Lecture 2

Signals in Time Domain

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Examples of signals

 Electrocardiogram (ECG) signal

 Magnetic Resonance Image (MRI) data as 2-dimensional signal





• FTSE 100 index in a day as signal (time series)



Signals Classification (1)

- Signals may be classified into:
 - 1. Continuous-time and discrete-time signals
 - 2. Analogue and digital signals
 - 3. Periodic and aperiodic signals
 - 4. Energy and power signals
 - 5. Deterministic and probabilistic signals
 - 6. Causal and non-causal
 - 7. Even and Odd signals

Signal Classification (2) – Continuous vs Discrete



Signal Classification (3) – Analogue vs Digital



Signal Classification (4) – Periodic vs Aperiodic

• A signal x(t) is said to be periodic if for some positive constant T_o

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

The smallest value of T_o that satisfies the periodicity condition of this equation is the *fundamental period* of x(t).



Signal Classification (5) – Deterministic vs Random



Signal Classification (6) – Causal/Non-causal, Even/Odd





Size of a Signal x(t) as energy



• Measured by signal energy E_x :

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

• Generalize for a complex valued signal to:

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

• Energy must be finite, which means

signal amplitude
$$\rightarrow 0$$
 as $|t| \rightarrow \infty$

Size of a Signal *x(t)* as power

• If amplitude of x(t) does not $\rightarrow 0$ when $t \rightarrow \infty$, need to measure power Px instead:

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

• Again, generalize for a complex valued signal to:

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







Useful Signal Operations – Time Shifting (1)



Useful Signal Operations – Time Scaling (2)



Useful Signal Operations – Time Reversal (3)

Signal may be reflected about the vertical axis (i.e. time reversed):

 $\phi(t) = x(-t)$

- We can combine these three operations.
- For example, the signal x(2t 6) can be obtained in two ways:
 - Delay x(t) by 6 to obtain x(t 6), and then time-compress this signal by factor 2 (replace t with 2t) to obtain x (2t - 6).
 - Alternately, time-compress x (t) by factor 2 to obtain x (2t), then delay this signal by 3 (replace t with t - 3) to obtain x (2t - 6).



Signal Models (1) – Unit Step Function u(t)

• Step function defined by:

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

- Useful to describe a signal that begins at t = 0 (i.e. causal signal).
- For example, the signal e^{-at} represents an everlasting exponential that starts at t = -∞.
- The causal for of this exponential can be described as:

 $e^{-at}u(t)$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0 & t - \bullet \\ 1 \\ e^{-at}u(t) \\ 0 & t - \bullet \\ \end{vmatrix}$$

u(t)

Signal Models (2) – Pulse signal

A pulse signal can be presented by two step functions:

x(t) = u(t - 2) - u(t - 4)



Signal Models (3) – Unit Impulse Function $\delta(t)$

• First defined by Dirac as:

$$\delta(t) = 0 \qquad t \neq 0$$
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) \, dt = 1$$



Multiplying a function $\Phi(t)$ by an Impulse

• Since impulse is non-zero only at t = 0, and $\Phi(t)$ at t = 0 is $\Phi(0)$, we get:

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

• We can generalise this for t = T:

$$\phi(t)\delta(t-T) = \phi(T)\delta(t-T)$$

Sampling Property of Unit Impulse Function

- Since we have: $\phi(t)\delta(t) = \phi(0)\delta(t)$
- It follows that: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t)\delta(t)dt = \phi(0)\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\delta(t)dt$ $= \phi(0)$
- This is the same as "sampling" $\phi(t)$ at t = 0.
- If we want to sample $\phi(t)$ at t = T, we just multiple $\phi(t)$ with $\delta(t T)$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t) \delta(t-T) dt = \phi(T)$$

• This is called the "**sampling property**" of the unit impulse.

The Exponential Function est (1)

 This exponential function is very important in signals & systems, and the parameter s is a complex variable given by:

$$s = \sigma + j\omega$$

• Therefore

$$e^{st} = e^{(\sigma+j\omega)t} = e^{\sigma t}e^{j\omega t} = e^{\sigma t}(\cos\omega t + j\sin\omega t)$$
 [eq 1]

• Since $s^* = \sigma - j\omega$ (the conjugate of s), then

$$e^{s^*t} = e^{(\sigma - j\omega)t} = e^{\sigma t}e^{-j\omega t} = e^{\sigma t}(\cos\omega t - j\sin\omega t)$$
 [eq 2]

• Eq 1 + Eq 2 gives:

$$e^{\sigma t} cos \omega t = \frac{1}{2} (e^{st} + e^{s^*t})$$

The Exponential Function est (2)

- If σ = 0, then we have the function e^{jωt}, which has a real frequency of ω
- Therefore the complex variable s = σ + jω is the complex frequency
- The function est can be used to describe a very large class of signals and functions. Here are a number of example:

1. A constant
$$k = ke^{0t}$$
 ($s = 0$)

2. A monotonic exponential
$$e^{\sigma t}$$
 ($\omega = 0, s = \sigma$)

- 3. A sinusoid cos ωt ($\sigma = 0, s = \pm j\omega$)
- 4. An exponentially varying sinusoid $e^{\sigma t} \cos \omega t$ $(s = \sigma \pm j\omega)$

The Exponential Function est (2)



The Complex Frequency Plane $s = \sigma + j\omega$



Three Big Ideas (1)

1. The size of a time-limited signal is measured by it energy:

$$E_x = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} x^2(t) dt \qquad \qquad E_x = \sum_{n=1}^N x^2[n]$$

2. Delaying a signal x(t) by time T can be written as:

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

Three Big Ideas (2)

3. Unit impulse or delta function $\delta(t)$ can be use to model taking a sample from a signal. To take one sample of x(t) at time T is modelled as

$$x_T(t) = x(t) \times \delta(t - T)$$

