




上海交通大学
SHANGHAI JIAO TONG UNIVERSITY



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Signal Basics

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Signals

- **Definition** [The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language]

a. *Electronics* An impulse or fluctuating quantity, as of electrical voltage or light intensity, whose variations represent coded information

b. *Computers* A sequence of digital values whose variations represent coded information.

- **Examples**

- voltages or currents in circuits
- speech, images, videos

- **Mathematical Representation**

- Function of one or more independent variables

$$x: I \rightarrow X$$

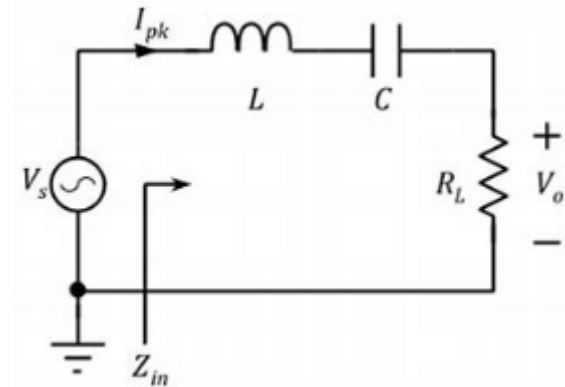
$$t \mapsto x(t)$$



Examples of Signals

- **Electrical voltage**

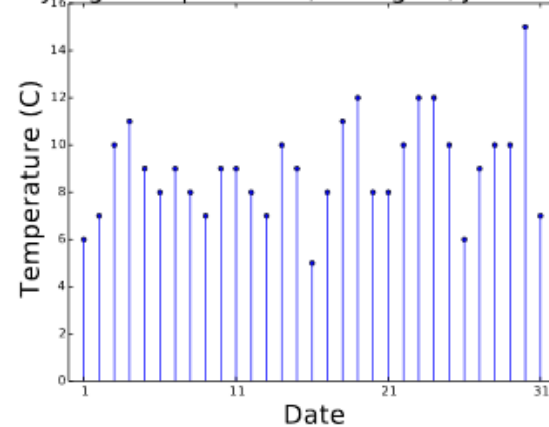
- $V_0: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $t \mapsto V_0(t)$



- **Daily temperature**

- $T: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $n \mapsto T[n]$

Daily high temperatures, Shanghai, January 2019

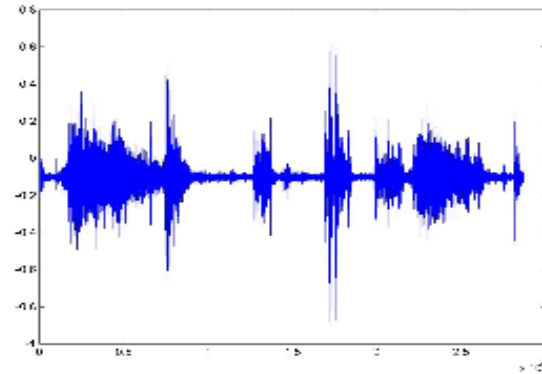




Examples of Signals

- **Speech signal**

- $x: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $t \mapsto x(t)$



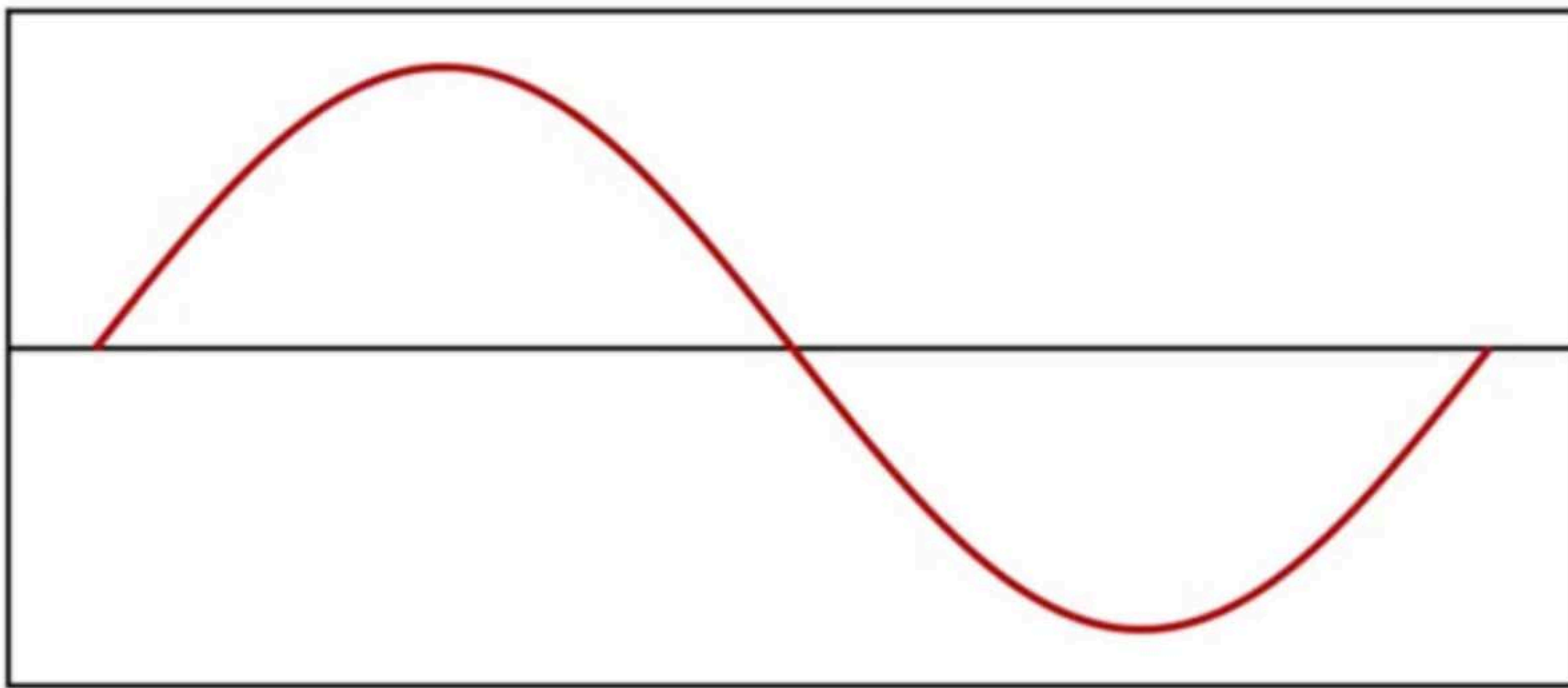
- **Color image**

- $P: I \times J \rightarrow R \times G \times B$
 $(i, j) \mapsto (r[i, j], g[i, j], b[i, j])$



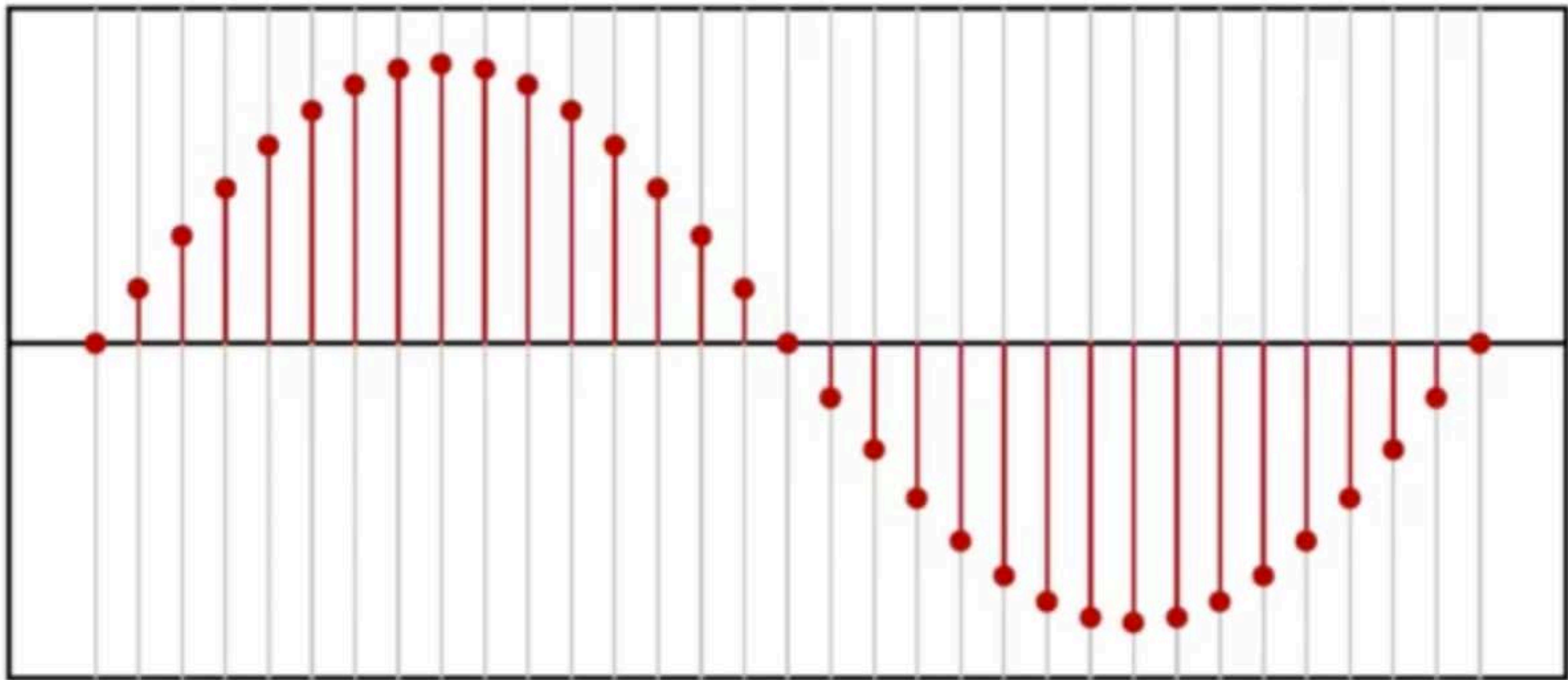


- **Continuous-time signal (Analog signal)**

 $x(t)$

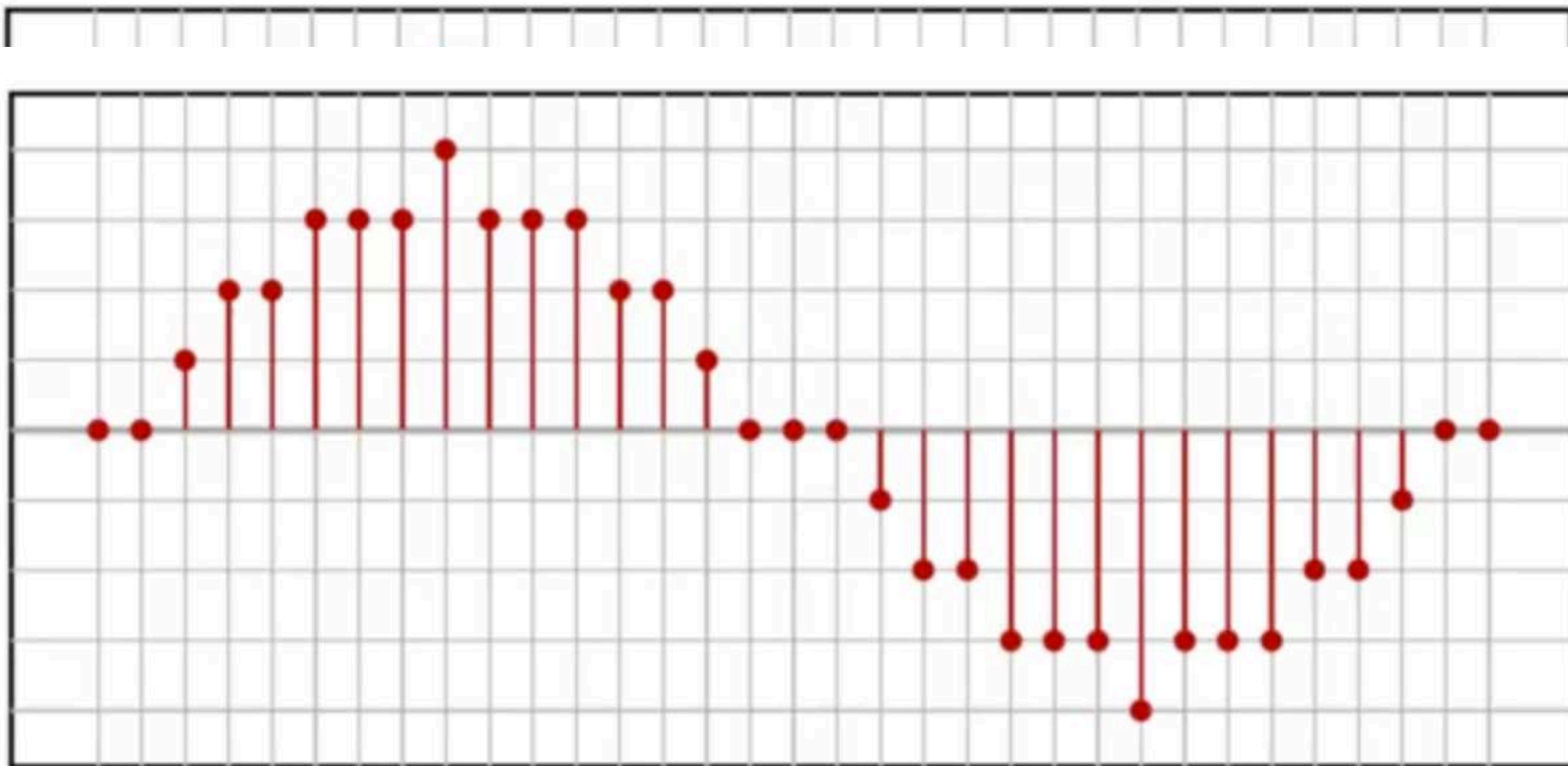


- **Discrete-time signals sampled from continuous-time signals**

 $x[n]$



- **Digital signals from continuous-time signals (Analog signal)**

 $\hat{x}[n]$



- **Digital signals from continuous-time signals (Analog signal)**





- **The world is analog, the computer is digital**





- **Independent variables can be**
 - continuous, e.g.,
 - voltage/current
 - vehicle speed
 - discrete, e.g.,
 - DNA base sequence
 - weekly average for stock markets
 - 1-D, 2-D, ... n -D, e.g.,
 - 2-D/3-D Digital image pixels



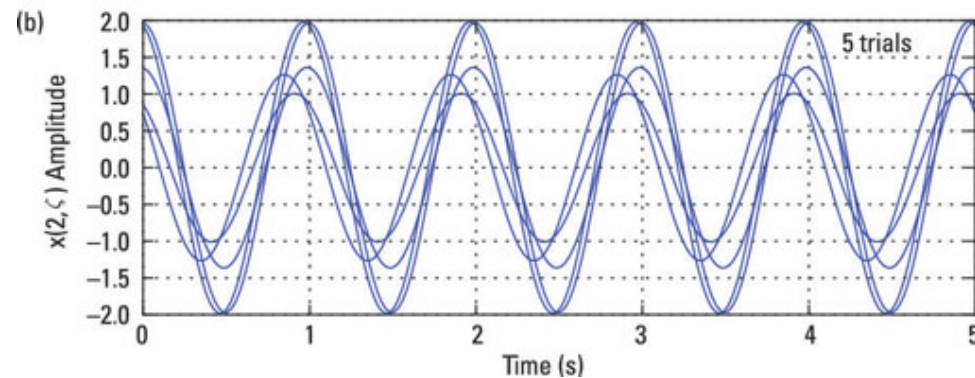
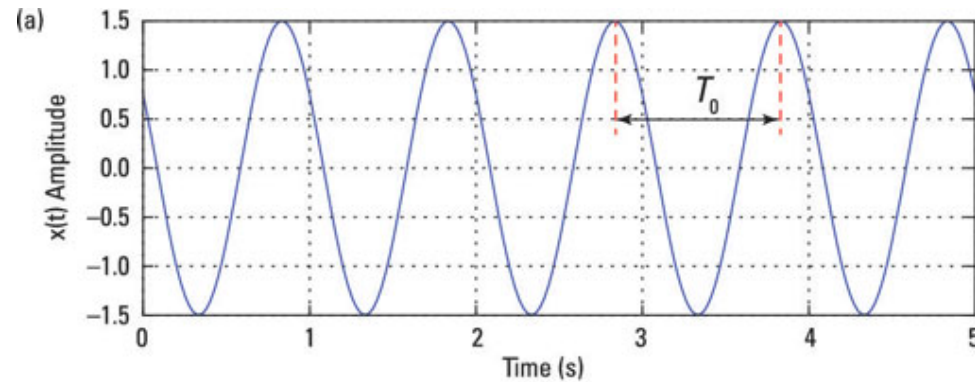
Classification of Signals

- **Deterministic signals vs. Random signals**
- **Continuous signals vs. Discrete signals**
- **Energy signals vs. Power signals**
- **Periodic signals vs. Non-periodic signals**
- **Odd signals vs. Even signals**
- **Real signals vs. Complex signals**
-



Deterministic vs. Random Signals

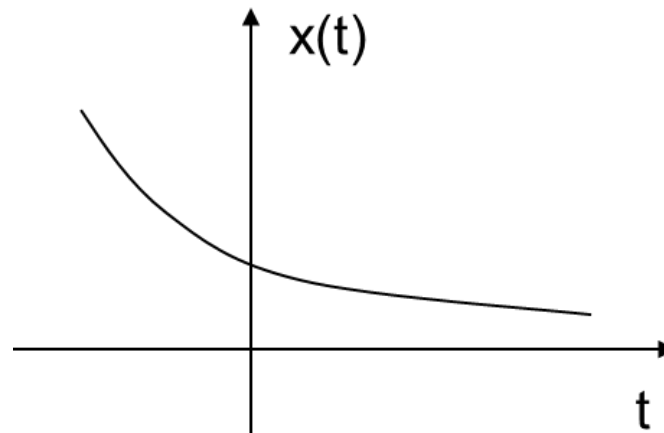
- **Deterministic signals**
 - can be described by exact mathematical expression
 - given t and get deterministic result
- **Random signals**
 - can not be described by exact mathematic expression
 - given t and get random result





Continuous-time vs. Discrete-time Signals

- **Continuous-time (CT) signals**
 - Independent variable t is continuous
 - The signal is defined for a continuum of values of the independent variable t
 - Notation: parentheses for continuous time, e.g., (t)



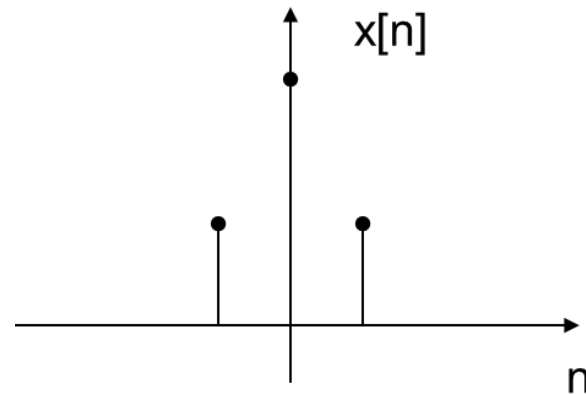
example: $x(t) = 2e^{-t}$



Continuous-time vs. Discrete-time Signals

- **Discrete-time (DT) signals/Sequences: $x[n]$**
 - Independent variable n takes on only a discrete set of values, (in this course, a set of integer values only)
 - Signal is defined only at discrete times
 - Notation: square brackets for discrete time, e.g., $[n]$

example: $x[n] = \begin{cases} 2, n = -1 \\ 4, n = 0 \\ 2, n = 1 \\ 0, \text{others} \end{cases}$





Power and Energy Signals

- **Power and energy in a physical system**

- Instantaneous power

$$P(t) = v(t)i(t) = \frac{1}{R} |v(t)|^2$$

- Total energy over time interval $[t_1, t_2]$

$$\frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} p(t) dt = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \frac{1}{R} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |v(t)|^2 dt$$

- Average power over time interval $[t_1, t_2]$

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} p(t) dt = \frac{1}{R} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |v(t)|^2 dt$$



Power and Energy Signals

- **Power and energy in this course**

- Total Energy

$$E = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt, \quad E = \sum_{n=n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2$$

- Average Power

$$P = \frac{1}{t_2 - t_1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} |x(t)|^2 dt, \quad P = \frac{1}{n_2 - n_1 + 1} \sum_{n=n_1}^{n_2} |x[n]|^2$$



Power and Energy Signals

- **Power and energy definitions over infinite interval**

- **Total Energy**

$$E_{\infty} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt \quad E_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=-N}^N |x[n]|^2$$

- **Average Power**

$$P_{\infty} = \frac{1}{2T} \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |x(t)|^2 dt \quad P_{\infty} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{n=-N}^N |x[n]|^2$$

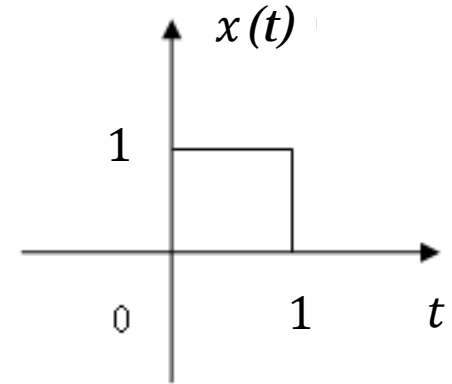


Finite-energy and Finite-power Signals

- Finite-Energy Signal

$$E_{\infty} < \infty \quad P_{\infty} = 0$$

example



- Finite-Average Power Signal

$$P_{\infty} < \infty \quad E_{\infty} = \infty$$

example: $x[n] = 4$



Periodic vs. Non-periodic Signals

- **Definition for continuous-time signals**

- If $x(t) = x(t + T)$ for all values of t , then $x(t)$ is periodic, and $x(t) = x(t + mT)$ for all t and any integer m .
- Fundamental period \triangleq the smallest positive value that satisfies $x(t) = x(t + T)$ for all t

Question: if the signal is constant, what is the fundamental period ?



Periodic vs. Non-periodic Signals

- **Definition for discrete-time signals**

- If $x[n]=x[n+N]$ for all values of n , then $x[n]$ is periodic, and $x[n]=x[n+mN]$ for all n and any integer m
- Fundamental Period \triangleq the smallest positive integer that satisfies $x[n]=x[n+N]$ for all n

Question: if the signal is constant, what is the fundamental period ?



Even vs. Odd Signals

- **Definition**

- $x(t)$ or $x[n]$ is even if it is identical to its time-reversed counterpart

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

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

- Similarly, $x(t)$ or $x[n]$ is odd if

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

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

Question: for odd signal $x(t)$, can we determine $x(0)$?



Even vs. Odd Signals

- **Even-odd decomposition of a signal**

$$x(t) = E_v\{x(t)\} + O_d\{x(t)\}$$

Even part

Odd part

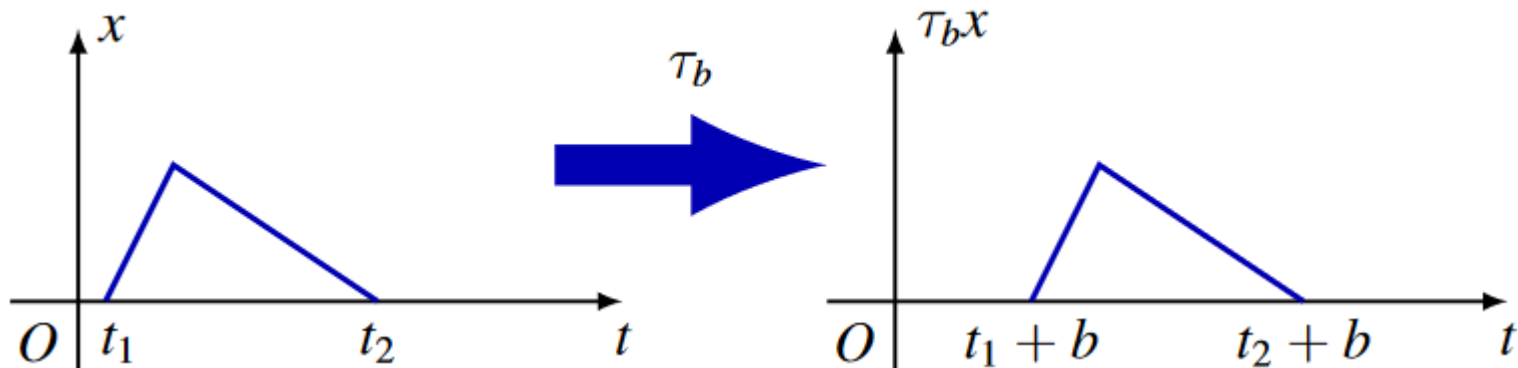
$$E_v\{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) + x(-t)]$$

$$O_d\{x(t)\} = \frac{1}{2}[x(t) - x(-t)]$$

Time Shift

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

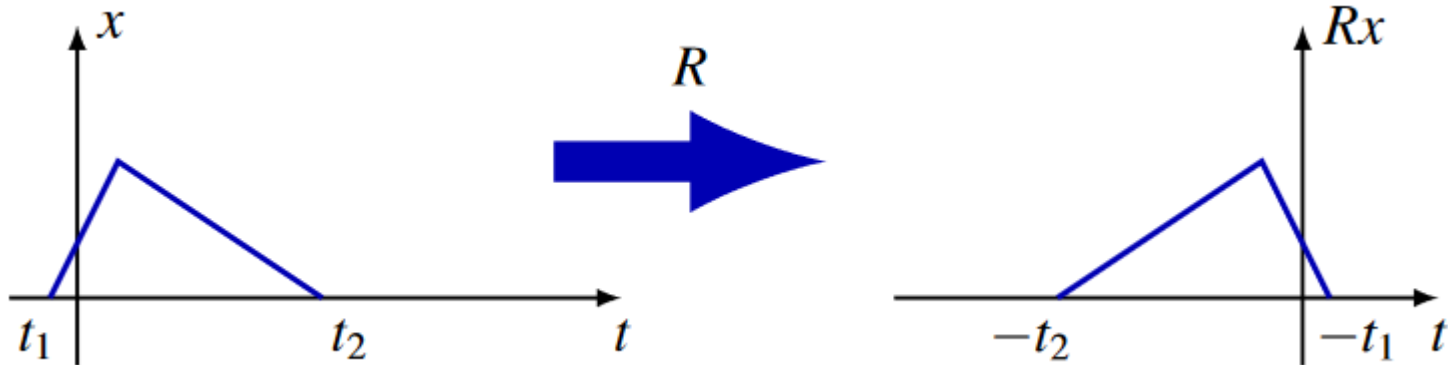
$$x[n] \rightarrow x[n - b]$$



- **Examples: radar, sonar, radio propagations**
- **Notes: each point in $x(t)/x[n]$ occurs at a later/early time in $x(t - t_0)/x[n - n_0]$, when t_0/n_0 is positive/negative, i.e.,**
 - $x(t - t_0)/x[n - n_0]$ is the **delayed** version of $x(t)/x[n]$, for $t_0/n_0 > 0$
 - $x(t - t_0)/x[n - n_0]$ is the **advanced** version of $x(t)/x[n]$, for $t_0/n_0 < 0$

Time Reversal

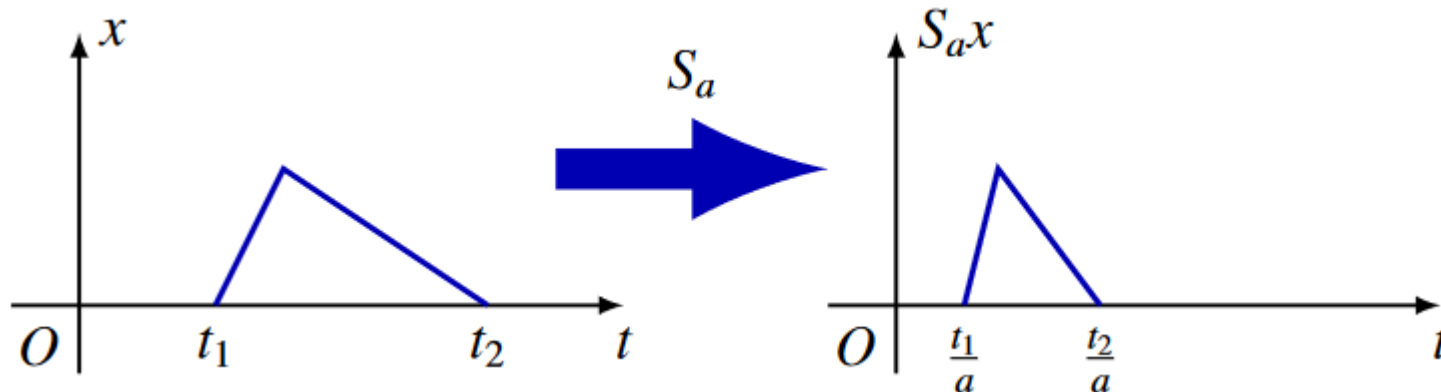
- **CT signal:** $x(t) \rightarrow x(-t)$



- **DT signal:** $x[n] \rightarrow x[-n]$
- **Example: tape recording played backward**

Time Scaling

- **Time Scaling:** $x(t) \rightarrow x(\alpha t)$, $x[n] \rightarrow x[\alpha n]$



- **Example: audio played back at different speed**

- fast forward $\alpha > 1$
- slow forward $0 < \alpha < 1$
- slow backward $-1 < \alpha < 0$
- fast backward $\alpha < -1$

Notes: $|\alpha| > 1$, Compression
 $|\alpha| < 1$, Extension



General Affine Transformation

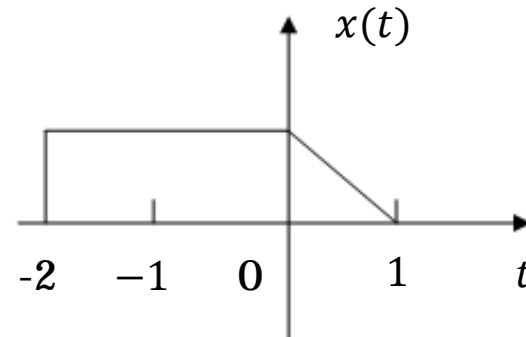
- Affine Transformation**

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(\alpha t + \beta),$$

$$x[n] \rightarrow x[\alpha n + \beta]$$

- Examples:**

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(-3t - 2)$$



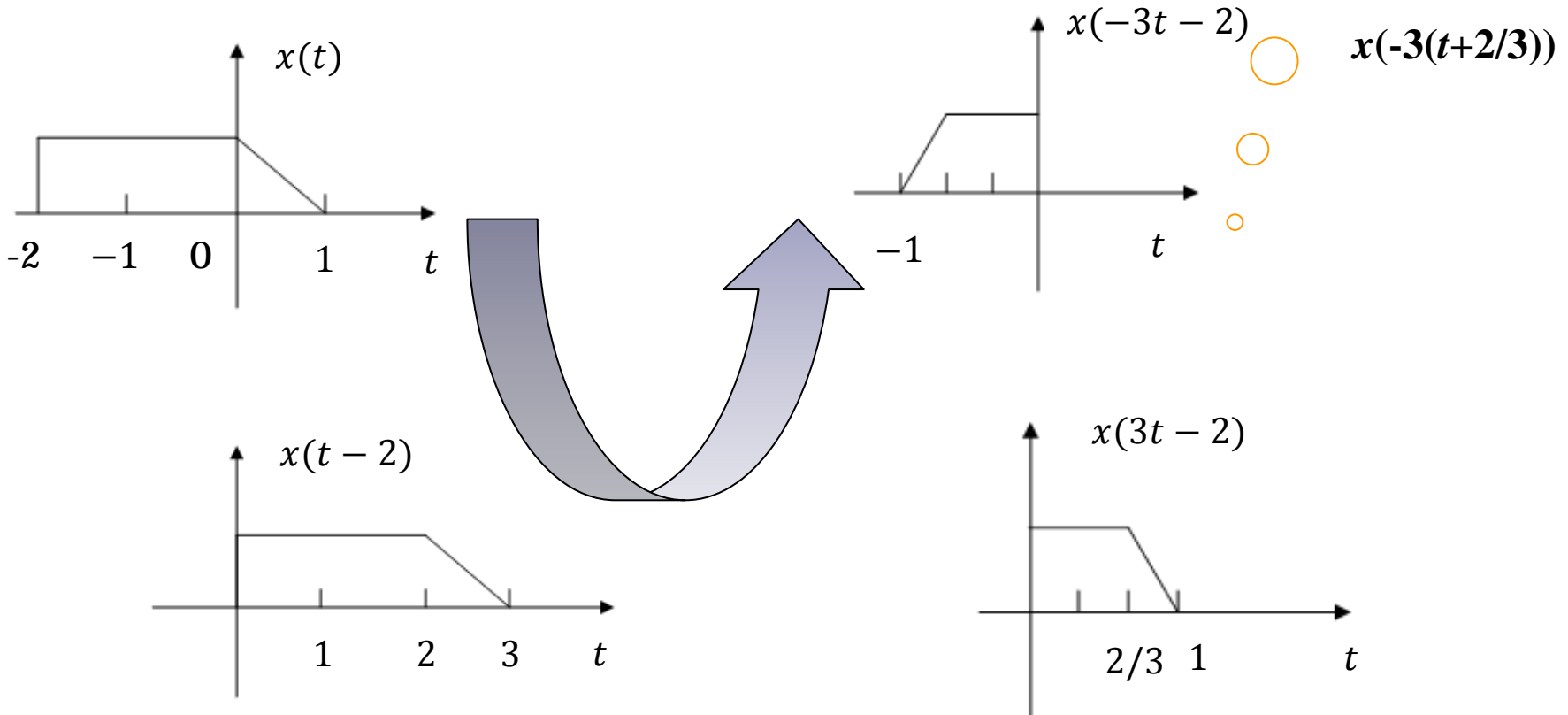
- Can be decomposed as product of time shift, reversal and scaling, with the general rule:**

- Time shift first
- Then time reversal and time scaling



- Examples:** $x(t) \rightarrow x(-3t - 2)$

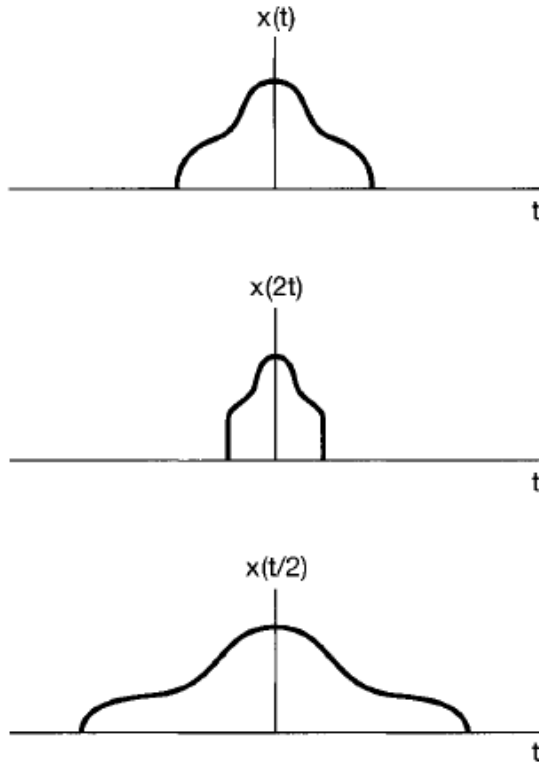
Question: what would happen if we shift after scaling/reflection?



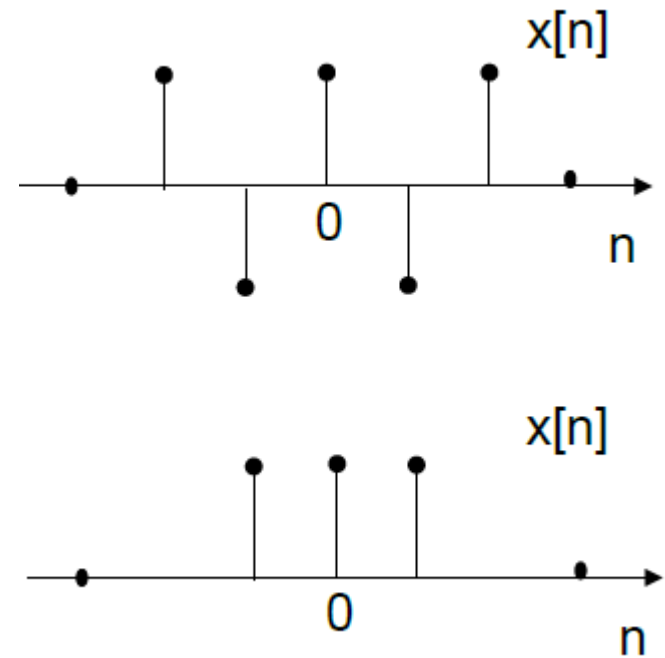


• Examples:

$$x(t) \rightarrow x(2t), x\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)$$



$$x[n] \rightarrow x[2n]$$

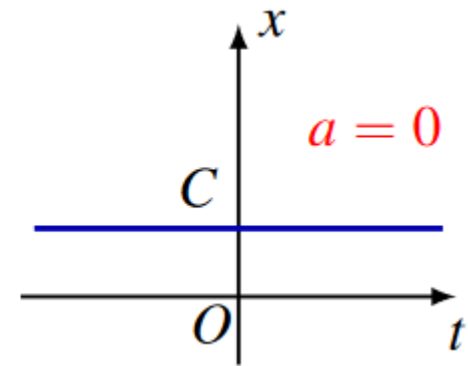
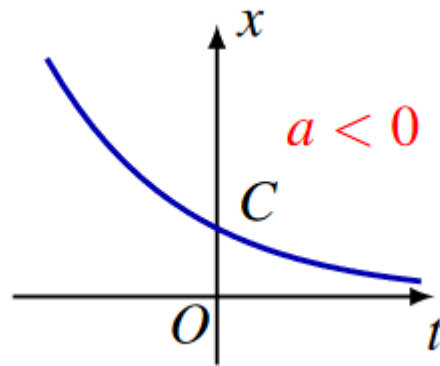
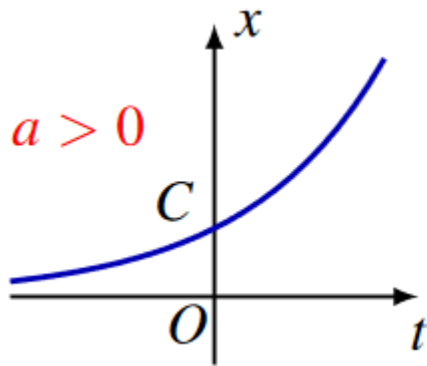




CT Complex Exponential Signals

$$x(t) = C \cdot e^{at}, \text{ where } C \in \mathbb{C}, a \in \mathbb{C}$$

- **Real exponential signals:** $C \in \mathbb{R}, a \in \mathbb{R}$
 - $a > 0$: growing exponential
 - $a < 0$: decaying exponential
 - $a = 0$: constant

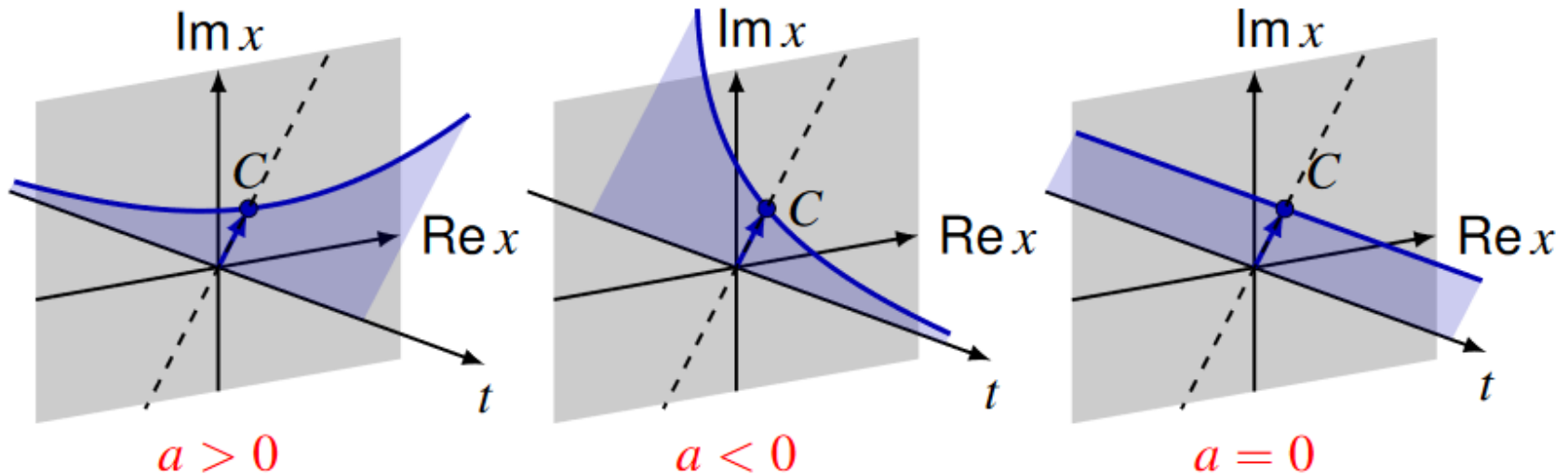




CT Complex Exponential Signals

$$x(t) = C \cdot e^{at}, \text{ where } C \in \mathbb{C}, a \in \mathbb{R}$$

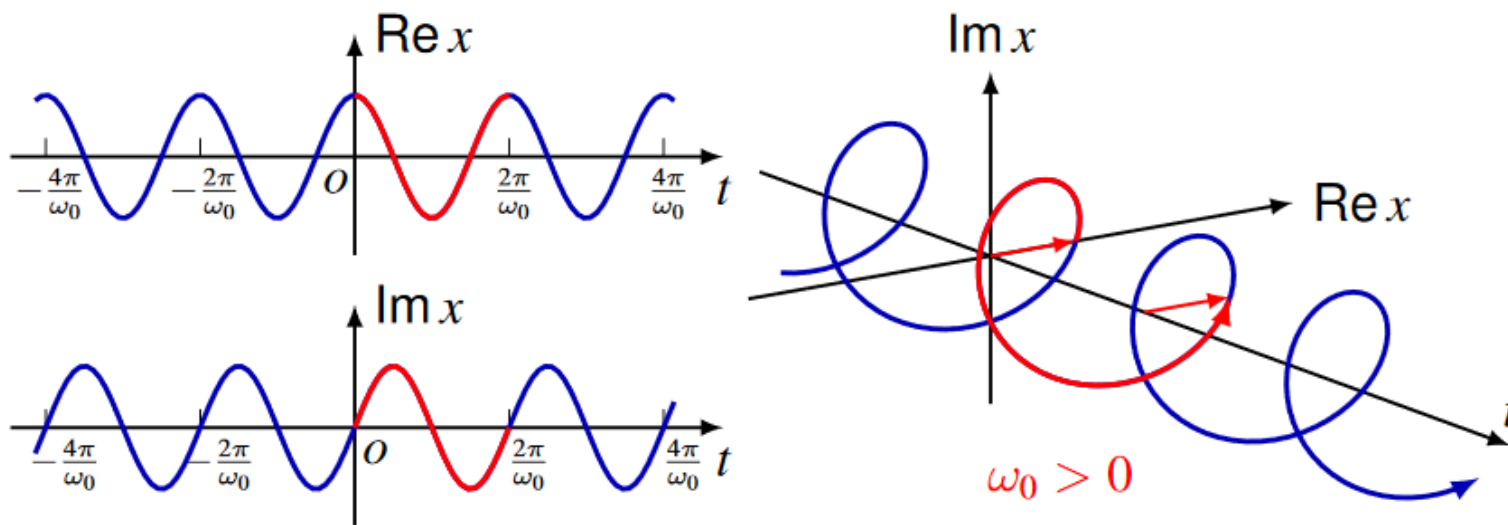
- $a > 0$: diverges from t axis, $|x(t)| \nearrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$
- $a < 0$: converges to t axis, $|x(t)| \searrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$
- $a = 0$: constant



Periodic Complex Exponential Signals

▫ **Euler's Relation:**

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t} = \cos(\omega_0 t) + j \sin(\omega_0 t), \text{ where } \omega_0 \in \mathbb{C}$$

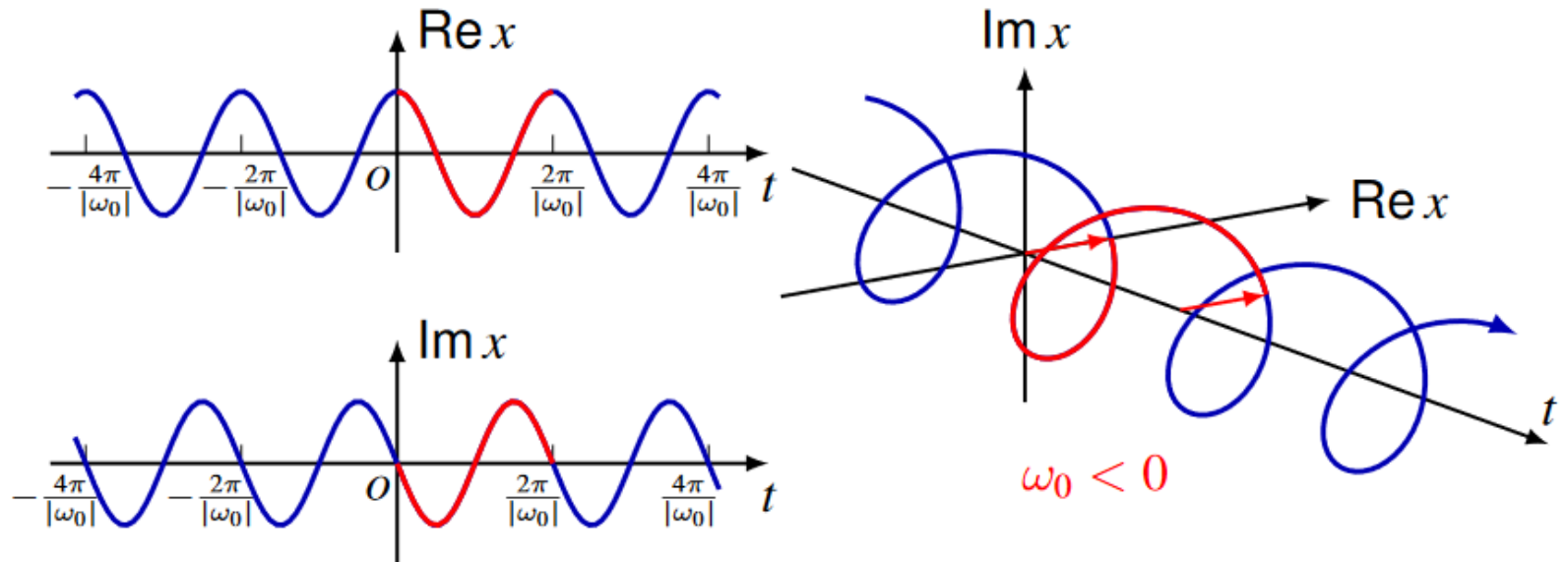


- (Angular) frequency: ω_0 radians/s
- Frequency: $f_0 = \omega_0 / (2\pi)$ cycles/s (Hz)
- Fundamental period: $T_0 = 2\pi / |\omega_0| = 1 / |f_0|$ s (only if $\omega_0 \neq 0$)



Periodic Complex Exponential Signals

$$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t} = \cos(|\omega_0| t) - j \sin(|\omega_0| t), \text{ where } \omega_0 < 0$$

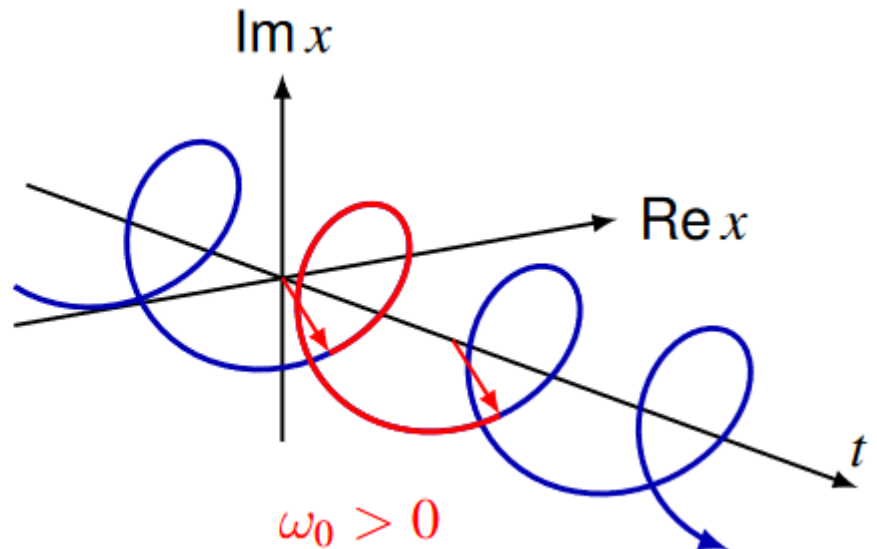
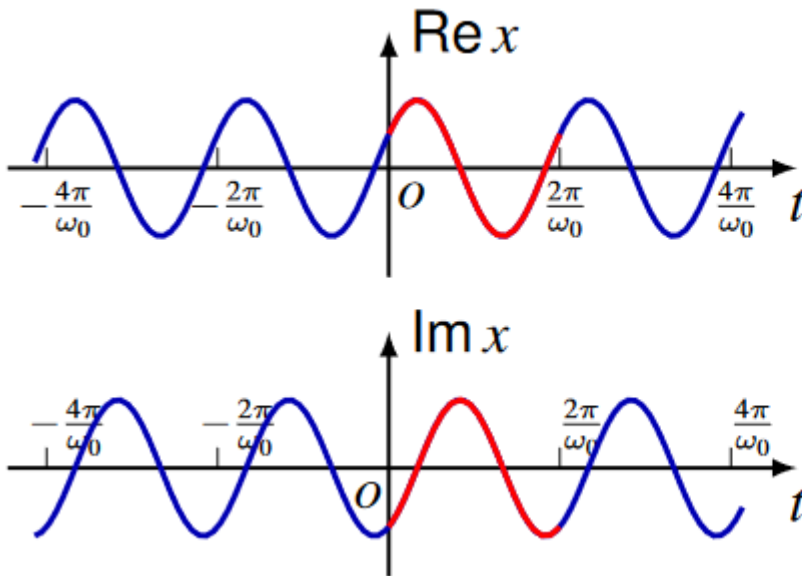


- Fundamental frequency: $|\omega_0|$, $|f_0|$



Periodic Complex Exponential Signals

$$x(t) = C e^{j\omega_0 t} = |C| [\cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) + j \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi)], \quad C = C e^{j\phi}$$





CT Complex Sinusoidal Signals

$$x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi), \text{ where } A \in \mathbb{R}$$

- Conversion between exponentials and sinusoids

$$Ae^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi)} = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) + jA \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi)$$

$$A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) = \frac{A}{2} e^{j\phi} e^{j\omega_0 t} + \frac{A}{2} e^{-j\phi} e^{-j\omega_0 t} = A \cdot \mathcal{R}e\{e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi)}\}$$

$$A \sin(\omega_0 t + \phi) = A \cdot \mathcal{I}m\{e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi)}\}$$

- Same periodicity
 - always periodic with fundamental frequency $|\omega_0|$
 - larger $|\omega_0|$, faster oscillation

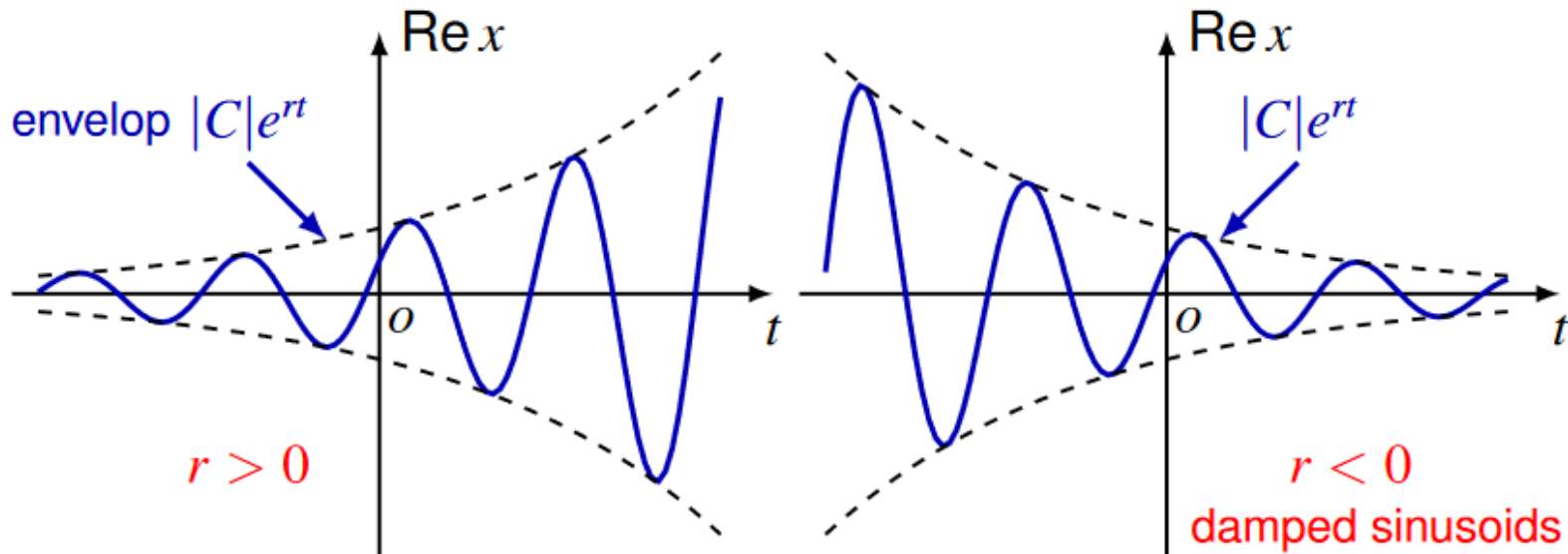


General Complex Exponential Signals

$$x(t) = C \cdot e^{at}, \text{ where } C = |C|e^{j\phi}, a = r + j\omega_0$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$x(t) = |C|e^{rt}e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi)} = |C|e^{rt}\cos(\omega_0 t + \phi) + j|C|e^{rt}\sin(\omega_0 t + \phi)$$

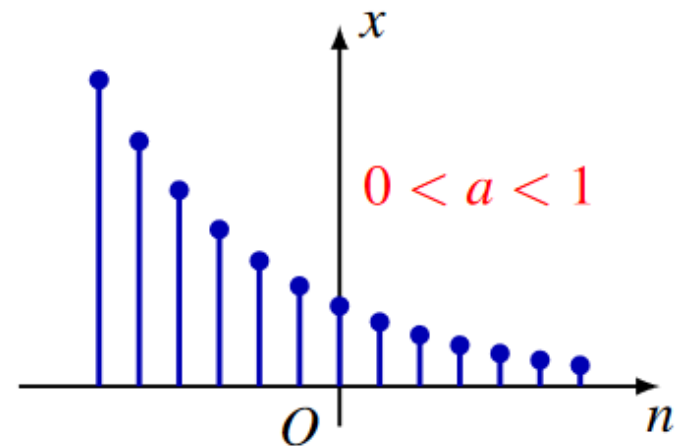
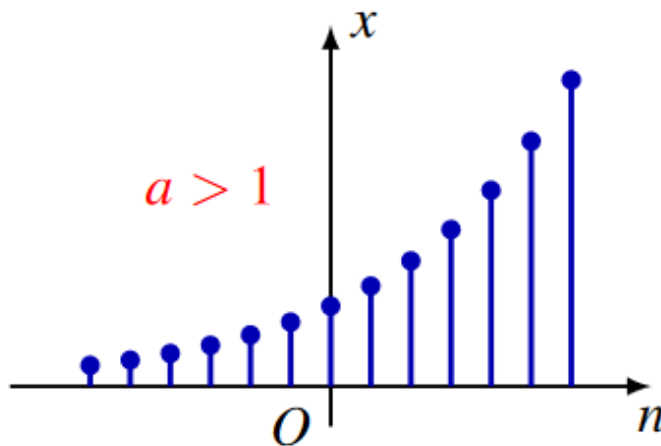




DT Complex Exponential Signals

$$x[n] = C \cdot \alpha^n = C e^{\beta n}, \text{ where } C \in \mathbb{C}, \alpha = e^{\beta} \in \mathbb{C}$$

- **Real exponential signals:** $C \in \mathbb{R}, a \in \mathbb{R}$ (but $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$!)
- 1. $a > 1$: monotonically growing
- 2. $0 < a < 1$: monotonically decaying
- 3. $a = 0$: constant

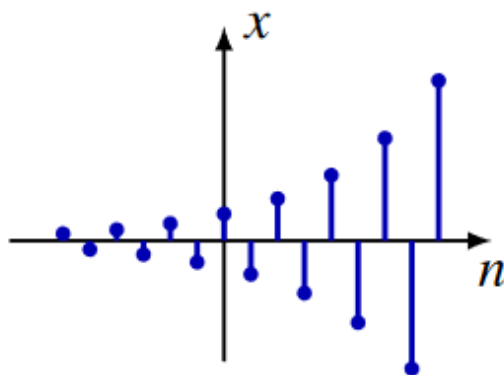




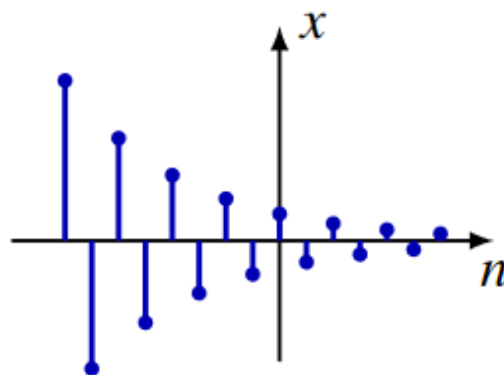
DT Complex Exponential Signals

$$x[n] = C \cdot \alpha^n = C e^{\beta n}, \text{ where } C \in \mathbb{C}, \alpha = e^{\beta} \in \mathbb{C}$$

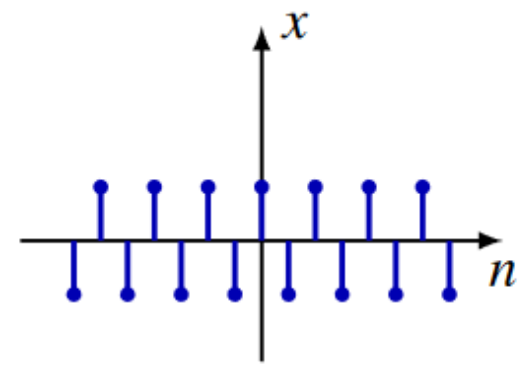
- **Real exponential signals:** $C \in \mathbb{R}, a \in \mathbb{R}$ (but $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$!)
- 4. $\alpha < -1$: growing magnitude, alternating sign
- 5. $-1 < \alpha < 0$: decaying magnitude, alternating sign
- 6. $\alpha = -1$: constant magnitude, alternating sign ($\beta = j\pi$)



$$\alpha < -1$$



$$-1 < \alpha < 0$$



$$\alpha = -1$$

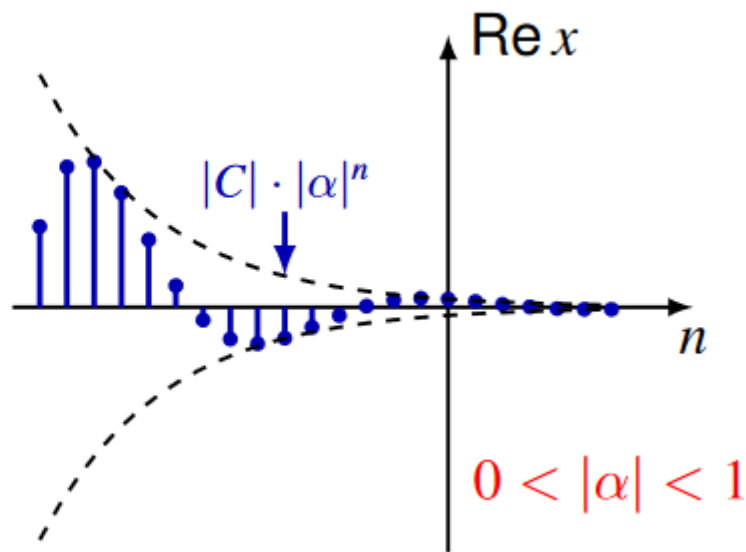
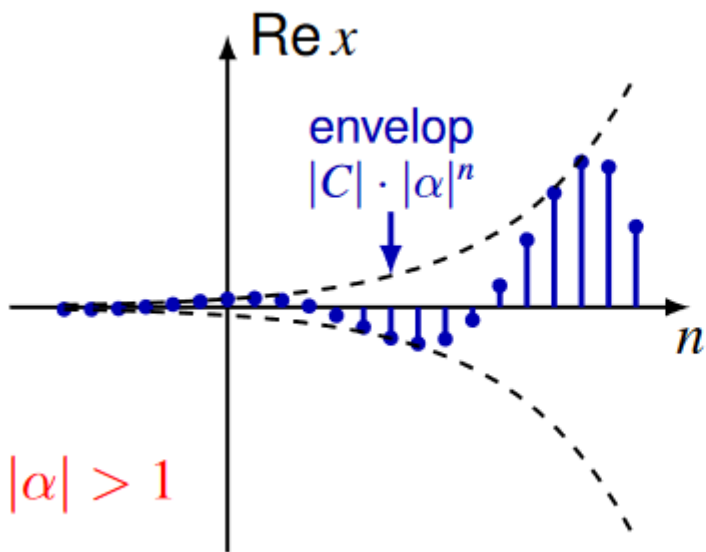


General Complex Exponential Signals

$$x[n] = C \cdot \alpha^n, \text{ where } C = |C|e^{j\phi}, \alpha = |\alpha|e^{j\omega_0}$$

⇓

$$x[n] = |C|\alpha^n e^{j(\omega_0 n + \phi)} = |C||\alpha|^n \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) + j|C||\alpha|^n \sin(\omega_0 n + \phi)$$





DT Complex Sinusoidal Signals

$$x[n] = |C|e^{j(\omega_0 n + \phi)} = |C| \cos(\omega_0 n + \phi) + j|C| \sin(\omega_0 n + \phi)$$

▫ Periodicity

- periodic $\Leftrightarrow \omega_0 = \frac{2\pi k}{N}$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}, N \in \mathbb{Z}_+$
- fundamental period $N_0 = N/\text{gcd}(N, k)$

▫ Fundamental frequency

- zero if $N_0 = 1$
- $2\pi/N_0$ if $N_0 > 1$

- **Example:** $x[n] = e^{j3\pi n}$ has $N_0 = 2$, fundamental frequency π , **not 3π !** Note that $e^{j3\pi n} = e^{j\pi n}$.



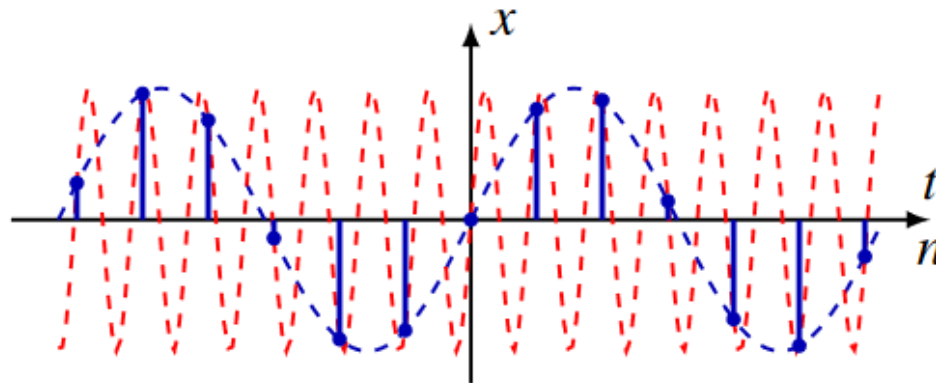
DT Complex Exponential Signals

- **Aliasing**

- $e^{j\omega_1 t} = e^{j\omega_2 t}, \forall t \in \mathbb{R} \Leftrightarrow \omega_1 = \omega_2$
- $e^{j\omega_1 n} = e^{j\omega_2 n}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \Leftrightarrow \omega_1 = \omega_2 + 2k\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}$

Frequencies differing by $2k\pi$ yields the same discrete sinusoid

- **Example:** $\omega_1 = 1, \omega_2 = 1 + 2\pi$

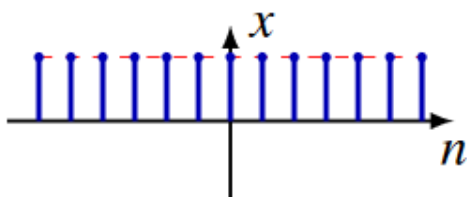


For DT signals, it suffices to consider frequencies on an interval of length 2π , e.g., $[0, 2\pi)$ or $(-\pi, \pi]$

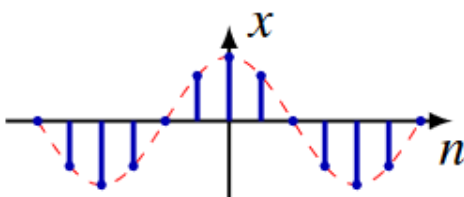


DT Complex Exponential Signals

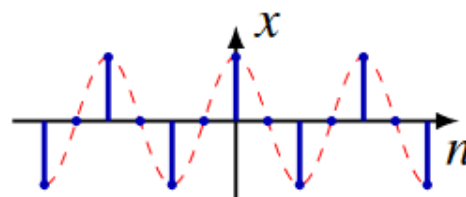
High frequencies around $(2k + 1)\pi$, low frequencies around $2k\pi$



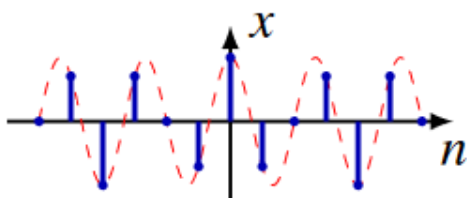
$$x[n] = \cos(0 \cdot n) = 1$$



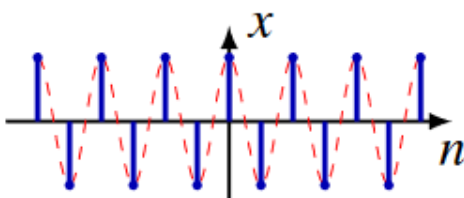
$$x[n] = \cos(\pi n/4)$$



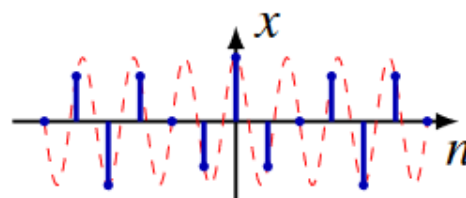
$$x[n] = \cos(\pi n/2)$$



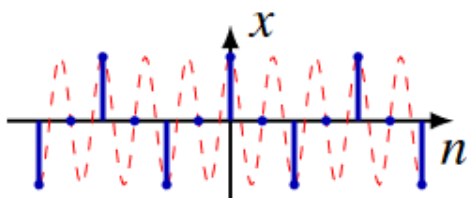
$$x[n] = \cos(3\pi n/4)$$



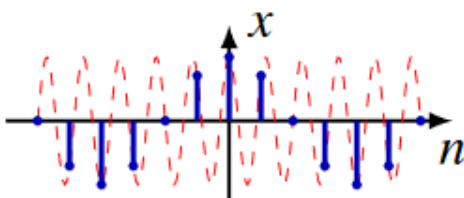
$$x[n] = \cos(\pi n)$$



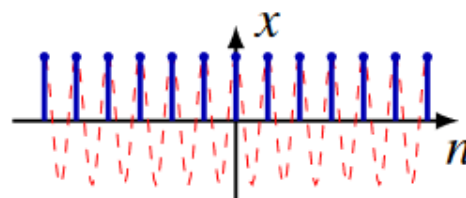
$$x[n] = \cos(5\pi n/4)$$



$$x[n] = \cos(3\pi n/2)$$



$$x[n] = \cos(7\pi n/4)$$



$$x[n] = \cos(2\pi n) = 1$$



Comparison on Periodic Properties of CT and DT Complex Exponentials and Sinusoids

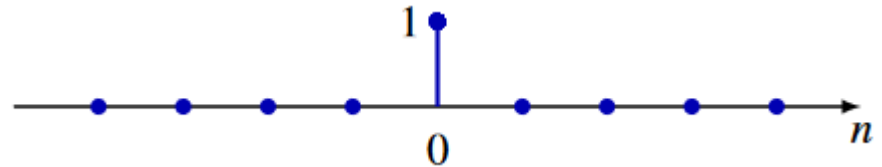
$x(t) = e^{j\omega_0 t}$	$x[n] = e^{j\omega_0 n}$
Distinct signals for distinct value of ω_0	Identical signals for values of ω_0 separated by multiples of 2π
Periodic for any choice of ω_0	Periodic only if $\omega_0 = 2\pi m/N$ for some integers $N > 0$ and m
Fundamental angular frequency ω_0	Fundamental angular frequency ω_0/n , if m and N do not have any factors in common
Fundamental period $2\pi/\omega_0$	Fundamental period $2\pi m/\omega_0$



DT Unit Impulse and Unit Step Sequences

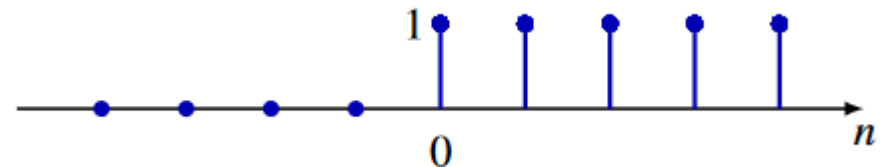
- **Unit Impulse Sequence**

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



- **Unit Step Sequence**

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



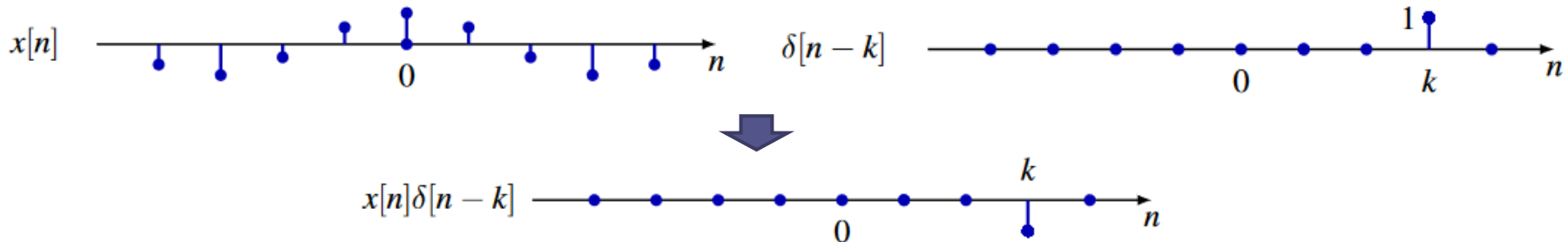


• Relationship

- $\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n - 1]$ first (backward) difference
- $u[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^n \delta[m] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n - k]$ running sum

• Sampling Property

- $x[n] \cdot \delta[n] = x[0] \cdot \delta[n]$
- $x[n] \cdot \delta[n - k] = x[k] \cdot \delta[n - k]$



• Signal representation by means of a series of delayed unit samples

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

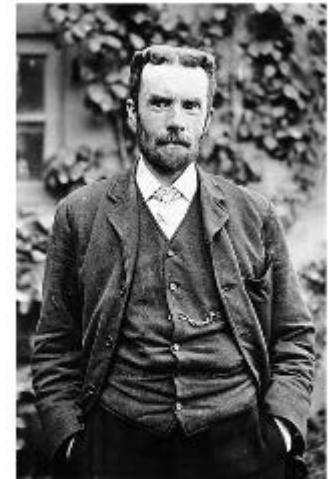
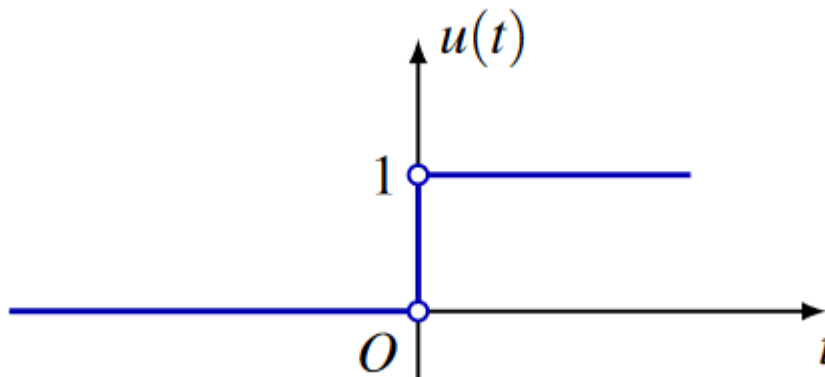


CT Unit Step Function

- **Also called Heaviside (step) function**

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

- undefined at $t = 0$
- sometimes $u(0) = 0, 1, \text{ or } 1/2$



Oliver Heaviside
(from Wikipedia)



- **Recall that for DT unit step/impulse signals**

- $\delta[n] = u[n] - u[n - 1]$ —1st difference
- $u[n] = \sum_{m=-\infty}^n \delta[m] = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \delta[n - k]$ —running sum

- **Does it exist in CT domain a $\delta(t)$ satisfying the following relationship?**

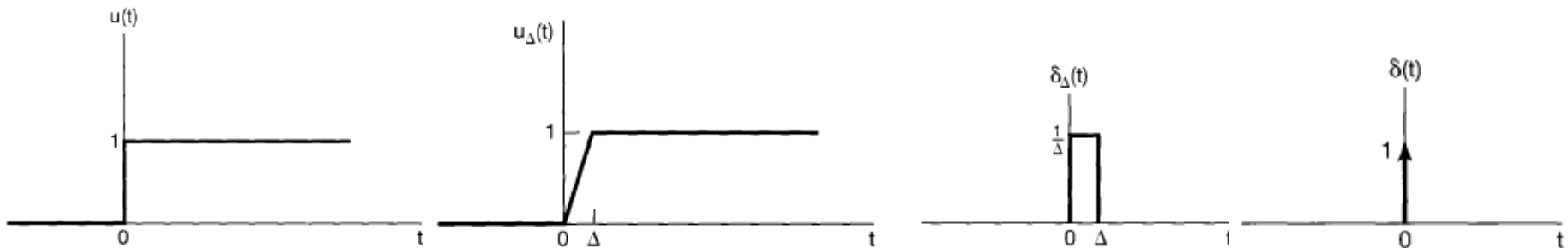
- $\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt}$ —1st derivative
- $u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(\tau) d\tau$ —running sum





CT Unit Impulse Function

- **Define** $u_{\Delta}(t)$
 - rises from 0 to 1 in a very short interval Δ
- **Then** $\delta_{\Delta}(t) = \frac{d(u_{\Delta}(t))}{dt}$, $\delta(t) = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \delta_{\Delta}(t)$

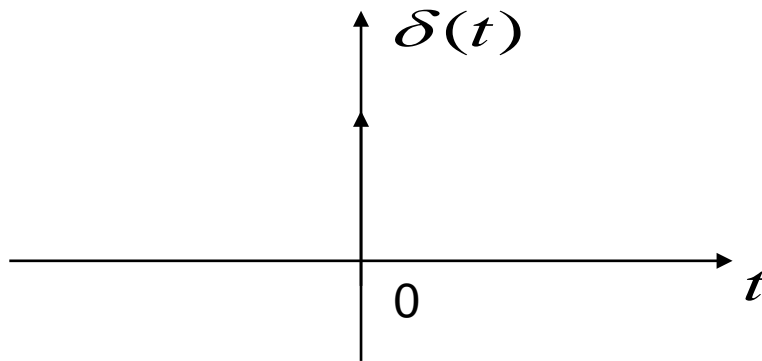


Notes: the amplitude of the signal $\delta(t)$ at $t = 0$ is infinite, but with a unit integral from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$, i.e., from 0^- to 0^+ .



- Also called **Dirac delta function**

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



- **Physical models**
 - density of point mass/charge
 - impulse force



Paul Dirac
(from Wikipedia)



- **Relationship**

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

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

- **Sampling Property**

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

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

- **Scaling Property**

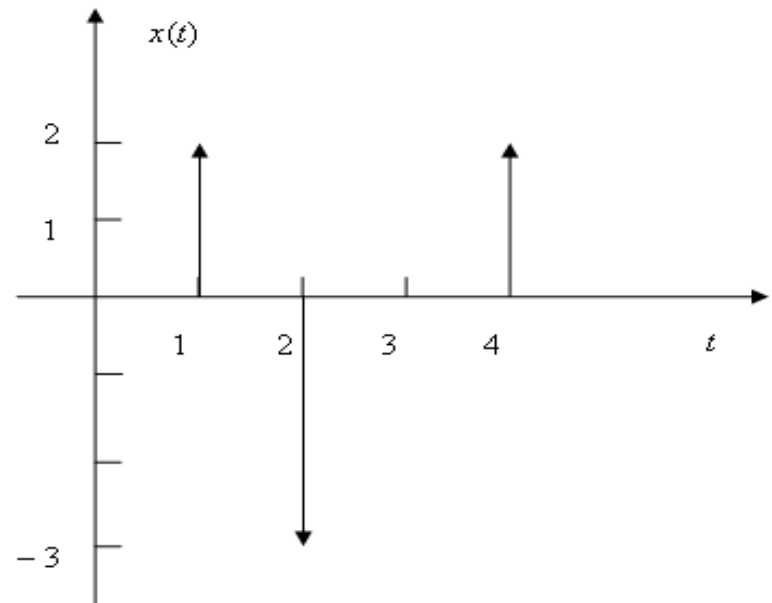
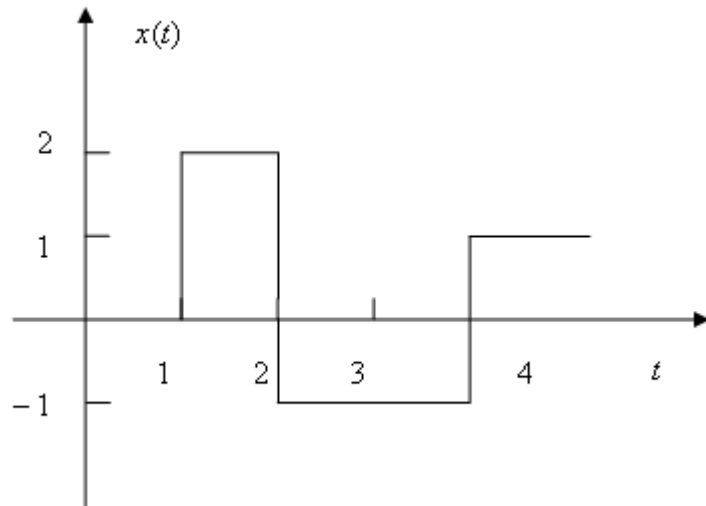
- $\frac{d(ku(t))}{dt} = k\delta(t)$

Question: can we represent $x(t)$ by using a series of unit samples as that for DT signal?



• Example:

- Derive the 1st derivative of the following $x(t)$
 - a) $x(t) = 2u(t - 1) - 3u(t - 2) + 2u(t - 4)$
 - b) $\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = 2\delta(t - 1) - 3\delta(t - 2) + 2\delta(t - 4)$





- **Example:**

- Calculate the following signals/values

- a) $(t^2 - 1)\delta(t - 2)$

- b) $\int_{-3}^3 (t^2 - 1)\delta(t - 2) dt$

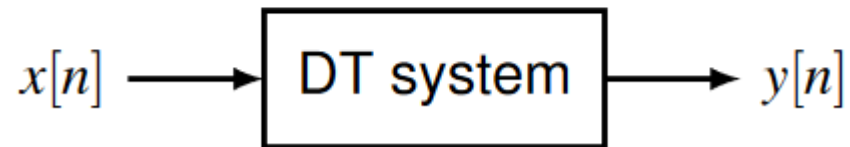
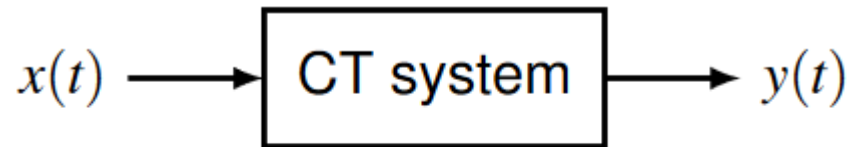
- c) $x[n - 3]\delta[n + 1]$

- d) $\int_{-3}^t (\tau^2 - 1)\delta(\tau - 2) d\tau$



Systems

- A system takes some input and produces some output



- **Example:** balance of your bank account
 - Input $x[n]$: net deposit on the n -th day
 - Output $y[n]$: balance at the end of the n -th day
 - Input-output relation:

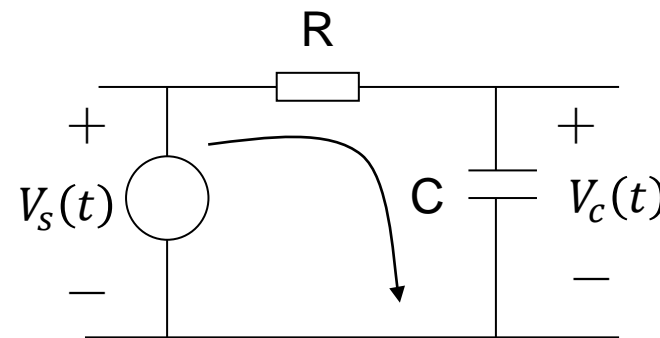
$$y[n] = (1 + r)y[n - 1] + x[n], \quad r \text{ interest rate}$$

System Modeling

- **RLC Circuit**

$$\therefore i(t) = \frac{V_S(t) - V_C(t)}{R} \quad i(t) = C \cdot \frac{dV_C(t)}{dt}$$

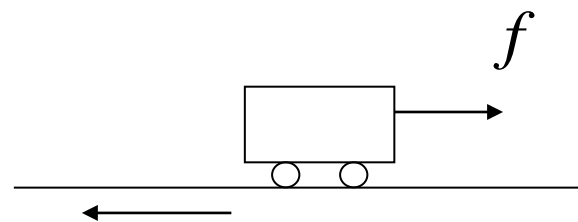
$$\therefore \frac{dV_C}{dt} + \frac{1}{RC} V_C(t) = \frac{1}{RC} V_S(t)$$



- **Mechanism System**

$$\therefore \frac{dv(t)}{dt} = \frac{1}{m} [f(t) - \rho v(t)]$$

$$\therefore \frac{dv(t)}{dt} + \frac{\rho}{m} v(t) = \frac{f(t)}{m}$$





System Modeling

- **Observations**

$$\frac{dy(t)}{dt} + ay(t) = bx(t)$$

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

- Constant coefficient differential/difference equations
- Very different physical systems may
 - be modeled mathematically in very similar ways
 - have very similar mathematical descriptions



Typical Systems

- **Amplifier**

$$y(t) = cx(t)$$

- **Adder**

$$y(t) = x_1(t) + x_2(t)$$

- **Multiplier**

$$y(t) = x_1(t) \cdot x_2(t)$$

- **Differentiator/Difference**

$$y(t) = dx(t)/dt, \quad y[n] = x[n] - x[n - 1]$$

- **Integrator/Accumulator**

.....



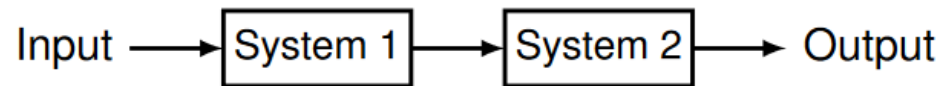
System Interconnections

- **Concept**

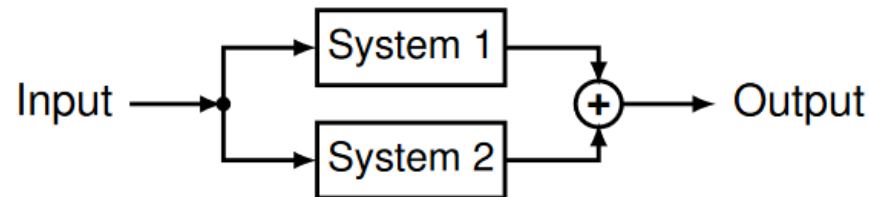
- Build a complex system from interconnected subsystems
- Scope of subsystem depends on level of abstraction

- **Basic Types of Interconnections**

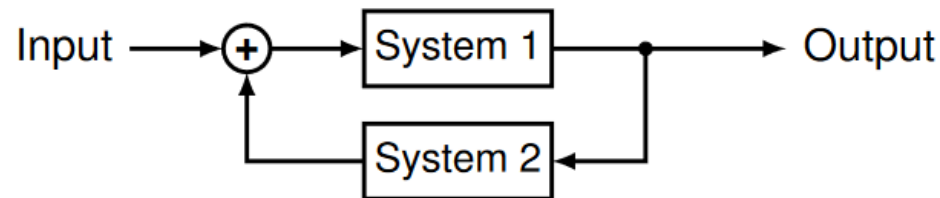
series
(cascade)



parallel



feedback





Memory

- **Systems with memory**

- if the current output of the system is dependent on future and/or past values of the inputs and/or outputs, e.g.,

- Capacitor system:

$$u(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t i(\tau) d\tau, \quad y(t) = \frac{1}{C} \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

- Accumulator system:

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

- **Memoryless systems:**

- if the current output of the system is dependent on the input at the same time, e.g.,

- Identity system:

$$y(t) = x(t), \quad y[n] = x[n]$$



- **Example:**

- Determine the memory property of the following systems:
 - a) amplifier, adder, multiplier;
 - b) integrator, accumulator;
 - c) differentiator;
 - d) time reversal, time scalar;
 - e) decimator, interpolator.



Invertibility

- **Inverse systems**

- distinct inputs lead to distinct outputs, e.g.,

$$y(t) = 2x(t) \rightarrow w(t) = \frac{1}{2}y(t)$$

- **Non-inverse systems**

- distinct inputs may lead to the same outputs, e.g.,

$$y(t) = x^2(t), \quad y[n] = 0$$

- **Importance of the concept**

- encoding for channel coding or lossless compress



Causality

- **A system is causal**
 - if output at **any** time t depends only on input values up to t
 - i.e., output does not anticipate future values of the input
- **Notes:**
 - **All real-time physical systems are causal**
 - because time only moves forward, effect occurs after cause
 - e.g., imagine if you own a non-causal system whose output depends on tomorrow's stock price.
 - **Causality does not apply to spatially varying signals**
 - one can move both left and right, up and down
 - **Causality does not apply to recorded signals**
 - e.g., taped sports games vs. live show.



Causality

- **For a causal system** $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$

$$x_1(t) \rightarrow y_1(t), \quad x_2(t) \rightarrow y_2(t)$$

if $x_1(t) = x_2(t), \quad \forall t \leq t_0$

then $y_1(t) = y_2(t), \quad \forall t \leq t_0$

- If two inputs to a causal system are identical up to some point in time t_0 , the corresponding outputs are also equal up to the same time t_0



- **Example:**

- Determine the causality of the following signals

- $y(t) = x^2(t - 1)$

- e.g., $y(5)$ depends on $x(4)$... **causal**

- $y(t) = x(t + 1)$

- e.g., $y(5) = x(6)$ depends on future ... **noncausal**

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

- e.g., $y(5) = x(-5)$, but $y[-5] = x[5]$ depends on future ... **noncausal**

- $y[n] = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1} x^3[n - 1]$

- e.g., $y(5)$ depends on $x(4)$... **causal**



Linearity

- **A system** $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$ **is linear**
 - if for any two input-output: $x_1(t) \rightarrow y_1(t)$, $x_2(t) \rightarrow y_2(t)$
 - the **additivity** and **scaling properties** hold
 - additivity: $x_1(t) + x_2(t) \rightarrow y_1(t) + y_2(t)$
 - scaling: $ax_1(t) \rightarrow ay_1(t)$
- or equivalently, the **superposition property** holds
 - superposition: $ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \rightarrow ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$
- **Example:**
 - $y[n] = x_2[n]$ nonlinear, causal
 - $y(t) = x(2t)$ linear, non-causal



Linearity

- **Many systems are nonlinear**
 - Examples: many circuit elements (e.g., diodes), dynamics of aircraft, econometric models, ...
- **But why we study linear systems?**
 - Linear models represent accurate representations of behavior of many systems
 - e.g., linear resistors, capacitors, other examples given previously
 - We can often linearize models to examine “small signal” perturbations around “operating points”
 - Linear systems are analytically tractable, providing basis for important tools and considerable insight



Time-invariance

- **A system is time-invariant**

- if its behavior does not depend on what time it is;
- i.e., time shift in input results in identical time shift in output

- **Mathematical definition**

- For a DT system: A system $x[n] \rightarrow y[n]$ is **time-invariant** if for any input $x[n]$ and any time shift n_0 ,

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

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

- Similarly for a CT **time-invariant** system,

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

then $x(t - t_0) \rightarrow y(t - t_0)$



- **Example:**

- Consider the time-invariance property of the following systems:

- $y[n] = nx[n]$ time-varying

- $y(t) = x_2(t + 1)$ time-invariant



- **Example:**

- For a time-invariant system $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$,
 - if input is periodic with T , $x(t) = x(t + T)$, then the output is also periodic with T , i.e.,

$$y(t) = y(t + T)$$

- **Example:**

- $y(t) = \cos(x(t))$ time-invariant

- **Example**

- amplitude modulator:
 - $y(t) = x(t)\cos\omega t$ time-varying



Stability

- **A System is bounded-input bounded-output (BIBO) stable**
 - if outputs are bounded for all bounded inputs
- **Example:**
 - When $|x(t)| \leq B$, determine whether or not the following systems are stable?
 - a) $y(t) = t \cdot x(t)$, unstable
 - b) $y(t) = e^{x(t)}$, stable



Linear Time-Invariant (LTI) Systems

- **Using superposition and time-invariant properties**
 - if response of an LTI system to some inputs (“basic signals”) is known, we then actually know the response to many inputs
 - if
$$x_k[n] \rightarrow y_k[n]$$
then
$$\sum_k a_k x_k[n] \rightarrow \sum_k a_k y_k[n]$$
- **Characteristics of “basic signals”**
 - can represent rich classes of signals as linear combinations of these building block signals
 - response of LTI Systems to these basic signals are both simple and insightful



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Q & A



Many Thanks