

Introduction to Communication Systems

Lecture 1: Review of Linear Systems
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Lecture 1 Objectives

- Review of basic functions (step, ramp, impulse)
- Classification and properties of linear systems
- Review of frequency techniques (Fourier transform and series)

Some Important Properties of Signals

○ DC Value:

- Is the time average of a signal

$$x_{dc} = \langle x(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) dt$$

- Over a finite interval $[t_1, t_2]$:

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

○ Average Power:

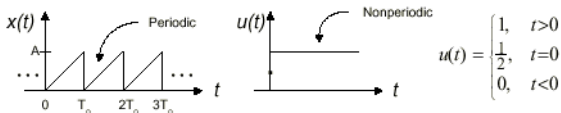
$$P_{ave} = \langle x^2(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt$$

○ RMS Value:

$$x_{rms} = \sqrt{\langle x^2(t) \rangle} = \sqrt{\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt}$$

○ Periodic and Nonperiodic Signals

- A periodic signal $x_p(t)$ repeats itself in a after time T called its period
- That is, a periodic signal is one that has the following property
 $x_p(t) = x(t \pm kT)$ where k is an integer
- That is, a periodic signal has no starting point or finishing time (eternal)
- That is, a periodic signal repeats endlessly
- A signal that does not repeat is said to be non-periodic



- Some characteristics of period signals

$$\text{Duty Ratio} = \frac{\text{Pulse Width}}{\text{Period}}$$

$$\text{Average Value } x_{av} = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T x(t) dt$$

$$\text{Power } P = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt$$

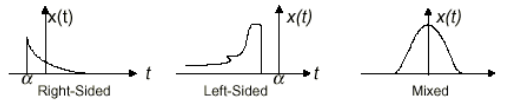
$$\text{RMS Value } x_{rms} = \sqrt{P}$$

○ **Causal and Noncausal**

- A signal $x(t)$ is said to be causal (right sided at 0) if $x(t) = 0$, for all $t < 0$

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} A \cos(\omega_o t + \theta), & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Otherwise the signal $x(t)$ is said to be noncausal (left sided at 0)
- Generally, a signal is right-sided (left-sided) if it is zero for $t < \alpha$ ($t > \alpha$)
- A mixed signal (double sided) satisfies both conditions



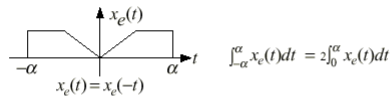
- Right- or left-sided signals are said to have semi-infinite duration
- Signals with finite duration are said to be **time-limited signal**
- A causal, finite duration or semi-finite duration signals can never be periodic

Analog Signals

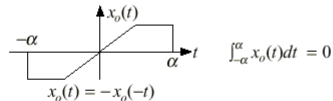
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○ **Even and Odd Signals**

- The concept of even and odd is used to express symmetry that is present in signals covering a symmetric interval say $(-\alpha, \alpha)$
- A signal is said to be **even** if it is symmetric with respect to the vertical y-axis, i.e., $x_e(t) = x_e(-t)$



- A signal is **odd** if it is symmetric with respect to the origin, i.e., $x_o(t) = -x_o(-t)$



≠ **Note: (also see page 14)**

- Sum of 2 even signals = EVEN
- Sum of 2 odd signals = ODD
- Product of 2 even signals = EVEN
- Product of even & odd signals = ODD
- Product of 2 odd signals = EVEN

Analog Signals

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- Sum of even and odd signals = No Symmetry
- Any signal can be written as the sum of its even and odd parts, i.e.,

$$x(t) = x_e(t) + x_o(t)$$
- Conversely, any signal can be broken into odd and even parts

$$x_e(t) = \frac{x(t) + x(-t)}{2}, \quad x_o(t) = \frac{x(t) - x(-t)}{2}$$
- Even and Odd symmetry are mutually exclusive
 - If a signal is formed by summing its even and odd parts, then the signal has no symmetry
 - ◆ If $x(t)$ is even, then $x_o(t) = 0$, and if $x(t)$ is odd, then $x_e(t) = 0$

📖 **Example 1:**

- $x(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \theta)$ is neither even nor odd
- However, $x(t)$ is even when $\theta = 0$ and odd when $\theta = \pm\pi/2$
- Also $x(t)$ can be written in terms of even and odd parts

$$x_e(t) = \frac{A}{2} \cos\theta \cos\omega t; \quad x_o(t) = -\frac{A}{2} \sin\theta \sin\omega t$$
- Since $\cos\omega t$ is even and $\sin\omega t$ is odd, then

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \theta) = \frac{A}{2} \cos\theta \cos\omega t - \frac{A}{2} \sin\theta \sin\omega t$$

Analog Signals

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○ **Energy- and Power-Type Signals**

- A signal is classified as *energy-type* if its energy E , is finite ($0 < E < \infty$)
- Energy may be computed in either time or frequency domain, whichever is easier

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |X(f)|^2 df = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

where $|X(f)|^2 = \psi_x(f) \equiv \text{Energy Spectral Density (ESD)}$
- The ESD gives the distribution of energy in frequency domain

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_x(f) df = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \psi_x(f) df$$
- All time-limited signals of finite amplitude are Energy signals
- Energy signals have zero power
- A signal is *power-type* if its power P is finite ($0 < P < \infty$)

$$P = \langle x^2(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |x(t)|^2 dt$$
- For periodic signals, E & P can be computed by integrating over one period
- Most periodic signals are power-type signals

Analog Signals

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- Similarly

$$G_x(f) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} |X_T(f)|^2 \equiv \text{Power Spectral Density (PSD)}$$

$$P = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G_x(f) df = 2 \int_0^{\infty} G_x(f) df$$

Example 3

- Find the energy of $x(t)$ given by

$$x(t) = Ae^{-\alpha t}u(t), \alpha > 0$$

Example 4

- Find the power content of the signal $x(t)$ given by

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

Some Important Signals/Functions

- **Sinusoidal Signal:**

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

↑ Amplitude
 ↑ Angular Frequency $\omega_o = 2\pi f_o$
↑ Phase

- **Complex Exponential Signal:**

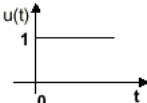
$$x(t) = Ae^{j(\omega_o t + \theta)}$$

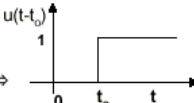
$$= A \cos(\omega_o t + \theta) + jA \sin(\omega_o t + \theta)$$

$$\text{Re}\{x(t)\} = A \cos(\omega_o t + \theta)$$

$$\text{Im}\{x(t)\} = A \sin(\omega_o t + \theta)$$

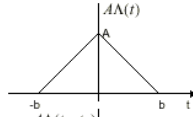
- **Unit Step Function:**

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


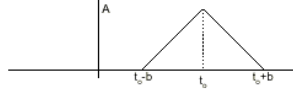
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t - t_o \geq 0 \\ 0, & t - t_o < 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$


Triangular Pulse Function

$$\Lambda(t) = \begin{cases} A\left(1 - \frac{|t|}{b}\right), & |t| < b \\ 0, & |t| > b \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$



$$\Lambda(t-t_o) = \begin{cases} A\left(1 - \frac{|t-t_o|}{b}\right), & |t-t_o| \leq b \\ 0, & |t-t_o| > b \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$



Sign (Signum) Function

$$\text{sgn}(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t > 0 \\ 0, & t = 0 \\ -1, & t < 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{sgn}(t-t_o) = \begin{cases} 1, & t-t_o > 0 \\ 0, & t-t_o = 0 \\ -1, & t-t_o < 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{sgn}(t) = -1 + 2u(t), \quad |t| > 0$$

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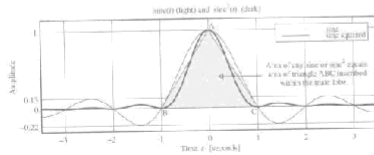
○ The Sinc Function [denoted by sinc(t)]

$$\text{sinc}(t) = \frac{\sin at}{at}, \quad -\infty < t < \infty$$

- Since the sine term oscillates and the 1/t term decreases with time, the sinc(t) shows decaying oscillation
- At t = 0, sinc(t) is not defined, but it is approximated using l'Hopital's rule

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \text{sinc}(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin at}{at} \approx \frac{at}{at} = 1$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \text{sinc}(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin at}{at} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{a \cos(at)}{a} = 1$$



- sinc(0) = 1
- sinc(t) = 0 @ t = ±1, ±2, ...

$$\text{sinc}(t-t_o) = \frac{\sin a(t-t_o)}{a(t-t_o)}, \quad -\infty < t-t_o < \infty$$

Analog Signals

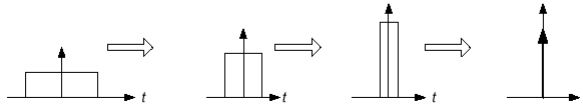
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○ The Impulse (Delta, Dirac) Function [denoted by $\delta(t)$]

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} \infty, & t=0 \\ 0, & t \neq 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \delta(t) \\ \uparrow \\ 0 \end{array} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$

$$\delta(t-t_0) = \begin{cases} \infty, & t=t_0 \\ 0, & t \neq t_0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \delta(t) \\ \uparrow \\ 0 \end{array} \quad \int_a^b \delta(\tau-t_0) d\tau = \begin{cases} 1, & a < t_0 < b \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- $\delta(t)$ is very important in Engineering; many physical phenomena such as (a) point sources, (b) point charges, (c) concentrated load on structures (d) voltage or current sources acting for a very short time, etc., can be modeled as delta function
 - ♦ That is, any signal or behavior of a system that cannot be quantified by measuring instrument may be represented by the delta function
- Many functions behave like an impulse in their limiting form (see fig. 2.2)



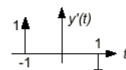
Analog Signals

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- If a signal has a sudden jump, its derivative gives rise to impulses

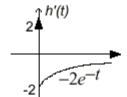
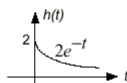
Example 7

$$y(t) = \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2}\right) = u(t+1) - u(t-1) \quad \frac{d}{dt} y(t) = \delta(t+1) - \delta(t-1)$$



$$h(t) = 2e^{-t}u(t)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} h(t) = -2\delta(t) - 2e^{-t}u(t)$$



- Properties:

$$1) \delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt} \quad 2) u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\tau) d\tau$$

$$3) \text{Scaling: } \delta(\alpha t) = \frac{1}{|\alpha|} \delta(t)$$

- 4) Product:

$$a) x(t)\delta(t-\alpha) = x(\alpha)\delta(t-\alpha)$$

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

Analog Signals

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5) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)\delta(t-\alpha)dt = x(\alpha) \Rightarrow \int_a^b x(t)\delta(t-\alpha)dt = \begin{cases} x(\alpha), & a < \alpha < b \\ \frac{1}{2}x(\alpha), & \alpha = a \text{ or } \alpha = b \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

6) Convolution:
 a) $x(t)*\delta(t) = x(t)$
 b) $x(t)*\delta(t-\alpha) = x(t-\alpha)$

7) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta^{(n)}(t-\alpha)x(t)dt = (-1)^n \left. \frac{d^n}{dt^n} x(t) \right|_{t=\alpha}$

○ The Comb Function

$Comb_T(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \delta(t-nT)$

Analog Signals

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Operations on Signals

○ **Amplitude Scaling**
 $Kx(t)$, K is a constant

○ **Amplitude Shifting**
 $K + x(t)$, K is a constant

○ **Time Shifting**

- Displaces a signal in time without changing its shape

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

- "+" shifts the signal left by α
- "-" shifts the signal right by α (delayed)

○ **Time Scaling**

- Slows down or speeds up time which results in signal compression or stretching

$y(t) = x\left(\frac{t}{\alpha}\right)$

- Implies α -fold expansion of $x(t)$ since it slows down $x(t)$ to t/α

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

- Implies α -fold compression of $x(t)$ since it speeds up $x(t)$ to αt

Analog Signals

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○ **Reflection or Folding**

- A scaling operation with $\alpha = -1 \Rightarrow x(t) = x(-t)$
- The mirror image of $x(t)$ about the y-axis through $t = 0$

○ **Operations in Combinations**

- Shifting, scaling and folding operations can be combined and performed in succession

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

- ◆ $x(t) \Rightarrow$ delay (shift right) by $\beta \Rightarrow x(t-\beta) \Rightarrow$ compress by $\alpha \Rightarrow x(\alpha t - \beta)$
- ◆ $x(t) \Rightarrow$ compress by $\alpha \Rightarrow x(\alpha t) \Rightarrow$ delay (shift right) by $\beta/\alpha \Rightarrow x(\alpha t - \beta)$

Analog Signals

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- Example 8:
 - ◆ Expressing signal by interval

- Example 9 (see example 2.2)

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2}t, & 0 \leq t \leq 2 \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- ◆ Sketch $f(t) = 1 + x(t-1)$, $g(t) = x(t)$, $h(t) = x(0.5t+0.2)$, $w(t) = x(-2t+2)$

- Example 10 (see example 2.8)

$$x(t) = 2r(t) - 2r'(t-2) - 4u(t-3)$$

- ◆ Sketch $x(t)$ and its derivatives

Analog Signals

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Discrete-Time Signals

- Discrete-Time Signals (DTS) denoted by $x[n]$ are signals defined at discrete times having discrete valued independent variable
- Independent variable n takes on integers values, e.g., $x[n]=A\cos[2\pi fn+\theta]$, $n=1,2$
▣ `stem(cos(2*pi*0.07*(0:30)))`;

- That is DTS are represented as sequences of numbers
↓
 $x[n] = \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\}$
- Digital Time Signals arises
 - Naturally (i.e. generated directly by discrete-time process)
 - Periodic sampling of a continuous-time signal
- A DTS is represented mathematically as sequences of numbers
 $x[n] = x(nT_s) = x(nT)$, n is an integer

Analog Signals

Classification

- **Periodic and Nonperiodic**
 - A discrete periodic signal repeats itself every N samples called its period
 $x[n] = x[n \pm kN]$ where k is an integer
 - The period N is the smallest number of samples that repeats
 - The period N is always an integer
 - For sums of DTS, the period N is the LCM of the individual periods
- **Causal and Noncausal (page 39)**
 - $X[n]$ is causal if it is zero for $n < 0$
 - $X[n]$ is noncausal if it is zero for $n \geq 0$
 - If the sequence is bounded by N , then
 - ♦ $X[n]$ is left-sided if it is zero for $n > N$
 - ♦ $X[n]$ is right-sided if it is zero for $n < -N$
- **Even and Odd Parts**
 - The definition is similar to the analog counterpart
 - If $x[n] = x[-n]$, the signal is said to be even
 - If $x[n] = -x[-n]$, the signal is said to be odd

Analog Signals

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$$x[n] \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_e[n] = x_e[-n], & \text{even} \\ x_o[n] = -x_o[-n], & \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

⚠ **Note**

$$x[n] = x_e[n] + x_o[n]$$

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

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

$$x[-n] = x_e[n] - x_o[n] = x_e[-n] + x_o[-n]$$

$$\sum_{n=-M}^M x_o[n] = 0$$

$$x_o[0] = 0$$

Analog Signals

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Classification of Systems

- A system is an interconnection of various elements that work as a whole
- In communication, a system is viewed as an entity that is excited by an input signal and produces an output signal
- That is, a system is considered as a device, algorithm, process that, given an input $x(t)$, produces an output $y(t)$

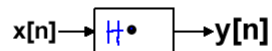


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- From a communications engineer's point of view, a system is a law that assigns output signal to various input signal such that $y(t) = O[x(t)]$
- Like signals, systems can be classified according to their behavior or properties as follows:

① **Discrete-Time and Continuous-Time Systems**

- A discrete-time system accepts discrete-time signals as input and produces discrete-time signals at the output



- In continuous-time systems, both input and output signals are continuous-time signals

② **Linear and Nonlinear Systems**

- Linear systems are systems for which superposition property is satisfied
 - the response of the system to linear inputs is a corresponding linear output
- Otherwise a system is said to be nonlinear

③ **Causal and Noncausal Systems**

- A system is causal if its output at any time-instant t_o depends on the input at time prior to t_o
- In order words, output signal depends only on the values of the input up till time t_o , and does not depend on future input values

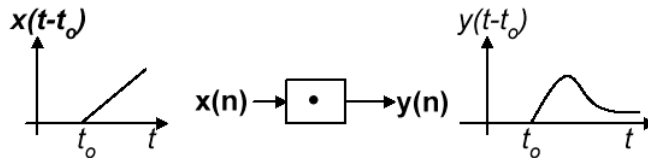
- The output is given by:

$$y(t) = \{x(t): t \leq t_0\}$$

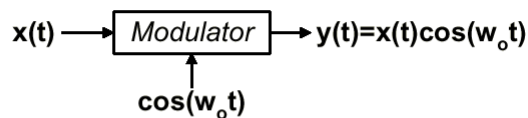
- Otherwise a system is said to be noncausal

④ Time-invariant and Time-varying Systems

- A system is time-invariant if its input-output relation does not change with time
 - A time shift in the input results in a corresponding time shift in the output



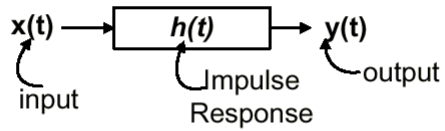
- A system is time-varying if it is not time-invariant, e.g.,



- The response to $x(t-t_0) = x(t-t_0)\cos(w_0 t)$ which is not equal to $y(t-t_0)$
- *Of particular interest is the group of linear systems called Linear Time Invariant (LTI) systems*
- *This is because most communication systems, - channels, transmitter/receiver sub-components, etc., can be modeled as a LTI system*

Linear Time Invariant Systems

● Computing the output of a LTI system



- LTI systems are those linear systems that obey the law of superposition
- The input-output (I/O) characteristics are similar; e.g., when a periodic signal $x(t)$ is passed through a LTI system, the output signal $y(t)$ is also periodic usually with the same period as the input

LTI System

