = \frac{\infty}{s}$$

$$Y(s) = H(s) X(s) = \left(\frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)} \right) \left(\frac{\infty}{s} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(s) = \frac{\infty}{(s+1)(s+2)s}$$

$\frac{1}{s+1} - \frac{1}{s+2}$

Partial fraction;

$$y(t) =$$

$\frac{1}{s+1} \rightarrow e^{-t} u(t)$

$\frac{1}{s+2} \rightarrow e^{-2t} u(t)$

Case 2 System with initial conditions;
 $y(0^-) = \beta$, $y'(0^-) = \gamma$

Non zero initial conditions;

Unilateral Laplace transform;

$$\left[s^2 Y(s) - s y(0^-) - y'(0^-) \right] + 3 \left[s Y(s) - y(0^-) \right] + 2 Y(s) = \frac{10}{s}$$

Rearrange for $Y(s)$

$$Y(s) = \frac{\beta(s+3)}{(s+1)(s+2)} + \frac{\gamma}{(s+1)(s+2)} + \frac{10}{s(s+1)(s+2)}$$

Zero i/p response

Zero state response

If $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma = 0$