


Signals and Systems

Spring 2003

Lecture #1
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(Slides thanks to A. Willsky, T. Weiss,
Q. Hu, and D. Boning)

- 1) Administrative details
- 2) Signals



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Signals and Systems

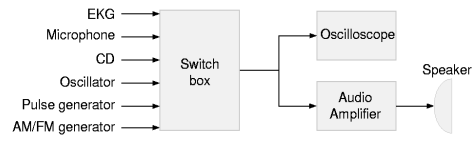
6.003 is about using mathematical techniques to help analyze and synthesis systems which process signals.

- Signals are variables that carry information
- Systems process input signals to produce output signals.

Today: Signals, Next Time: Systems.

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Different Types of Signals

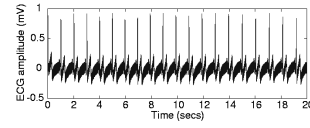


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Signal Classification

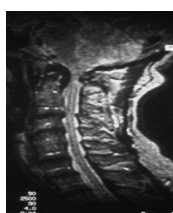
Type of Independent Variable

Time is often the independent variable. Example: the electrical activity of the heart recorded with chest electrodes — the electrocardiogram (ECG or EKG).



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The term *time* is often used generically, to represent the independent variable of a signal. the independent variable may be a spatial variable such as in an image. Here grayscale information is specified as a function of position.

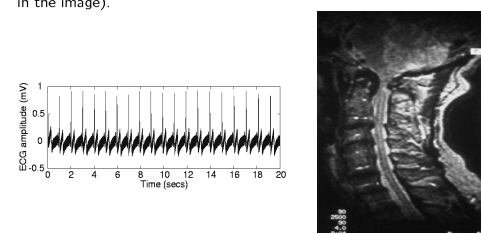


Cervical MRI

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Independent Variable Dimensionality

An independent variable can be 1-D (t in the EKG) or 2-D (x, y in the image).

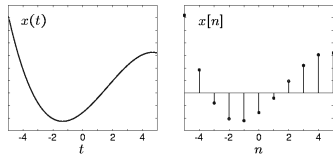


6.003 examples are mostly 1-D, but many applications use multiple dimensions (radar, MRIs, numerical simulation).

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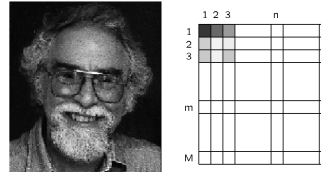
Continuous Time (CT) and Discrete-Time (DT) Signals

CT signals take on real or complex values as a function of an independent variable that ranges over the real numbers and are denoted as $x(t)$. DT signals take on real or complex values as a function of an independent variable that ranges over the integers and are denoted as $x[n]$. Note the use of parentheses for CT signals and square brackets for DT signals.



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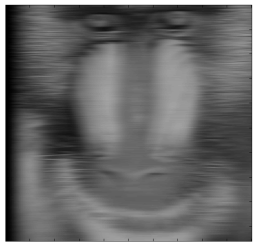
An image example on the left, its DT representation on the right



The image on the left consists of 302×435 picture elements (pixels) each of which is represented by a triplet of numbers $\{R,G,B\}$ that encode the color. Thus, the signal is represented by $c[n,m]$ where m and n are the independent variables that specify pixel location and c is a color vector specified by a triplet of hues $\{R,G,B\}$ (red, green, and blue).

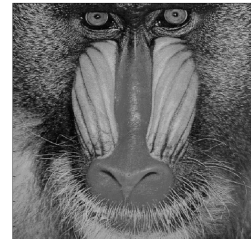
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Mandril Example Blurred Image



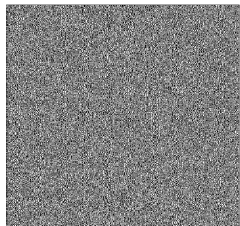
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Mandril Example Unblurred Image – No Noise



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Mandril Example Unblurred Image – 0.1% Noise



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Real and Complex Signals

An important class of signals are:

- CT signals of the form $x(t) = e^{st}$
- DT signals of the form $x[n] = z^n$

where z and s are complex numbers. For both exponential CT and DT signals, x is a complex quantity and has:

- a real and imaginary part, or
- a magnitude and an angle.

What is most convenient depends on the analysis.

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For example, suppose $s = j\pi/8$ and $z = e^{j\pi/8}$, then the real parts are

$$\Re\{x(t)\} = \Re\{e^{j\pi t/8}\} = \cos(\pi t/8),$$

$$\Re\{x[n]\} = \Re\{e^{j\pi n/8}\} = \cos[\pi n/8].$$

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Periodic and A-periodic Signals

Periodic signals are such that $x(t+T) = x(t)$ for all t . The smallest value of T that satisfies the definition is called the *period*. Below on the left below is an aperiodic signal, with a periodic signal shown on the right.

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Right- and Left-Sided Signals

A right-sided signal is zero for $t < T$ and a left-sided signal is zero for $t > T$ where T can be positive or negative.

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Bounded and Unbounded Signals

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Even and Odd Signals

Even signals $x_e(t)$ and odd signals $x_o(t)$ are defined as

$$x_e(t) = x_e(-t) \text{ and } x_o(t) = -x_o(-t).$$

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Any signal is a sum of unique odd and even signals. Using

$$x(t) = x_e(t) + x_o(t) \text{ and } x(-t) = x_e(t) - x_o(t),$$

yields

$$x_e(t) = \frac{1}{2}(x(t) + x(-t)) \text{ and } x_o(t) = \frac{1}{2}(x(t) - x(-t)).$$

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Building Block Signals

Eternal Complex Exponentials

- $x(t) = Xe^{st}$ for all t
- $x[n] = Xz^n$ for all n ,

where X , s , and z are complex numbers. We illustrate the richness of this class of functions for CT signals; DT signals are similarly rich. In general s is complex and can be written as

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

where σ and ω are the real and imaginary parts of s .

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Eternal, complex exponentials — real s
If $s = \sigma$ is real and X is real then

$$x(t) = Xe^{\sigma t},$$

and we get the family of real exponential functions.

Eternal, complex exponentials — imaginary s
If $s = j\omega$ is imaginary and X is real then

$$x(t) = Xe^{j\omega t} = X(\cos\omega t + j\sin\omega t),$$

and we get the family of sinusoidal functions.

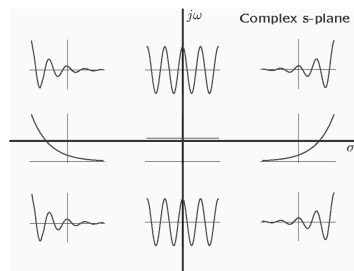
Eternal, complex exponentials — complex s
If $s = \sigma + j\omega$ is complex and X is real then

$$x(t) = Xe^{(\sigma+j\omega)t} = Xe^{\sigma t}(\cos\omega t + j\sin\omega t),$$

and we get the family of damped sinusoidal functions.

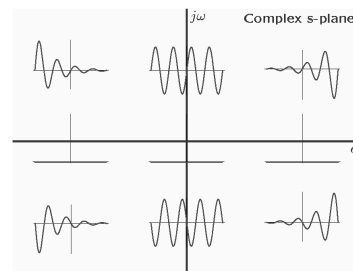
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For $x(t) = Xe^{st}$, $\Re\{x(t)\} = Xe^{\sigma t}\cos\omega t$ is plotted for different values of s superimposed on the complex s -plane.



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For $x(t) = Xe^{st}$, $\Im\{x(t)\} = Xe^{\sigma t}\sin\omega t$ is plotted for different values of s superimposed on the complex s -plane.



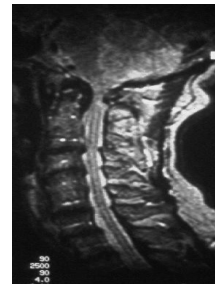
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Why are eternal complex exponentials so important

- Almost any signal can be represented as a sum of eternal complex exponentials.
- The output of linear time-invariant (LTI) systems is simple to compute if the inputs are sums of eternal complex exponentials.
- Eternal complex exponentials are the characteristic (unforced, homogeneous) responses of LTI systems (eigenfunctions).

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Cervical Spine MRI



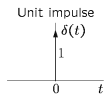
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Unit Impulse Function

The unit impulse $\delta(t)$, aka the Dirac delta function, is not a function in the ordinary sense. It is defined by the integral relation

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

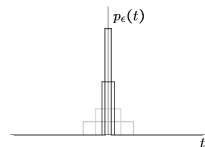
and is called a *generalized function*. The unit impulse is not defined in terms of its values, but is defined by how it acts inside an integral when multiplied by a smooth function $f(t)$. To see that the area of the unit impulse is 1, choose $f(t) = 1$ in the definition. We represent the unit impulse schematically as shown below; the number next to the impulse is its area.



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Narrow Pulse Approximation

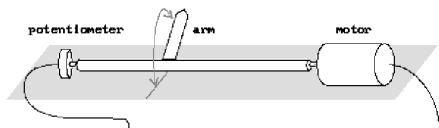
To obtain an intuitive feeling for the unit impulse, it is often helpful to imagine a set of rectangular pulses where each pulse has width ϵ and height $1/\epsilon$ so that its area is 1.



The unit impulse is the quintessential tall and narrow pulse!

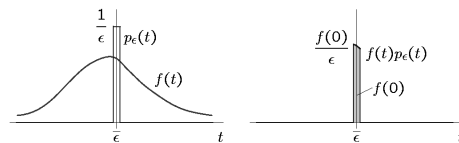
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Robot Arm System



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Intuiting Impulse Definition



As the rectangular pulse gets taller and narrower,

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)p_{\epsilon}(t) dt \rightarrow \frac{f(0)}{\epsilon} \cdot \epsilon = f(0).$$

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Uses of the Unit Impulse

The unit impulse is a valuable idealization and is used widely in science and engineering. Impulses in time are useful idealizations.

- Impulse of current in time delivers a unit charge instantaneously to a network.
- Impulse of force in time delivers an instantaneous momentum to a mechanical system.

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Impulses in space are also useful.

- Impulse of mass density in space represents a point mass.
- Impulse of charge density in space represents a point charge.
- Impulse of light intensity in space represents a point of light.

We can imagine impulses in space and time.

- Impulse of light intensity in space and time represents a brief flash of light at a point in space.

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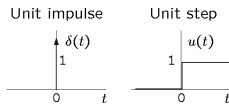
Unit Step Function

Integration of the unit impulse yields the unit step function

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

which is defined as

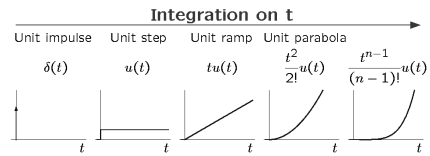
$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } t \geq 0. \end{cases}$$



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Successive Integrations of the Unit Impulse Function

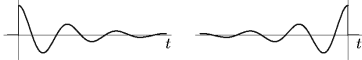
Successive integration of the unit impulse yields a family of functions.



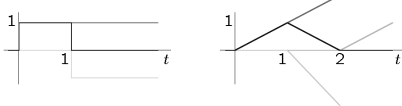
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Building Block Signals can be used to create a rich variety of Signals

$$x(t) = e^{-\sigma t} \cos(\omega t) u(t) \quad x(t) = e^{+\sigma t} \cos(\omega t) u(-t)$$



$$u(t) - u(t-1) \quad tu(t) - 2(t-1)u(t-1) + (t-2)u(t-2)$$



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Conclusions

- We are awash in a sea of signals.
- Signal categories — identity of independent variable, dimensionality, CT or DT, real or complex, periodic or aperiodic, causality, bounded, even & odd, etc.
- Building block signals — eternal complex exponentials and singularity functions — are a rich class of signals and we will show that they can be summed to represent virtually any signal of physical interest.

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