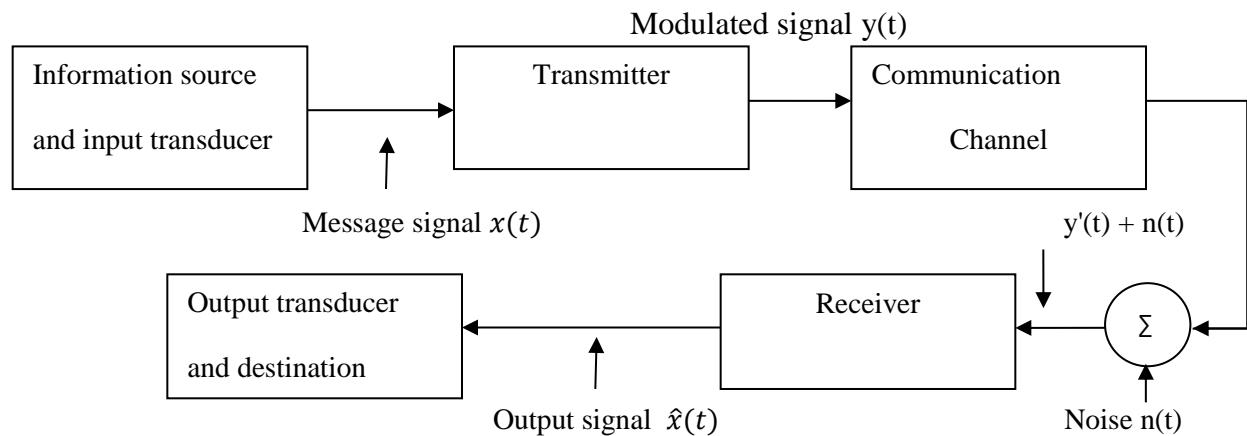


Model of a Communication System

- *Communication* is defined as “exchange of information“.
- *Telecommunication* refers to communication over a distance greater than would normally be possible without artificial aids.
- Telephony is an example of point-to-point communication and normally involves a two – way flow of information.
- Broadcast radio and television : Information is transmitted from one location but is received at many locations using different receivers (point to multi-point communication)
- Model of a communication system :



- The purpose of a communication system is to transmit information – bearing signals from a source located at one point to a user located at another end.
- The input transducer is used to convert the physical message generated by the source into a time-varying electrical signal called the *message signal*.
- The original message is recreated at the destination using an output transducer.
- The *transmitter* modifies the message signal into a form suitable for transmission over the channel. *Here modulation takes place*.
- The *channel* is the medium over which signal is transmitted, (like free space, an optical fiber, transmission lines, twisted pair of wires...). Here signal is distorted due to
 - A. Nonlinearities and/or imperfections in the frequency response of the channel.
 - B. Noise and interference are added to the signal during the course of transmission.
- The purpose of the *receiver* is to recreate the original signal $x(t)$ from the degraded version $x(t) + n(t)$ of the transmitted signal after propagating through channel . *Here, demodulation takes place*.

Classification of Signals

Definition: A signal may be defined as a single valued function of time that conveys information.

Depending on the feature of interest, we may distinguish four different classes of signals:

1. Periodic Signals, Non-periodic Signals:

A *periodic signal* $g(t)$ is a function of time that satisfies the condition $g(t) = g(t+T_0)$, $\forall t$.

The smallest value of T_0 that satisfies this condition is called the period of $g(t)$.

Example: A Periodic Signal

The saw-tooth function shown below is an example of a periodic signal.

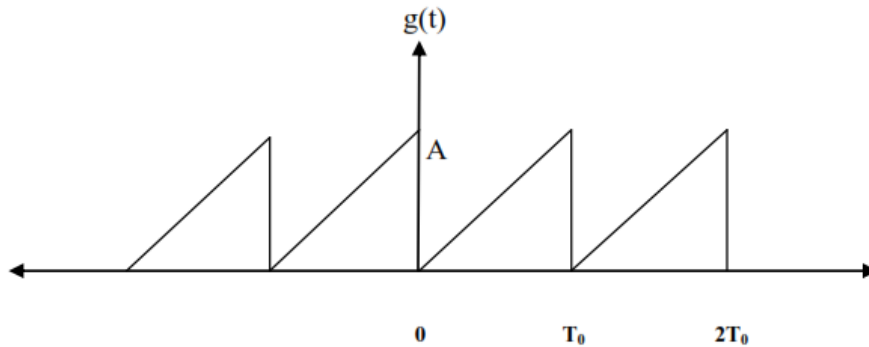


Fig. 1.1: A periodic signal with period T_0

Example: A Non-periodic Signal

The signal

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} A, & 0 \leq t \leq \tau \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is non-periodic, since there does not exist a T_0 for which the condition $g(t) = g(t+T_0)$ is satisfied.

2. Deterministic Signals, Random Signals:

A *deterministic signal* is one about which there is no uncertainty with respect to its value at any time. It is a completely specified function of time .

Example: A Deterministic Signal

$$x(t) = Ae^{-at}u(t) ; A \text{ and } a \text{ are constants.}$$

A *random signal* is one about which there is some degree of uncertainty before it actually occurs. (It is a function of a random variable)

Example : A Random Signal

$x(t) = A e^{-\alpha t} u(t)$; α is a constant and A is a random variable with the following probability density function (pdf).

$$F_A(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 \leq a \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3. Energy Signals, Power Signals:

The *instantaneous power* in a signal $g(t)$ is defined as that power dissipated in a 1- Ω resistor, i.e.,

$$p(t) = |g(t)|^2$$

The *average power* is defined as:

$$P_{av} \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt$$

The total energy of a signal $g(t)$ is

$$E \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt$$

A signal $g(t)$ is classified as *energy signal* if it has a finite energy, i.e, $0 < E < \infty$

A signal $g(t)$ is classified as *power signal* if it has a finite power, i.e, $0 < P_{av} < \infty$

The average power in a periodic signal is

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} |g(t)|^2 dt ; T_0 \text{ is the period;}$$

$f_0 = 1/T_0$ is referred to as the fundamental frequency

Usually, periodic signals and random signals are power signals. Both deterministic and non periodic signals are energy signals (We will show a counterexample shortly).

4. Analog Signals, Digital Signals :

An *analog signal* is a continuous time - continuous amplitude function of time .

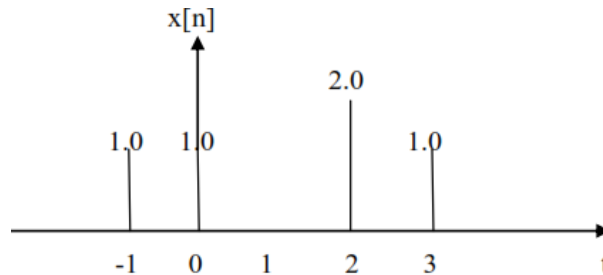
Example:

The sinusoidal signal $x(t) = A \cos 2\pi ft$, $-\infty < t < \infty$, is an example of an analog signal.

A *discrete time- discrete amplitude*(digital) signal is defined only at discrete times. Here, the independent variable takes on only discrete values.

Example:

The sequence $x[n]$ shown below is an examples of a digital signal. The amplitudes are drawn from the finite set $\{1,0,2\}$.



More Examples

Example: The Exponential Pulse

Find the energy in the signal $g(t) = A e^{-\alpha t} u(t)$.

$$E = \int_0^{\infty} A^2 e^{-2\alpha t} dt = A^2 \left. \frac{-e^{-2\alpha t}}{2\alpha} \right|_0^{\infty} = \frac{A^2}{2\alpha} . \text{ Since } E \text{ is finite, then } g(t) \text{ is an energy signal.}$$

Example: The Rectangular Pulse

Find the energy in the signal:

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} A, & 0 < t < \tau \\ 0, & \text{o.w} \end{cases}$$

$$E = \int_0^{\tau} A^2 dt = A^2 \tau . \text{ This signal is an energy since } E \text{ is finite.}$$

Example: The Periodic Sinusoidal Signal

Find the average power in the signal :

$$g(t) = A \cos \omega t , -\infty < t < \infty$$

Since $g(t)$ is periodic, then :

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} A^2 \cos^2 \omega t dt = \frac{A^2}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} \left(\frac{1 + \cos 2\omega t}{2} \right) dt = \frac{A^2}{T_0} \cdot \frac{T_0}{2} = \frac{A^2}{2} .$$

Here, P_{av} is finite and, therefore, $g(t)$ is a power signal.

Example: The Periodic Saw-tooth Signal

Find the average power in the saw-tooth signal $g(t)$ plotted in Fig.1.

$$g(t) = \frac{A}{T_0} t , 0 \leq t \leq T_0$$

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} \frac{A^2}{T_0^2} t^2 dt = \frac{1}{T_0} \frac{A^2}{T_0^2} \frac{t^3}{3} \Big|_0^{T_0} = \frac{A^2 T_0^3}{3 T_0^3} = \frac{A^2}{3} .$$

Example: The Unit Step Function

Consider the signal: $g(t) = A u(t)$.

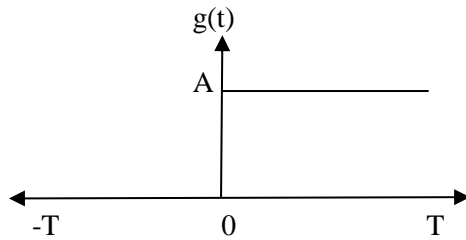


Fig. 1.2

This is a non periodic signal. So let us first try to find its energy:

$$E = \int_0^{\infty} A^2 dt = \infty .$$

Since E is not finite, then $g(t)$ is not an energy signal.

To find the average power, we employ the definition :

$$P_{av} \triangleq \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt,$$

where $2T$ is chosen to be a symmetrical interval about the origin, as in Fig. 1.2 above.

$$P_{av} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_0^T A^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A^2 T}{2T} = \frac{A^2}{2} .$$

So, even-though $g(t)$ is non-periodic, it turns out that it is a power signal.

Remark: This is an example where the general rule (periodic signals are power signals and energy signals are non periodic signals) fails to hold.

Fourier Series

Let $g(t)$ be a periodic signal with period $T_0 = \frac{1}{f_0}$ such that it is absolutely integrable over one period,

i.e.,
$$\int_0^{T_0} |g(t)| dt < \infty.$$

The signal $g(t)$, satisfying the above integrability condition, may be expanded in one of three possible Fourier series forms (We will not address the question of series convergence in this discussion):

The complex form:

$$g(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

where,
$$C_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} g(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt ;$$

C_n : is a complex valued quantity that can be written as:

$$C_n = |C_n| e^{j\theta_n}$$

Discrete Amplitude Spectrum: A plot of $|C_n|$ vs. frequency

Discrete Phase Spectrum: A plot of θ_n vs. frequency

The term at f_0 is referred to as the fundamental frequency. The term at $2f_0$ is referred to as the second order harmonic, and so on.

The trigonometric form:

$$g(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos n\omega_0 t + b_n \sin n\omega_0 t)$$

Where : $a_0 = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} g(t) dt$ (dc or average value)

$$a_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} g(t) \cos n\omega_0 t dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} g(t) \sin n\omega_0 t dt$$

The polar form :

$$g(t) = c_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2|C_n| \cos(n\omega_0 t + \theta_n)$$

where C_n and θ_n are those terms defined in the complex form.

Remark: The above three forms are equivalent and are representations of the same waveform. If you know one representation, you can easily deduce the other.

Example: Find the trigonometric Fourier series of the periodic rectangular signal defined over one period T_0 as:

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} +A, & -T_0/4 \leq t \leq T_0/4 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Solution:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} g(t) dt = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} A dt = A/2$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} g(t) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n}{T_0} t\right) dt = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n}{T_0} t\right) dt = 0$$

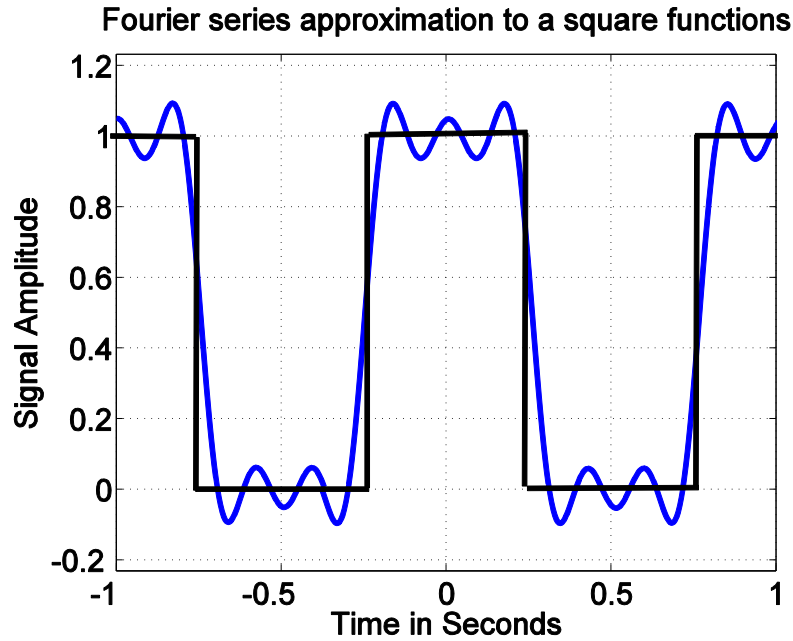
$$a_n = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} g(t) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{T_0} t\right) dt = \frac{2}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} A \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{T_0} t\right) dt$$

$$a_n = \begin{cases} \frac{2A}{n\pi}, & n = 1, 5, 9, \dots \\ \frac{-2A}{n\pi}, & n = 3, 7, 11, \dots \\ 0, & n = 2, 4, 6, \dots \end{cases}$$

The first four terms in the expansion of $g(t)$ are:

$$\tilde{g}(t) = \frac{A}{2} + \frac{2A}{\pi} \left\{ \cos(2\pi f_0) t - \frac{1}{3} \cos(2\pi 3f_0) t + \frac{1}{5} \cos(2\pi 5f_0) t \right\}$$

The function $\tilde{g}(t)$ along with $g(t)$ are plotted in the figure for $-1 \leq t \leq 1$ assuming $A = 1$ and $f_0 = 1$



Remark: As more terms are added to $\tilde{g}(t)$, $\tilde{g}(t)$ becomes closer to $g(t)$ and in the limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\tilde{g}(t)$ becomes equal to $g(t)$ at all points except at the points of discontinuity.

Parseval's Power Theorem

The average power of a periodic signal $g(t)$ is given by:

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} |g(t)|^2 dt = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |C_n|^2 = |C_0|^2 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |C_n|^2$$

$$= |a_0|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (|a_n|^2 + |b_n|^2)$$

Power Spectral Density

The plot of $|C_n|^2$ versus frequency is called the *power spectral density* (PSD). It displays the power content of each frequency (spectral) component of a signal. For a periodic signal, the PSD consists of discrete terms at multiples of the fundamental frequency.

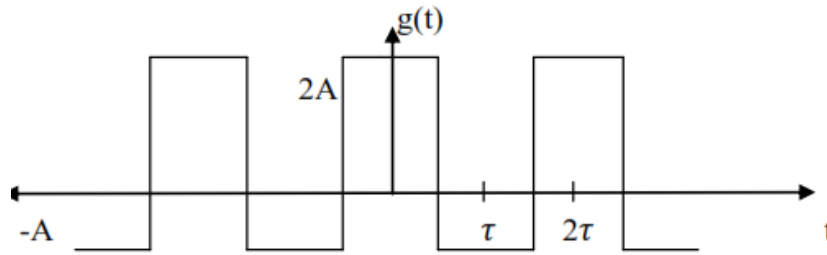
Exercise: Consider again the saw-tooth function defined over one period as $g(t) = t, 0 \leq t \leq 1$

- a. Use matlab to find the dc terms and the first three harmonics(i.e., let $n = 3$) in the Fourier series expansion

$$\tilde{g}(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^3 (a_n \cos n\omega_0 t + b_n \sin n\omega_0 t)$$

- b. Plot $\tilde{g}(t)$ and $g(t)$ versus time for $-1 \leq t \leq 1$ on the same graph.
- c. Find the fraction of the power contained in $\tilde{g}(t)$ to that in $g(t)$.
- d. Sketch the power spectral density.

Example : Find the power spectral density of the periodic function $g(t)$ shown in the figure :

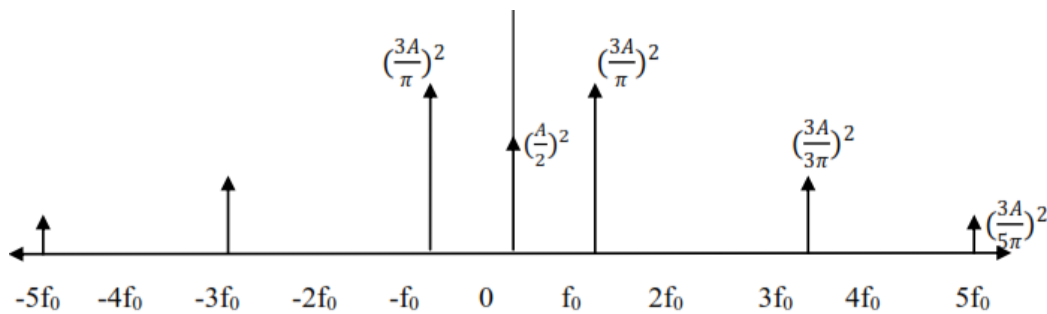


Solution: Here, we need to find the complex Fourier series expansion, where the period $T_0 = 2\tau$

$$g(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}; \quad C_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} g(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt$$

$$C_n = \begin{cases} \frac{A}{2}, & n = 0 \\ \frac{3A}{|n|\pi}, & n = \pm 1, \pm 5, \pm 9, \dots \\ \frac{-3A}{|n|\pi}, & n = \pm 3, \pm 7, \pm 11, \dots \\ 0, & n = \pm 2, \pm 4, \dots \end{cases} \Rightarrow |C_n|^2 = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{A}{2}\right)^2, & n = 0 \\ \left(\frac{3A}{n\pi}\right)^2, & n: \text{odd} \\ 0, & n: \text{even} \end{cases}$$

$$S_g(f) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |C_n|^2 \delta(f - nf_0)$$



As can be seen, the power spectral density of this periodic signal is a discrete function in frequency.

Exercise: Verify Parseval's power theorem for this signal, i.e., show that

$$P_{av} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} |g(t)|^2 dt = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |C_n|^2 = 2.5A^2$$

Fourier Transform

Let $g(t)$ be a non periodic square integrable function of time. That is one for which

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$

The Fourier transform of $g(t)$ exists and is defined as:

$$G(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

The time function $g(t)$ can be recovered from $G(f)$ using the inverse Fourier Transform:

$$g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df$$

Remarks:

- All energy signals for which $E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty$ are Fourier transformable.
- $G(f)$ is a complex function of frequency f , which can be expressed as:

$$G(f) = |G(f)| e^{j\theta(f)}$$

where, $|G(f)|$: is the *continuous amplitude spectrum* of $g(t)$, (even function of f).

$\theta(f)$: is the *continuous phase spectrum* of $g(t)$, (odd function of f).

Rayleigh Energy Theorem :

The energy in a signal $g(t)$ is given by :

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |G(f)|^2 df$$

The function $|G(f)|^2$ is called the *energy spectral density*. It illustrates the range of frequencies over which the signal energy extends and the frequency bands which are significant in terms of their energy contents. For a non-period signal energy signal, the energy spectral density is a continuous function of f .

A General Form of the Rayleigh Energy Theorem

For two energy functions $g(t)$ and $v(t)$, the following result holds:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)v(t)^* dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(f)V(f)^* df$$

Example: Energy spectral density of the exponential signal

$$v(t) = \begin{cases} A e^{-bt} & t > 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$V(f) = \int_0^{\infty} v(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \int_0^{\infty} A e^{-bt} e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

$$V(f) = A \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(b+j2\pi f)t} dt = A \frac{e^{-(b+j2\pi f)t}}{-(b+j2\pi f)} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{A}{b+j2\pi f} .$$

$$V(f) = \frac{A}{b+j2\pi f} |\overline{V(f)}| = \frac{A}{(b^2+(2\pi f)^2)^{1/2}}$$

The energy spectral density is: $S_v(f) = |V(f)|^2 = \frac{A^2}{b^2+\omega^2}$

Remark: The signal $v(t)$ is called a *baseband signal* since the signal occupies the low frequency part of the spectrum. That is, the energy in the signal is found around the zero frequency. When the signal is multiplied by a high frequency carrier, the spectrum becomes centered around the carrier and the modulated signal is called a *bandpass signal*.

Exercise : For the exponential pulse, verify Rayleigh energy theorem, i.e., show that

$$\int_0^{\infty} |v(t)|^2 dt = 2 \int_0^{\infty} |V(f)|^2 df = \frac{A^2}{2b} .$$

Example: The Rectangular Pulse $g(t) = A \text{rect}(\frac{t}{T})$

$$G(f) = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} A e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \frac{A}{\pi f} \sin \pi f T$$

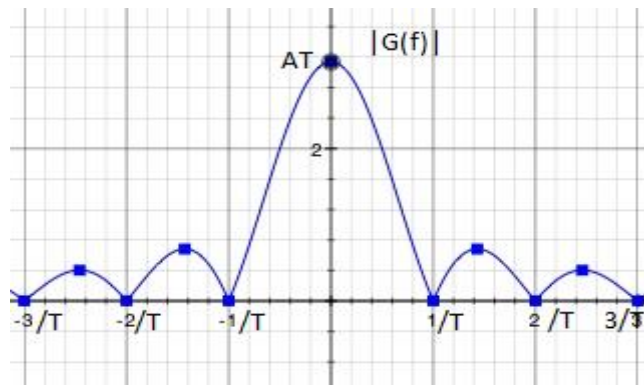
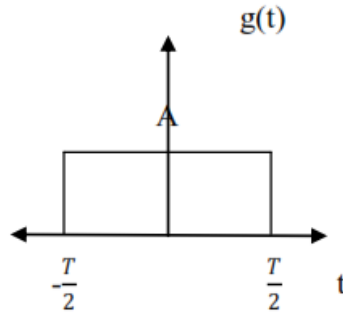
$$= AT \frac{\sin \pi f T}{\pi f T} \triangleq AT \text{ sinc } T f$$

$$|G(f)| = AT |\text{sinc } T f|$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{max. of function}$$

$$G(f) = 0 \text{ when } \sin(\pi f T) = 0 \text{ or when } \pi f T = n\pi, n = \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

$$fT = n, \therefore f = \frac{n}{T}$$



Remark: Time duration and bandwidth :

Note that as the signal time duration T increases, the first zero crossing at $f = \frac{1}{T}$ decreases, implying that the bandwidth of the signal decreases. More on this will be said later when we discuss the time bandwidth product.

Exercise : For the rectangular pulse $g(t) = A \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$, verify Rayleigh energy theorem, i.e., show that

$$\int_0^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = 2 \int_0^{\infty} |G(f)|^2 df = A^2 T.$$

Properties of the Fourier Transform:

1. Linearity (superposition)

Let $g_1(t) \leftrightarrow G_1(f)$
 and $g_2(t) \leftrightarrow G_2(f)$, then

$$c_1g_1(t)+c_2g_2(t) \leftrightarrow c_1G_1(f)+c_2G_2(f) ; c_1, c_2 \text{ are constants}$$

2. Time scaling

If $g_1(t) \leftrightarrow G_1(f)$,
 then

$$g(at) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{|a|} G(f/a)$$

3. Duality

If $g(t) \leftrightarrow G(f)$,
 Then, $G(t) \leftrightarrow g(-f)$

4. Time shifting

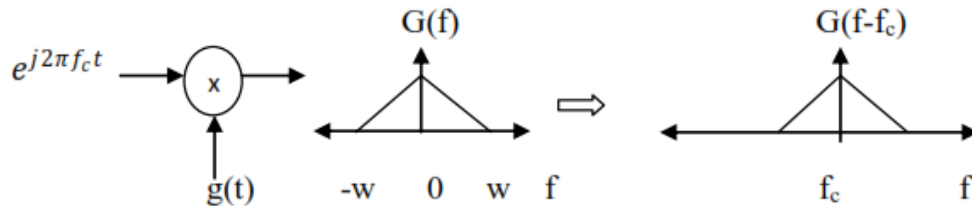
If $g(t) \leftrightarrow G(f)$

then $g(t - t_0) \leftrightarrow G(f)e^{-j2\pi ft_0}$

Delay in time domain \iff phase shift in frequency domain

5. Frequency shifting

If $g(t) \leftrightarrow G(f)$,
 then $g(t)e^{j2\pi f_c t} \leftrightarrow G(f - f_c)$; f_c is a real constant



6. Area under $G(f)$

If $g(t) \leftrightarrow G(f)$,
 then: $g(t = 0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(f)df$

The value $g(t = 0)$ is equal to the area under its Fourier transform.

7. Area under $g(t)$

If $g(t) \leftrightarrow G(f)$

Then, $G(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) dt$

The area under a function $g(t)$ is equal to the value of its Fourier transform $G(f)$ at $f = 0$, where $G(0)$ implies the presence of a dc component.

8. Differentiation in the time domain

If $g(t)$ and its derivative $g'(t)$ are Fourier transformable, then,

$$g'(t) \leftrightarrow (j2\pi f)G(f)$$

i.e., differentiation in the time domain \implies multiplication by $j2\pi f$ in the frequency domain.

(differentiation in the time domain enhances high frequency components of a signal)

Also, $\frac{d^n g(t)}{dt^n} \leftrightarrow (j2\pi f)^n G(f)$

9. Integration in the time domain

$$\int_{-\infty}^t g(\tau) d\tau \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{j2\pi f} G(f); \text{ assuming } G(0) = 0$$

i.e., integration in the time domain \implies division by $(j2\pi f)$ in the frequency domain. This amounts to low pass filtering where high frequency components are attenuated.

When $G(0) \neq 0$, the above result becomes:

$$\int_{-\infty}^t g(\tau) d\tau \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{j2\pi f} G(f) + \frac{1}{2} G(0)\delta(f).$$

10. Conjugate Functions

For a complex – valued time signal $g(t)$, we have:

$$g^*(t) \leftrightarrow G^*(-f) \quad ;$$

Also, $g^*(-t) \leftrightarrow G^*(f) \quad ;$

Therefore, $\text{Re}\{g(t)\} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \{ G(f) + G^*(-f) \}$

$$\text{Im}\{g(t)\} \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2j} \{ G(f) - G^*(-f) \}$$

11. Multiplication in the time domain

$$g_1(t) g_2(t) \leftrightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G_1(\lambda) G_2(f - \lambda) d\lambda = G_1(f) * G_2(f)$$

Multiplication of two signals in the time domain is transformed into the convolution of their Fourier transforms in the frequency domain.

12. Convolution in the time domain

$$g_1(t) * g_2(t) \leftrightarrow G_1(f)G_2(f)$$

Convolution of two signals in the time domain is transformed into a multiplication of their Fourier transforms in the frequency domain.

Fourier Transform of Power Signals

For a non-periodic (energy) signal, the Fourier transform exists when

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

So that $(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$.

For power signals, the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$ **does not exist**.

However, one can still find the Fourier transform of power signals by employing the delta function. This function is defined next.

Dirac – Delta Function (impulse function)

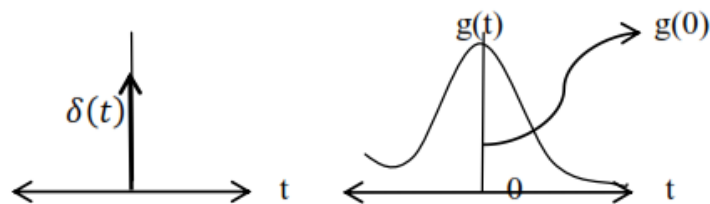
This function is defined as

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} \infty & t = 0 \\ 0 & t \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

such that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$

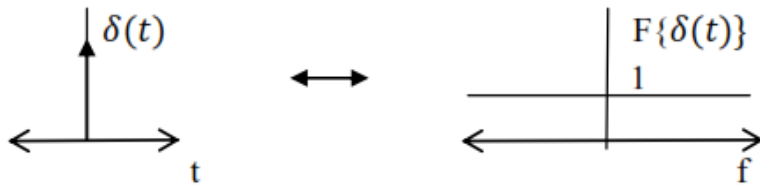
and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)\delta(t) dt = g(0)$

(Here, $g(t)$ is a continuous function of time).



Some properties of the delta function:

1. $g(t)\delta(t - t_0) = g(t_0)\delta(t - t_0)$; (Multiplication)
2. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)\delta(t - t_0)dt = g(t_0)$; (Sifting or sampling property)
3. $\delta(\alpha t) = \frac{1}{|\alpha|} \delta(t)$
4. $\delta(t) * g(t) = g(t)$
5. $\delta(t) = \frac{du(t)}{dt} \iff u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^t \delta(t)dt$
6. $\delta(t) = \delta(-t)$
7. Fourier transform: $F\{\delta(t)\} = 1$



(Note how the time-bandwidth relationship holds for this pair. A narrow pulse in time extends over a large frequency spectrum)

8. $F\{\delta(t - t_0)\} = e^{-j2\pi f t_0}$

Applications of delta functions

1. Dc Signal

Since $F\{\delta(t)\} = 1$, then by the duality property $F\{1\} = \delta(f)$



(Again, note that the transform of a dc signal is an impulse at $f=0$)

2. Complex exponential function

$$F\{A e^{j2\pi f_c t}\} = A \delta(f - f_c)$$

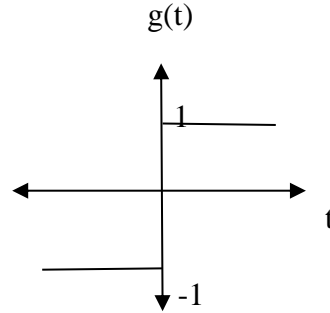
3. Sinusoidal functions

$$F\{\cos 2\pi f_c t\} = \frac{1}{2} \{\delta(f - f_c) + \delta(f + f_c)\}$$

$$F\{\sin 2\pi f_c t\} = \frac{1}{2j} \{\delta(f - f_c) - \delta(f + f_c)\}$$

4. Signum function

$$\text{sgn}(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t > 0 \\ 0 & t = 0 \\ -1 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$



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

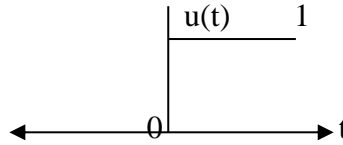
4. Unit Step function :

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t > 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & t = 0 \\ 0 & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{sgn}(t) = 2u(t) - 1$$

$$u(t) = \frac{1}{2} \{\text{sgn}(t) + 1\}$$

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



7. Periodic Signals

A periodic signal $g(t)$ is expanded in the complex form as :

$$g(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

$$F\{g(t)\} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n \delta(f - nf_0)$$

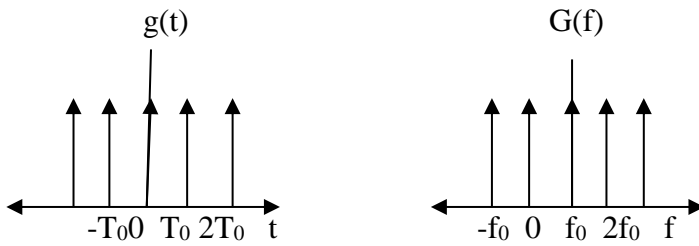
Example: Consider the following train of impulses

$$g(t) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - mT_0)$$

$$C_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} g(t) e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt = \frac{1}{T_0} = f_0$$

$$\Rightarrow F\{g(t)\} = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - nf_0)$$

$$\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - mT_0) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - nf_0)$$



Note that the signal is periodic in the time domain and its Fourier transform is periodic in the frequency domain.

Remark: This sequence will be found useful when the sampling theorem is considered later in the course.