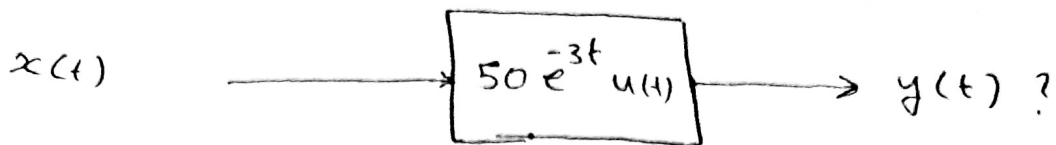


## Example



let  $x(t) = 10 e^{-2t} u(t)$   
 $h(t) = 50 e^{-3t} u(t)$

Find  $y(t) ?$

Sol.  $y(t)$  can be obtained by evaluating the convolution integral

$$y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$$

OR  $y(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \{ Y(f) \}$

$$Y(f) = H(f) X(f)$$

From table:  $e^{-\alpha t} u(t), \alpha > 0 \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha + j2\pi f}$

hence,  $H(f) = \frac{50}{3 + j2\pi f}$ ,  $X(f) = \frac{10}{2 + j2\pi f}$

$$\Rightarrow Y(f) = \frac{500}{(3 + j2\pi f)(2 + j2\pi f)}$$

using Partial Fraction Expansion (PFE)

$$Y(f) = \frac{A}{3 + j2\pi f} + \frac{B}{2 + j2\pi f}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \Big|_{j2\pi f = -3} = \frac{500}{2 - 3} = -500$$

$$B \Big|_{j2\pi f = -2} = \frac{500}{3 - 2} = 500$$

$$\Rightarrow Y(f) = 500 \left( \frac{1}{2+j2\pi f} - \frac{1}{3+j2\pi f} \right)$$

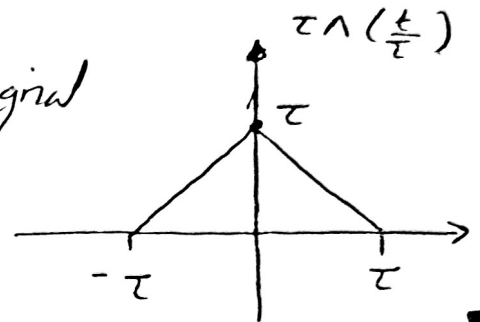
$$y(t) = 500 (e^{-2t} - e^{-3t}) u(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \{ Y(f) \}$$

Remark: Finding  $y(t)$  using FT is much easier than evaluating Convolution integral.

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Example Consider a triangular signal

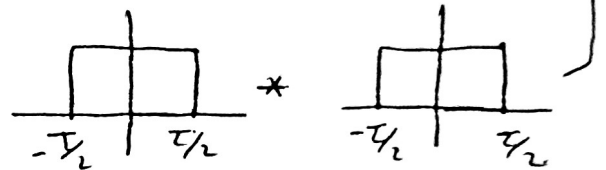
$$\tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right)$$



evaluate its Fourier transform.

Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} \tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) * \tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \\ = \tau^2 \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \end{aligned}$$



$\Rightarrow$  according to the convolution theorem.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{F} \left\{ \tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \right\} &= \mathcal{F} \left\{ \tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \right\}^2 \\ &= \tau^2 \text{sinc}^2(f\tau) \end{aligned}$$

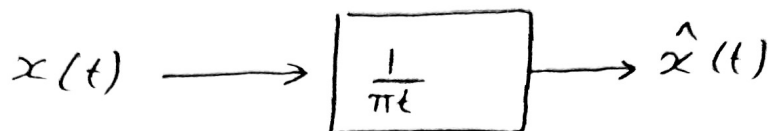
$$\Rightarrow \boxed{ \tau \Lambda \left( \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \longleftrightarrow \tau^2 \text{sinc}^2(f\tau) } \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Fourier} \\ \text{Pair} \end{array}$$


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## Example (Hilbert Transform)

The Hilbert transform,  $\hat{x}(t)$ , of a signal,  $x(t)$ , is obtained by convolving  $x(t)$  with  $\frac{1}{\pi t}$ .

That is,



$$\hat{x}(t) = x(t) * \frac{1}{\pi t} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int \frac{x(\tau)}{t-\tau} d\tau$$

From the following pair:

$$\text{sgn}(t) \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{j\pi f}$$

Using Duality

$$\frac{1}{j\pi t} \longleftrightarrow \text{sgn}(-f) = -\text{sgn}(f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\pi t} \longleftrightarrow -j \text{sgn}(f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{F}\{\hat{x}(t)\} = \mathcal{F}\left\{\frac{1}{\pi t}\right\} \mathcal{F}\{x(t)\} = -j \text{sgn}(f) X(f)$$

$$\hat{X}(f) = -j \text{sgn}(f) X(f)$$

$$|\hat{X}(f)| = |X(f)| \quad \theta_{\hat{x}}(f) = \begin{cases} \theta_x(f) - 90, & f > 0 \\ \theta_x(f) + 90, & f < 0 \end{cases}$$

\* A Hilbert transform operation therefore multiplies all positive-spectral components by  $(-j)$ , and all negative-frequency spectral = by  $(+j)$

\* That's mean, the amplitude spectrum of the signal is left unchanged by Hilbert transform operation

\* The phase is shifted by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  rad.

## Properties of Hilbert transform:-

- 1) it is a linear transform. (Also, it has an inverse)
- 2) A signal  $x(t)$  and its Hilbert transform  $\hat{x}(t)$  have the same autocorrelation.
- 3) A signal  $x(t)$  and its Hilbert transform  $\hat{x}(t)$  have the same energy density spectrum
- 4) A signal  $x(t)$  and its  $\hat{x}(t)$  are mutually orthogonal  
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) \hat{x}(t) dt = 0$$

## Inverse Hilbert transform:-

$$x(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{x}(\lambda)}{t-\lambda} d\lambda$$

## [G] Frequency Shifting (Modulation Property)

\* it is a dual representation of the time-delay theorem.

\* proof:-

let  $x(t)$  be a low freq. signal, and mult. it with a high freq. signal such that

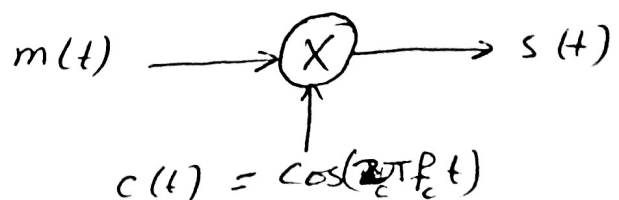
$$y(t) = x(t) e^{j\omega_0 t} \longrightarrow Y(f) = ?$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y(f) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{j\omega_0 t} e^{-j\omega t} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-j2\pi(f-f_0)t} dt \\ &= X(f-f_0) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$

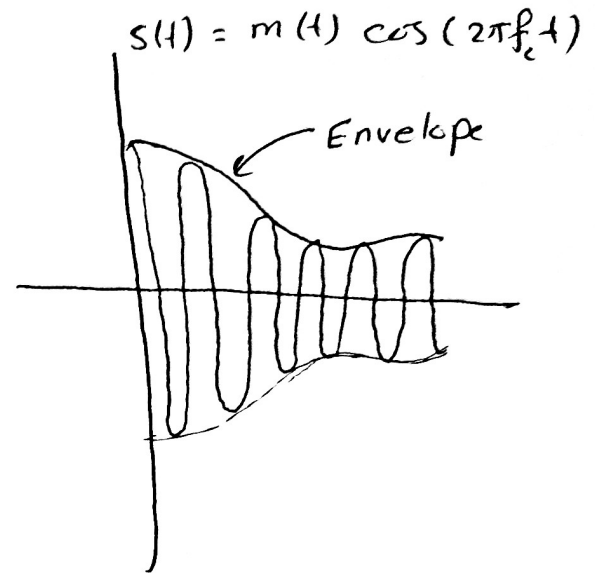
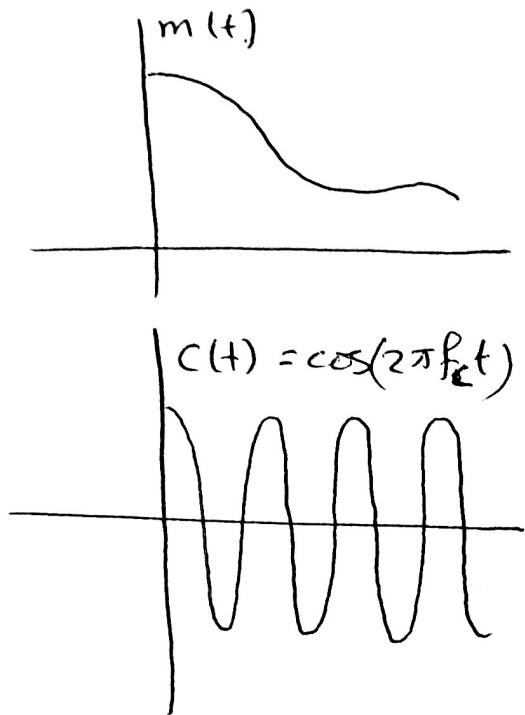
$x(t)$	$\longleftrightarrow$	$X(f)$
<del><math>x(t) e^{j2\pi f_0 t}</math></del>		
$x(t) e^{j2\pi f_0 t}$	$\longleftrightarrow$	$X(f-f_0)$

\* In communication, to send low freq. signals over long distances, we transfer these signals into high freq. signals by performing modulation.



- the mult. of the low freq. signal (message)  $m(t)$  with high frequency signal (carrier)  $c(t)$  is called modulation.

\* In time domain :-



- The modulation theorem follows from the freq. Shifting theorem by using Euler's theorem to write ~~cos~~

$$\cos 2\pi f_0 t = \frac{e^{j2\pi f_0 t} + e^{-j2\pi f_0 t}}{2}$$

and then apply superposition.



Or, Using Euler :-

$$\begin{aligned}y(t) &= 300 \cos(50\pi t) \cos(600\pi t) \\&= 300 \cos(50\pi t) \left[ \frac{e^{j600\pi t} + e^{-j600\pi t}}{2} \right] \\&= 150 \cos 50\pi t e^{j600\pi t} + 150 \cos(50\pi t) e^{-j600\pi t}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}Y(f) &= \frac{150}{2} \left[ \delta(f - 25 - 300) + \delta(f + 25 - 300) \right. \\&\quad \left. + \delta(f - 25 + 300) + \delta(f + 25 + 300) \right] \\&= \frac{150}{2} \left[ \delta(f - 325) + \delta(f - 275) \right. \\&\quad \left. + \delta(f + 275) + \delta(f + 325) \right]\end{aligned}$$



## H. Time Differentiation

$$\text{if } x(t) \longrightarrow X(f)$$

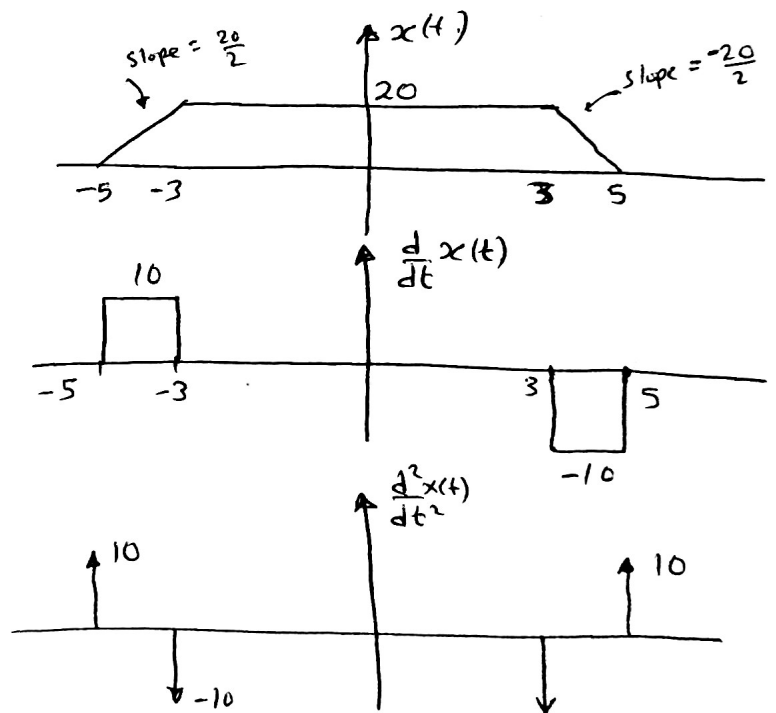
$$\text{then } \frac{d}{dt} x(t) \longrightarrow j2\pi f X(f)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{d^n}{dt^n} x(t) \longrightarrow (j2\pi f)^n X(f)$$

Differentiation results in a multiplication by  $(j\omega)$  in frequency domain.

Example Find  $X(f)$  for the following signal  $x(t)$

one can perform successive diff. till obtaining rectangle or impulses



$$y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} x(t) = 10 [u(t+5) - u(t+3) - u(t-3) + u(t-5)]$$

$$z(t) = \frac{d^2}{dt^2} x(t) = 10 [\delta(t+5) - \delta(t+3) - \delta(t-3) + \delta(t-5)]$$

$$Y(\omega) = (j2\pi f)^2 X(f) = 10 \left[ \frac{j2\pi f(5)}{j2\pi f(3)} - \frac{j2\pi f(3)}{j2\pi f(5)} + \frac{j2\pi f(3)}{j2\pi f(5)} - \frac{j2\pi f(5)}{j2\pi f(3)} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow (j2\pi f)^2 X(f) = 10 \cdot 2 [\cos(2\pi f(5)) - \cos(2\pi f(3))] = 20 [\cos(10\pi f) - \cos(6\pi f)]$$

$$\Rightarrow X(f) = \frac{20}{4\pi^2 f^2} [\cos(10\pi f) - \cos(6\pi f)]$$

## I. Time Integration

$$\text{if } x(t) \longrightarrow X(f)$$

$$\text{then } y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t x(\tau) d\tau \longrightarrow Y(f) = \frac{X(f)}{j2\pi f} + \frac{1}{2} X(0) \delta(f)$$

$$\text{where } X(0) = X(f) \Big|_{f=0} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) dt$$

if  $x(t)$  has a non-zero time averaged value (DC)  
then

$$X(0) \neq 0$$

Example Consider finding the unit step response  $a(t)$  of LTI system as a function of  $h(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} a(t) &= u(t) * h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau) \underbrace{u(t-\tau)}_{=1 \text{ for } t \geq \tau} d\tau \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^t h(\tau) d\tau \Rightarrow \text{unit step response is just} \\ &\quad \text{an integral of impulse response.} \end{aligned}$$

In freq. domain?

$$\begin{aligned} A(f) &= H(f) \cdot \mathcal{F}\{u(t)\} = H(f) \left[ \frac{1}{j2\pi f} + \frac{1}{2} \delta(f) \right] \\ &= \frac{H(f)}{j2\pi f} + \frac{1}{2} H(0) \delta(f) \end{aligned}$$

## The Significance of time-differentiation & Integration

- The Diff. enhances the high-frequency content of a signal, which is reflected by the factor  $j2\pi f$  in the transform of a derivative
- while integration smooths out time fluctuations or suppresses the high-frequency content of a signal, as indicated by  $\frac{1}{j2\pi f}$  in the transform of an integral.

### J Frequency Differentiation

$$\text{if } x(t) \longrightarrow X(f)$$

$$(-jt)^n x(t) \longrightarrow \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^n \frac{d^n X(f)}{df^n}$$

$$\text{or } t^n x(t) \longrightarrow \left(\frac{j}{2\pi}\right)^n \frac{d^n X(f)}{df^n}$$

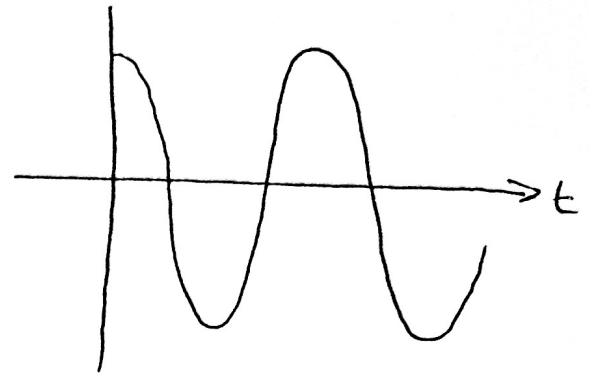
Summary. The previous properties can be used to simplify computation of FT and also can be used in system analysis.

## Examples

Consider a cosine function turned on only for  $t \geq 0$

$$x(t) = \cos(\omega_0 t) u(t)$$

Find  $X(f)$  ?



$$x(t) = \left( \frac{1}{2} e^{j\omega_0 t} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\omega_0 t} \right) u(t)$$

we know that (from table)

$$u(t) \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{j2\pi f} + \frac{1}{2} \delta(f)$$

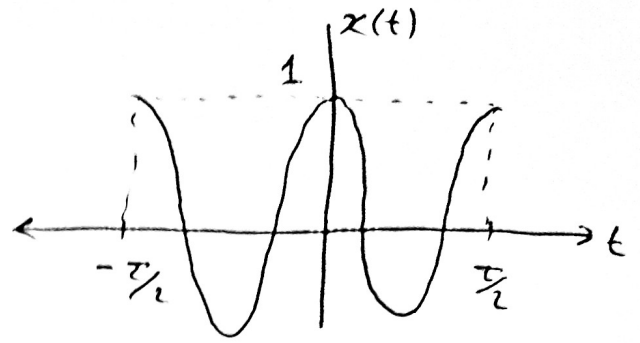
using Modulation Property

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow X(f) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{j2\pi(f-f_0)} + \frac{1}{2} \delta(f-f_0) \right] \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{j2\pi(f+f_0)} + \frac{1}{2} \delta(f+f_0) \right] \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[ \delta(f-f_0) + \delta(f+f_0) \right] + \frac{j2\pi f}{(2\pi f_0)^2 - (2\pi f)^2}$$

## Example Pulsed cosine

$$x(t) = \Pi\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \cos(\omega_0 t)$$



Such signals are used in radar or sonar applications to know, for example, the existence and type of target or attack.

$$\Pi\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \longrightarrow \tau \operatorname{sinc}(\tau f)$$

modulation property

$$g(t) \cos(\omega_0 t) \longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} G(f-f_0) + \frac{1}{2} G(f+f_0)$$

$$\Rightarrow X(f) = \frac{\tau}{2} \operatorname{sinc}[\tau(f-f_0)] + \frac{\tau}{2} \operatorname{sinc}[\tau(f+f_0)]$$

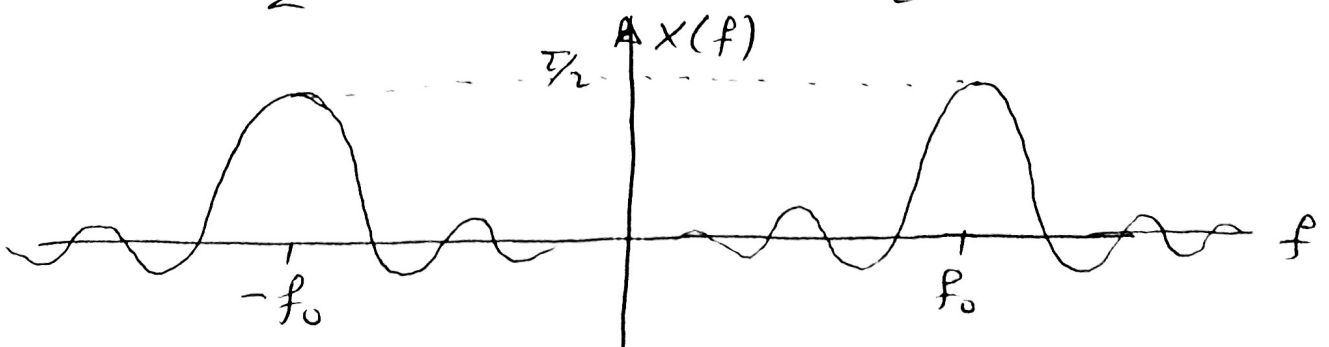
or using convolution property :-

$$x(t) \cdot h(t) \longleftrightarrow X(f) * H(f)$$

$$X(f) = \mathcal{F}\left\{\Pi\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right)\right\} * \mathcal{F}\{\cos \omega_0 t\}$$

$$= \tau \operatorname{sinc}(\tau f) * \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \delta(f-f_0) + \frac{1}{2} \delta(f+f_0) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{\tau}{2} \operatorname{sinc}[\tau(f-f_0)] + \frac{\tau}{2} \operatorname{sinc}[\tau(f+f_0)]$$



## Alternative view of Periodic signals :-

Earlier we expressed periodic signals using FS :-

$$x(t) = \sum X_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

$$X(f) = \sum X_n \mathcal{F}\{e^{jn\omega_0 t}\} = \sum X_n \delta(f - nf_0)$$

$$= f_0 \sum X(nf_0) \delta(f - nf_0)$$

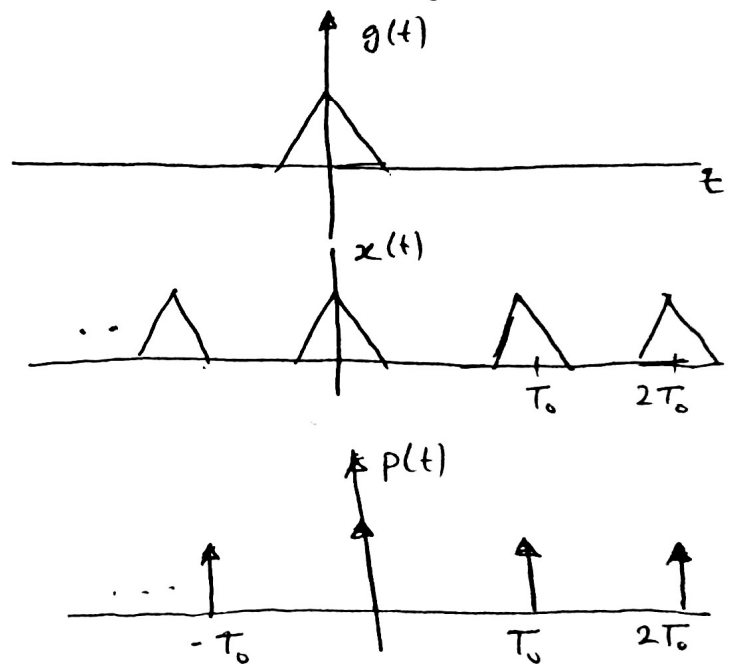
Periodic signals can be seen as a sum of shifted versions of a given signal (generating signal.)

$$x(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(t - nT_0)$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) * \delta(t - nT_0)$$

$$= g(t) * \underbrace{\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT_0)}_{p(t)}$$

$$= g(t) * p(t)$$



$p(t)$  is a periodic signal (train of impulses), hence using FS expansion :-

$$p(t) = \sum P_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

$$P_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} \delta(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt = \frac{1}{T_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow P(f) = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jn2\pi f T_0} \xrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \boxed{P(f) = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum \delta(f - nf_0)}$$

since  $x(t) = g(t) * p(t)$

$$X(f) = G(f) \cdot P(f)$$

$$= G(f) \cdot \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - n f_0)$$

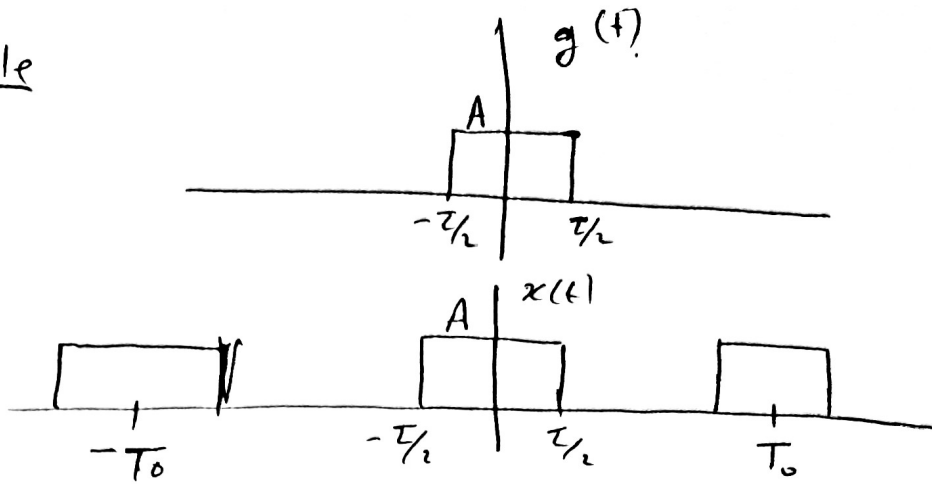
$$X(f) = f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(n f_0) \delta(f - n f_0)$$

$F\{g(t)\}$ : FT of the generating signal sampled at the harmonics ( $n f_0$ )

Hence, to obtain FT of periodic signal, we either find  $x_n$  using FS, or we find FT of one signal occurrence of signal, then we use shifted deltas.

$$\begin{aligned} X(f) &= \sum x_n \delta(f - n f_0) \\ &= f_0 \sum X(n f_0) \delta(f - n f_0) \end{aligned}$$

Example

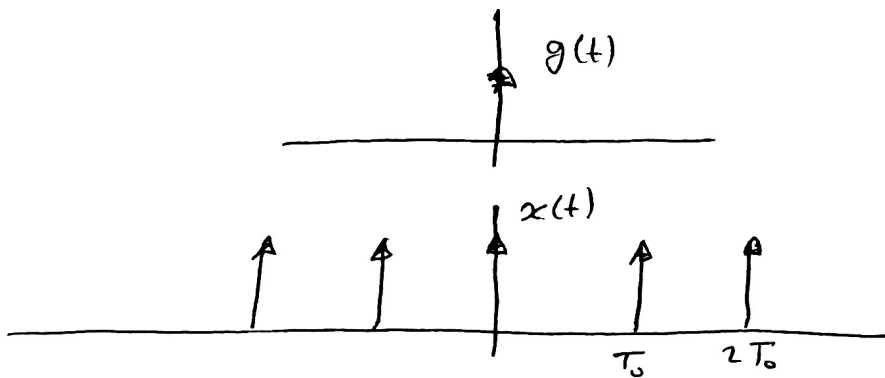


$\tau$ : pulse width  
 $T_0$ : fundamental period

$$g(t) = A \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \longleftrightarrow G(f) = A\tau \operatorname{sinc}(\tau f)$$

$$\begin{aligned} X(f) &= f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(nf_0) \delta(f - nf_0) \\ &= f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A\tau \operatorname{sinc}(\tau nf_0) \delta(f - nf_0) \end{aligned}$$

Example



$$g(t) = \delta(t) \xleftrightarrow{F} G(f) = 1$$

$$X(f) = f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} G(nf_0) \delta(f - nf_0)$$

$$= f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} 1 \cdot \delta(f - nf_0)$$

$$= f_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - nf_0) \quad \text{which is also a train of delta fun.}$$