1.3 Continuous-Time Signals

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



1.3 Continuous-Time Signals

Some signals can be described *analytically*. For example

 $\mathbf{x}_{(t)}$ = \mathbf{x}

x(t) = 5sin(12t)

1.3 Continuous-Time Signals

Matlab code of x(t) = 5sin(12t):

```
clear
close all
% Script : matex_1_1a
%
% Construct a vector of time instants.
t = linspace(0,5,1000);
% Compute the signal at time instants in vector "t".
x1 = 5*sin(12*t);
```

```
hh = plot(t,x1);
set(hh,'LineWidth',3,'Color','r');
hh = xlabel('Time (sec)');
set(hh,'FontSize',26,'FontWeight','bold');
hh = ylabel('x_1(t)');
set(hh,'FontSize',26,'FontWeight','bold');
set(gca,'FontSize',26,'FontWeight','bold');
grid
```

Arithmetic Operations

Addition of a constant offset A to the signal x(t)



Arithmetic Operations

Multiplication of a constant gain **B** to the signal **x(t)**



Arithmetic Operations

Summation of two signals $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$



Arithmetic Operations

Multiplication of two signals $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$



Time shifting

A *time shifted* version of the signal *x(t)* can be obtained through



Time scaling

A *time scaling* version of the signal *x*(*t*) can be obtained through



Time reversal

A *time shifted* version of the signal *x*(*t*) can be obtained through

g(t)=x(-t)



Basic building blocks

 \diamond Unit-impulse function

 \diamond Unit-step function

 \diamond Unit-pulse function

♦ Unit-ramp function

 \diamond Unit-triangle function

♦ Sinusoidal signals

unit-impulse function

An arrow is used to indicate the **location** of that undefined amplitude.



unit-impulse function

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \quad t \neq 0 \\ undefined & if \quad t = 0 \end{cases}$$
(1.16)
and
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$
(1.17)

Note: Eqn. 1.16 by itself represents an incomplete definition of the function $\delta(t)$ since the amplitude of it is defined only when $t \neq 0$, and is undefined at the time instant t = 0. The Eqn. 1.17 fills this void.

unit-impulse function

Scaling and time shifting

1

$$a\delta(t-t_1) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \quad t \neq t_1 \\ undefined & if \quad t = t_1 \end{cases}$$

and

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

unit-impulse function

An arrow is used to indicate the **location** of that undefined amplitude. $\delta(t)$



unit-impulse function

Obtaining *unit-impulse* function from a *rectangular pulse*

Let
$$q(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{a}, & |t| < \frac{a}{2} \\ 0, & |t| > \frac{a}{2} \end{cases}$$



 $\delta(t) = \lim_{a \to 0} [q(t)]$

The impulse function has two fundamental properties that are useful

♦ Sampling property of the impulse function

 $f(t)\delta(t-t_1) = f(t_1)\delta(t-t_1)$

 \diamond *Sifting property* of the impulse function

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

Sampling property of the unit-impulse function

$$f(t)\delta(t-t_1) = f(t_1)\delta(t-t_1)$$



The function f(t) must be continuous at $t = t_1$

Sifting property of the unit-impulse function

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

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

The function f(t) must be **continuous** at $t = t_1$. Also, $\Delta t > 0$

unit-step function

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad t > 0 \\ 0 & if \quad t < 0 \end{cases}$$
(1.30)
$$u(t) = \begin{bmatrix} u(t) \\ 1 \\ 0 & if \quad t < 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(1.30)

Time shift of the unit-step function

$$u(t-t_{1}) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \quad t > t_{1} \\ 0 & if \quad t < t_{1} \end{cases}$$
(1.31)
$$u(t) \\ 1 \\ t_{1} \\$$

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

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



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

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



The **relationship** between *unit-step* and *unit-impulse* functions



unit-pulse function



Constructing a unit-pulse function from unit-step functions

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



Constructing a unit-pulse function from unit-impulse functions

$$\Pi(t) = u(t + \frac{1}{2}) - u(t - \frac{1}{2}) = \int_{-\infty}^{t+1/2} \delta(\lambda) d\lambda - \int_{-\infty}^{t-1/2} \delta(\lambda) d\lambda = \int_{t-1/2}^{t+1/2} \delta(\lambda) d\lambda$$
$$\int_{t-1/2}^{t+1/2} \delta(\lambda) d\lambda = \begin{cases} 1, t - \frac{1}{2} < 0, and, t + \frac{1}{2} > 0\\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} 1, -\frac{1}{2} < t < \frac{1}{2}\\ 0, otherwise \end{cases}$$

Constructing a unit-pulse function from unit-impulse functions



unit-ramp function



Constructing a unit-ramp function from a unit-step

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





unit-triangle function

$$\Lambda(t) = \begin{cases} t+1, & -1 \le t < 0 \\ -t+1, & 0 \le t < 1 \\ 0, & otherwise \end{cases}$$



Constructing a unit-triangle using unit-ramp functions

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



Sinusoidal function

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

Where **A** is the *amplitude* of the signal, and ω_0 is the *radian frequency* which has the unit of *radians per second*, abbreviated as *rad/s*. The parameter θ is the *initial phase angle* in *radians*. The radian frequency can be expressed as $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0$ where f_0 is the frequency in Hz.



The **A** controls the **peak value** of the signal, and the θ affects the **peaks locations**

1.3.3 Impulse decomposition for continuous-time signals

rough approximation to the signal x(t)

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



Take the limit as $\Delta \to 0$ $x(t) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} [\hat{x}(t)]$ = $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\lambda) \delta(t - \lambda) d\lambda$

Real vs. complex signals

> A real signal is one in which the amplitude is *real-value* at all time instants.

or

x(t) = u where *u* is the voltage

> A complex signal is one in which the amplitude may also have an *imaginary* part.

 $x(t) = x_r(t) + x_i(t)$ Cartesian form $x(t) = |x(t)|e^{j \angle x(t)}$ Polar form

 $|x(t)| = \left[x_r^2(t) + x_i^2(t)\right]^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \angle x(t) = \tan^{-1} \left[\frac{x_i(t)}{x_r(t)}\right]$ $x_r(t) = |x(t)| \cos[\angle x(t)] \quad \text{and} \quad x_i(t) = |x(t)| \sin[\angle x(t)]$

Periodic vs. non-periodic signals

A signal is said to be *periodic* if it satisfies

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

For all time instants t, and for a specific value of $T_0 \neq 0$. The T_0 is referred as the *period* of the signal



If a signal is periodic with period T_0 , then it is also periodic with periods of $2T_0$, $3T_0$, ..., kT_0 , ..., where k is any integer

Example 1.4: Working with a complex periodic signal



Example 1.6. Discuss the periodicity of the signals

 $x(t) = \sin(2\pi 1.5t) + \sin(2\pi 2.5t)$

For this signal, the *fundamental* frequency is $f_0 = 0.5$ Hz. The two signal frequencies can be expressed as

$$f_1 = 1.5$$
Hz = $3f_0$ and $f_2 = 2.5$ Hz = $5f_0$

The resulting fundamental period is $T_0 = 1/f_0 = 2$ seconds. Within one period of x(t) there are $m_1 = 3$ full cycles of the first sinusoid and $m_2 = 5$ cycles of the second sinusoid. This is illustrated in following figure



Example 1.6. Discuss the periodicity of the signals

 $y(t) = \sin(2\pi 1.5t) + \sin(2\pi 2.75t)$

For this signal, the *fundamental* frequency is $f_0 = 0.25$ Hz. The two signal frequencies can be expressed as

$$f_1 = 1.5$$
Hz = $6f_0$ and $f_2 = 2.75$ Hz = $11f_0$

The resulting fundamental period is $T_0 = 1/f_0 = 4$ seconds. Within one period of x(t) there are $m_1 = 6$ full cycles of the first sinusoid and $m_2 = 11$ cycles of the second sinusoid. This is illustrated in following figure



Energy of a signal

With physical signals and systems, the concept of *energy* is associated with a signal that is applied to a load.



If we wanted to use the voltage v(t) as our basis in energy calculations:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v(t)i(t)dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{v^2(t)}{R}dt$$

Alternatively, we wanted to use the current i(t) as our basis in energy calculations:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} v(t)i(t)dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Ri^{2}(t)dt$$

1.3.5 Energy and Power Definitions Normalized energy of a signal

The *normalized energy* of a *real-valued* signal *x(t)*:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$$

If the integral can be computed

The *normalized energy* of a *complex* signal *x(t)*:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

If the integral can be computed

Time averaging operator

We use the operator < > to indicate time average.

♦ If the signal x(t) is *periodic* with period T_0 , its time average can be computed as.

$$\langle x(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x(t) dt$$

 \diamond If the signal *x(t)* is *non-periodic*, its **time average** can be computed as.

$$\langle x(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \to \infty} \left[\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) dt \right]$$

1.3.5 Energy and Power Definitions Time averaging operator

 \Rightarrow The *normalized average power* for a *periodic signal* with period T_o

$$P_x = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x^2(t) dt$$

♦ The normalized average power for a non-periodic signal

$$P_x = \lim_{T \to \infty} \left[\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt \right]$$

Example 1.8. Time average of a pulse train

Compute the time average of a periodic pulse train with an amplitude of A and a period of $T_0 = 1$ s, defined by the equations

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} A, & 0 < t < d \\ 0, & d < t < 1 \end{cases}$$

and $x(t+kT_0) = x(t+k) = x(t)$ for all t, and all integers k, the signal x(t) is shown as below



Example 1.8. Time average of a pulse train

Solution:

The time average of x(t) can be calculated as

$$\langle x(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x(t) dt$$

where $T_0 = 1$

$$\left\langle x(t)\right\rangle = \int_0^1 x(t)dt = \int_0^d (A)dt + \int_d^1 (0)dt = Ad$$

Power of a signal

The *instantaneous power* dissipated in the load resistor would be.

$$p_{inst}(t) = v(t)i(t)$$

If the load is chose to have a value of $R = 1\Omega$, the *normalized instantaneous power* can be

$$p_{norm}(t) = x^2(t)$$



Energy Signals vs. Power signals

Energy signals are those that have finite energy and zero power

$$E_x < \infty$$
 and $P_x = 0$

Power signals are those that have finite power and infinite energy

$$E_x \to \infty$$
 and $P_x < \infty$

RMS value of a signal

The root-mean-square (RMS) value of a signal *x(t)* is defined as

$$X_{RMS} = \left[\left\langle x^2(t) \right\rangle \right]^{1/2}$$

Example 1.11. RMS value of a sinusoidal signal

Determine the RMS value of the signal

 $x(t) = A\sin(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$

Solution:

Recall example 1.9, the normalized average power of x(t) is

$$P_x = \frac{A^2}{2}$$

The RMS value of this signal is

$$X_{RMS} = \sqrt{P_x} = \frac{A}{\sqrt{2}}$$

♦ Some signals *have* certain symmetry properties that could be utilized in a variety of ways in the analysis.

More importantly, a signal that may *not have* any symmetry properties can still be written as a linear combination of signals with certain symmetry properties

even and odd symmetry

♦ A real-value signal is said to have even symmetry if it has the property x(t)



♦ A real-value signal is said to have odd symmetry if it has the property



Decomposition into even and odd components

$$x(t) = x_e(t) + x_o(t)$$

\diamond Even component

$$x_{e}(t) = \frac{x(t) + x(-t)}{2} \qquad \qquad x_{e}(-t) = x_{e}(t)$$

 \diamond odd component

$$x_{o}(t) = \frac{x(t) - x(-t)}{2} \qquad \qquad x_{o}(-t) = -x_{o}(t)$$

Example 1.13. Even and odd component of a rectangular pulse

Determine the odd and even components of the rectangular pulse signal

Example 1.13. Even and odd component of a sinusoidal signal

Determine the odd and even components of the rectangular pulse signal



Example 1.13. Even and odd component of a sinusoidal signal

Determine the odd and even components of the rectangular pulse signal

$$x(t) = 5\cos(10t + \pi/3)$$

Solution:
$$x_o(t) = -4.3301\sin(10t)$$

Symmetry properties for *complex* signals

♦ A complex-value signal is said to have conjugate symmetry if it satisfies

$$x(-t) = x^*(t) \qquad \text{for all } t.$$

A complex-value signal is said to have conjugate antisymmetry if it satisfies

 $x(-t) = -x^*(t)$ for all t.

$$x(t) = x_E(t) + x_O(t)$$

Conjugate symmetric component

Conjugate antisymmetric component

$$x_{o}(t) = \frac{x(t) - x^{*}(-t)}{2}$$

$$x_{E}(t) = \frac{x(t) + x^{*}(-t)}{2}$$

Example 1.15. Symmetry of a complex exponential signal

Consider the complex exponential signal

$$x(t) = Ae^{j\omega t}$$
 A: real

What symmetry property does this signal have, if any? Solution:

Time reverse the signal: $x(-t) = Ae^{-j\omega t}$

Conjugate the signal: $x^{*}(t) = (Ae^{j\omega t})^{*} = Ae^{-j\omega t}$

Since $x(-t) = x^{*}(t)$, the signal is conjugate symmetric

1.3.7 Graphical representation of sinusoidal signals using phasor

$$x(t) = A\cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$$

Let the phasor X be defined as

$$X \triangleq A e^{j\theta}$$

so that

$$x(t) = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ A e^{j(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)} \right\}$$
$$= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ X e^{j2\pi f_0 t} \right\}$$

