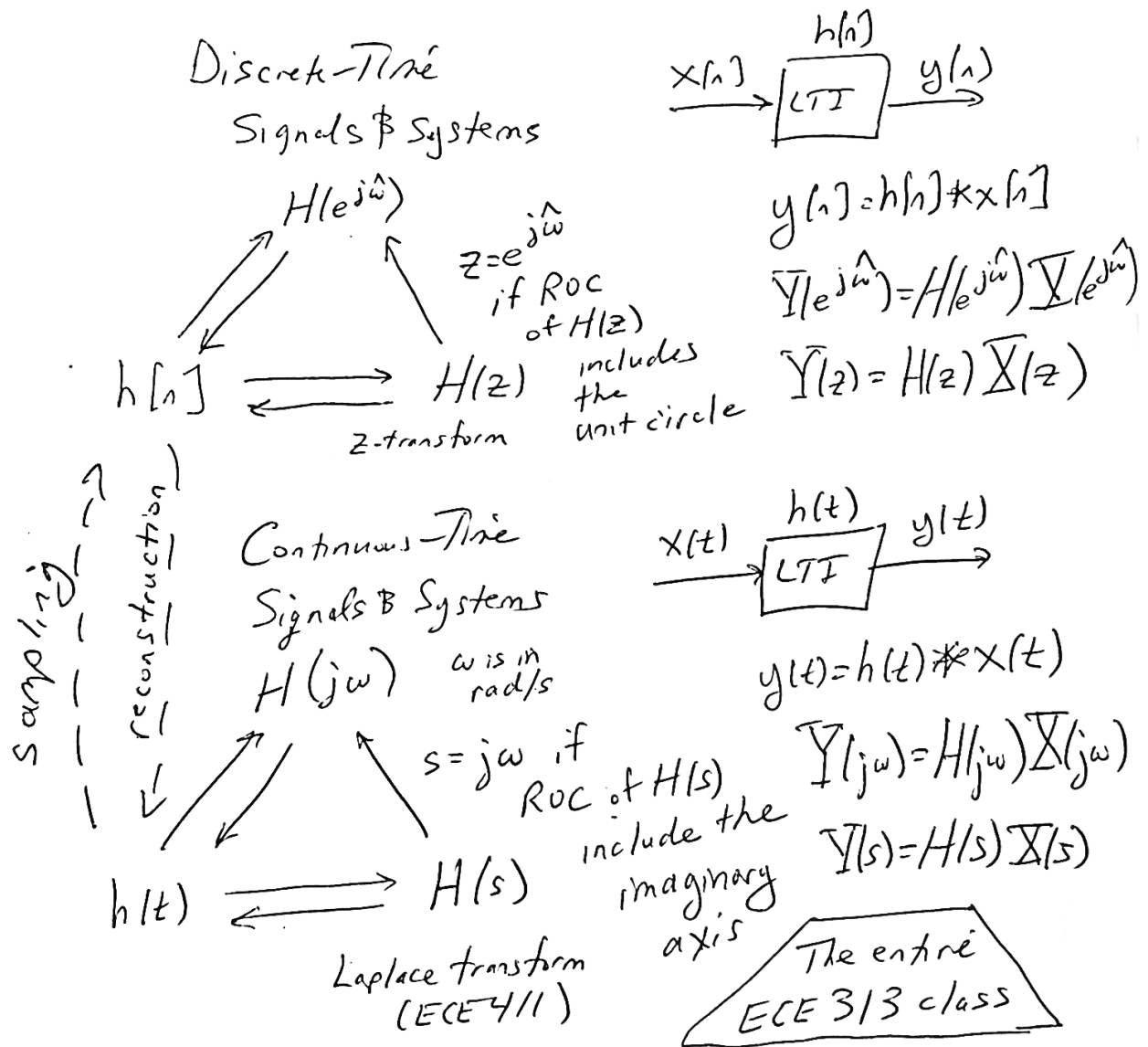


[11:00-] ECE 313 course content summarized in one page



[11:10] Discrete, continuous Fourier transform, z transform, Laplace transform

Discrete-Time
Signal $x[n]$

$$X(e^{j\hat{\omega}}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] e^{-j\hat{\omega}n}$$

Fourier Transform

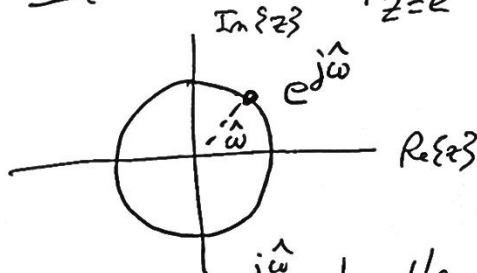
$$X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] z^{-n}$$

z-transform

$$X(e^{j\hat{\omega}}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n] (e^{j\hat{\omega}})^{-n}$$

When it's valid to do so,

$$X(e^{j\hat{\omega}}) = X(z) \Big|_{z=e^{j\hat{\omega}}}$$



Substitute $z=e^{j\hat{\omega}}$ when the region of convergence of the z-transform includes the unit circle.

Continuous-Time
Signal $x(t)$

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

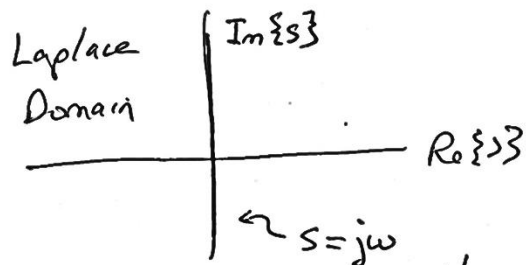
Fourier Transform

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

Laplace Transform
 s is a complex variable.

When it's valid to do so,

$$X(j\omega) = X(s) \Big|_{s=j\omega}$$



Substitute $s=j\omega$ when the region of convergence of the Laplace transform includes the imaginary axis.

Discrete-time	Continuous-time
<u>Fourier transform</u> $X(e^{j\hat{\omega}}) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]e^{-j\hat{\omega}n}$	<u>Fourier transform</u> $X(j\omega) = \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j\omega t} dt$
<u>Z transform</u> $X(z) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]z^{-n}$	<u>Laplace transform</u> $X(s) = \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-st} dt$
When it's valid to do so, $X(e^{j\hat{\omega}}) = X(z) _{z=e^{j\hat{\omega}}}$	When it's valid to do so, $X(j\omega) = X(s) _{s=j\omega}$

[11:20] Differences between continuous and discrete time

- Time variable: integer valued (discrete-time) or real-valued (continuous-time)
- Origin is included is included in discrete time
- Discrete-time frequency is 2π periodic

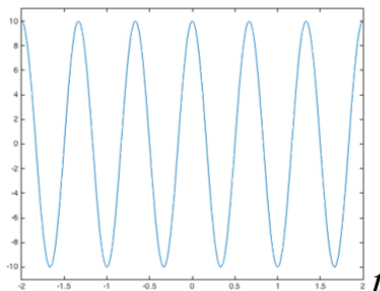
[11:25] Many ways to describe signals

- Function e.g. $x(t) = A \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi)$
- Sequence of numbers, e.g. $\{1,2,3,2,1\}$
- Set of properties, e.g. even symmetric, causal
- Piecewise representation
- Generalized function, .e.g Dirac delta $\delta(t)$

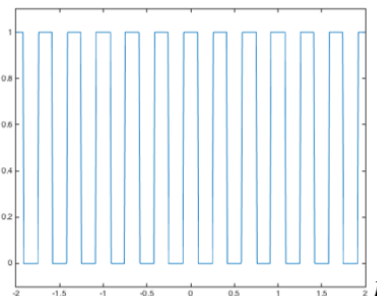
[11:30] Two-sided, one-sided, and finite length signals

Two-sided signals extend infinitely in positive and negative directions of time axis

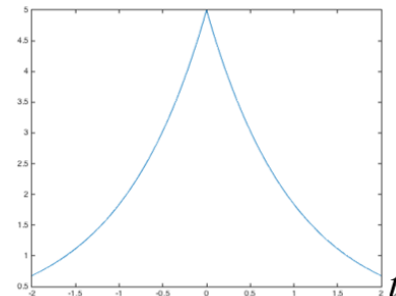
$$x_1(t) = 10 \cos(2\pi(1.5)t)$$



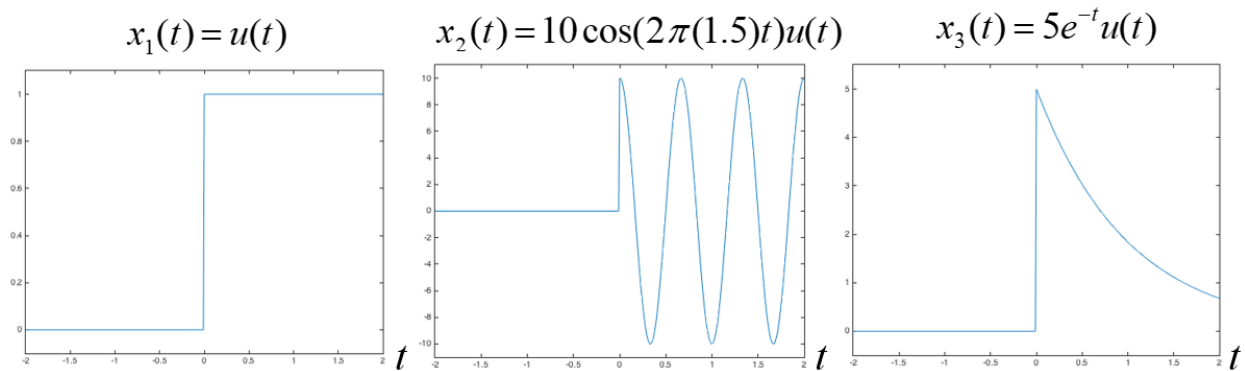
$$\text{Square wave } f_0 = 3 \text{ Hz}$$



$$x_3(t) = 5e^{-|t|}$$



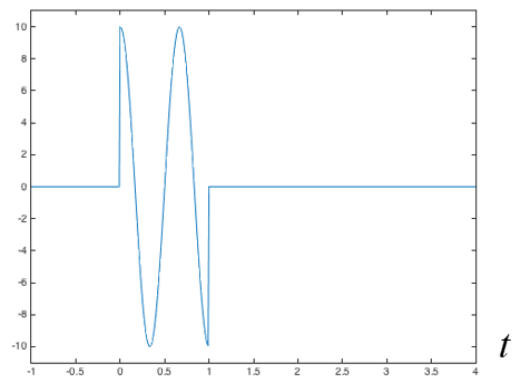
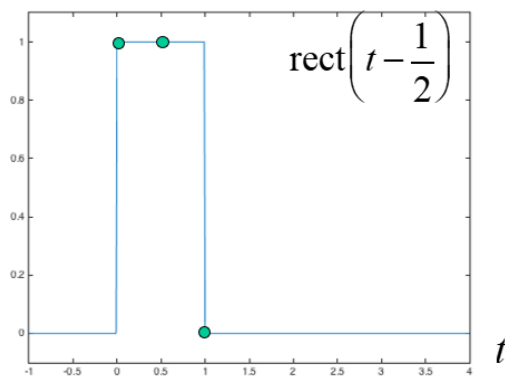
One-sided signals only extend in one direction of the time axis. Causal signals are equal to zero for $t < 0$.



Finite length signals are equal to zero outside some time interval $t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$

$$\text{rect}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -\frac{1}{2} \leq t < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$x_2(t) = 10 \cos(2\pi(1.5)t) \text{rect}\left(t - \frac{1}{2}\right)$$



[11:35] Unit impulse (Dirac Delta)

The Dirac Delta δ is an idealism for an instantaneous event. It is defined by two properties:

Unit area	Sifting property
$\int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$	$\int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) \delta(t) dt = g(0)$

The Dirac delta can also be expressed as a limit. Consider a rectangular pulse $P_\epsilon(t)$ with width 2ϵ and unit area:

$$P_\epsilon(t) = \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2\epsilon}\right) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\epsilon} & \epsilon \leq t < \epsilon \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

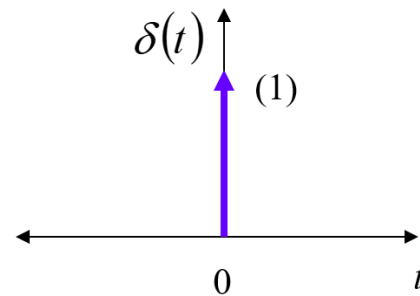
The Dirac Delta can be defined as the limit as the width of the pulse goes to zero, while keeping the area constant:

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} P_\epsilon(t)$$

$$\text{Area} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\epsilon}{2\epsilon} = 1$$

In practice, we can emulate the Dirac Delta using a finite width ϵ (e.g. if system operates on a time scale of seconds, use $\epsilon < 10^{-6}$ seconds) .

By convention, plot the dirac delta as a vertical area and denote its area using parentheses.



The direction of the arrow indicates the sign ($\delta(t)$ vs $-\delta(t)$)

[12:00] Properties of unit impulse

Generalized sifting, assuming $a > 0$

$$\int_{t=-a}^a \delta(t-T)dt = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -a < T < a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

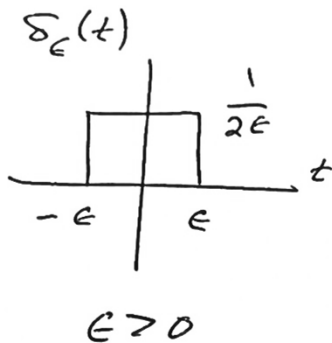
Consider the effect of integrating the product of a function $\phi(t)$ with $\delta(t)$:

$$\int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t)\delta(t-T)dt = \int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(t+T)\delta(t)dt = \phi(T) \quad (\text{sifting property})$$

$$\int_{t=-\infty}^{\infty} x(\lambda)\delta(t-\lambda)dt = x(t) \quad (\text{convolution with } \delta(t))$$

Slide 12-7 Dirac Delta 11/18/25

$$\text{rect}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -\frac{1}{2} \leq t < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$\delta_\epsilon(t) = \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2\epsilon}\right)$$

$$\text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2\epsilon}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{t}{2\epsilon} < \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

multiply by 2ϵ

$$\delta(t) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \delta_\epsilon(t) \quad \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{2\epsilon}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -\epsilon \leq t < \epsilon \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Area} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\epsilon}{2\epsilon} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

use L'Hôpital's Rule

[12:10] Continuous-time systems

Systems operate on signals to produce new signals or new signal representations.

$$x(t) \rightarrow T\{\bullet\} \rightarrow y(t)$$

$$y(t) = T\{x(t)\}$$

Additivity, homogeneity, and time-invariance definitions are the same as discrete-time:

Additivity Let $x_1(t)$ and $x_2(t)$ be arbitrary input signals to a system $\mathcal{S}$. The system satisfies additivity if $\mathcal{S}\{x_1(t) + x_2(t)\} = \mathcal{S}\{x_1(t)\} + \mathcal{S}\{x_2(t)\}$	Homogeneity Let $x(t)$ be an arbitrary input to a system $\mathcal{S}$. The system satisfies homogeneity if, for any constant a, $\mathcal{S}\{ax(t)\} = a\mathcal{S}\{x(t)\}$
Time-invariance Let $x(t)$ be an arbitrary input to a system $\mathcal{S}$ and let $y(t) = \mathcal{S}\{x(t)\}$ be the corresponding output. The system $\mathcal{S}$ is time-invariant if, for any time shift τ, $\mathcal{S}\{x(t - \tau)\} = y(t - \tau)$	Linear time-invariant (LTI) A system is linear time-invariant (LTI) if it satisfies the additivity, homogeneity, and time-invariance properties. A common way for a system to fail to violate these properties is if the system has nonzero initial conditions.

[12:15] Initial conditions

Observe signals and systems starting at time $t = 0$.

Example: observe integrator for $t \geq 0$

$$y(t) = \int_{u=-\infty}^t x(u) du = \underbrace{\int_{u=-\infty}^0 x(u) du}_{\text{initial condition, } C_0} + \int_{u=0}^t x(u) du$$

For $t \geq 0$, input signal $x(t)$ gives output

$$y(t) = C_0 + \int_0^t x(u) du$$

For linearity, the initial condition C_0 must be zero. We can see this from the all-zero input test – when $x(t) = 0$ for $t \geq 0$, the only way that $y(t) = 0$ for $t \geq 0$ is if $C_0 = 0$.

Homogeneous? Let the input be $a x(t)$ and the output be

$$y_{scaled}(t) = C_0 + \int_0^t (a x(u)) du = C_0 + a \int_0^t x(u) du$$

When does $y_{scaled}(t) = a y(t)$ for all possible constants a ? When $C_0 = a C_0$ or $C_0 = 0$.