

# **HKN ECE 210 Final Exam Review Session**

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# Topics

- Circuit Analysis with Differential Equations
  - Fourier Series
  - Fourier Transform
  - Signal Energy and Bandwidth
  - LTI System Response with Fourier Transform
  - Modulation, AM, Coherent Demodulation
  - Impulse Response and Convolution
  - Sampling and Analog Reconstruction
  - LTIC and BIBO Stability
  - Laplace Transform
  - Applications of Laplace Transform
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# Circuit Analysis with Differential Equations

- Given a circuit with time varying inputs and reactive components (capacitors/inductors), we can utilize differential equations in order find the system response
- $i_C = C \frac{dV}{dt}$  ;  $v_L = L \frac{di}{dt}$
- Many different terms, make sure to know the differences!
- Zero-State Response (Particular Solution, zero initial conditions)
- Zero-Input Response (Homogeneous Solution)
- Transient Response - vanishes to zero at positive infinity
- Steady-State Response - persists for all time
- In pairs, these response add up to form the **full response**
  - Full Response = Zero-State Response + Zero-Input Response
  - Full Response = Transient Response + Steady-State Response

# Fourier Series

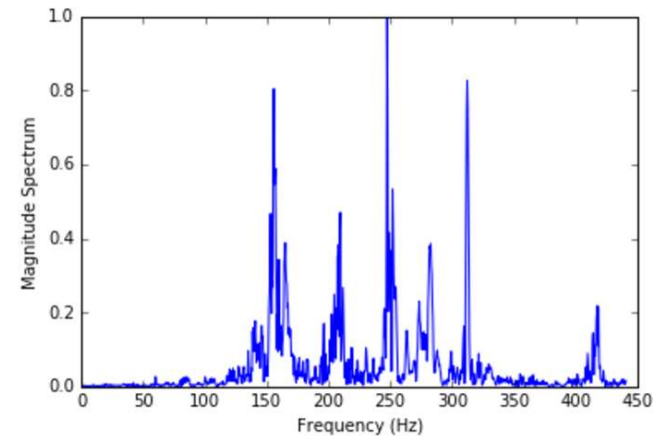
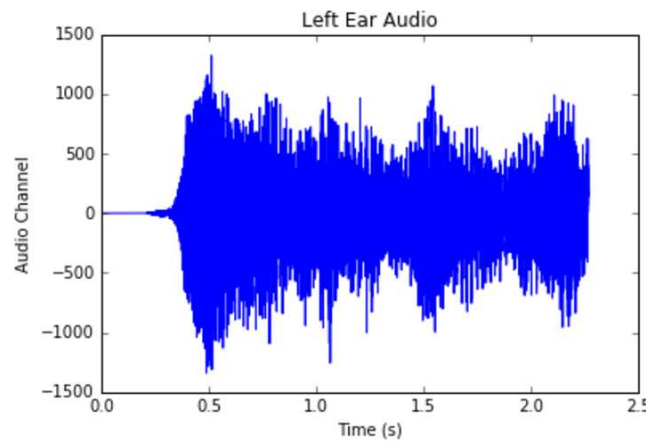
- Fourier Series allows us to express any periodic signal as the infinite summation of complex exponentials or trigonometric functions
- This is incredibly useful because complex exponentials are eigenfunctions to LTI systems
  - What's an eigenfunction?  $f(t) \rightarrow [LTI\ System] \rightarrow \lambda f(t)$  ( $\lambda$  is the eigenvalue for that particular eigenfunction)
- We have three forms: Refer to Table 1 in the Tables Packet for each form
  - Exponential
  - Trigonometric
  - Compact
- Conceptually, Fourier Series is like a discrete version of the Fourier Transform, meaning we only capture specific harmonically related frequencies instead of every frequency
- Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) is the amount of power contained in the harmonics of the fundamental frequency, i.e. for all  $n > 1$

# Fourier Transform

- The Fourier Transform of a signal shows the frequency content of that signal
  - In other words, we can see how much energy is contained at each frequency for that signal
  - ~~This is a big deal!~~
  - This is the biggest deal!

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

- $f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega)e^{j\omega t} d\omega$



# Important Signals for Fourier Transform

- $rect\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } |t| < \frac{T}{2} \\ 0, & \text{for } |t| > \frac{T}{2} \end{cases}$
- $u(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } t < 0 \\ 1, & \text{for } t > 0 \end{cases}$
- $\Delta\left(\frac{t}{T}\right) = \begin{cases} 1 + \frac{2t}{T}, & \text{for } \frac{-T}{2} < t < 0 \\ 1 - \frac{2t}{T}, & \text{for } 0 < t < \frac{T}{2} \end{cases}$
- $sinc(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin(t)}{t}, & \text{for } t \neq 0 \\ 1, & \text{for } t = 0 \end{cases}$

# Fourier Transform Tips

- Convolution in the time domain is multiplication in the frequency domain
  - $f(t) * g(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} F(\omega)G(\omega)$
- Conversely, multiplication in the time domain is convolution in the frequency domain
  - $f(t)g(t) \xleftrightarrow{\mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{2\pi} F(\omega) * G(\omega)$
- Scaling your signal can force properties to appear; typically time delay
  - Ex:  $e^{-2(t+1)}u(t-1) \rightarrow e^{-4}e^{-2(t-1)}u(t-1)$
- The properties really do matter! Take the time to acquaint yourself with them.
- Remember that the Fourier Transform is linear, so you can express a spectrum as the sum of easier spectra
  - Ex: Staircase function
- Magnitude Spectrum is even symmetric, Phase Spectrum is odd symmetric for real valued signals

# Signal Energy and Bandwidth

- $Energy = W = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(\omega)|^2 d\omega$ 
  - Energy signals can be either low-pass or band-pass signals
    - Why not high-pass?
- Bandwidth for Low-pass Signals
  - 3dB BW
    - $\frac{|F(\Omega)|^2}{|F(0)|^2} = \frac{1}{2}$
  - r% BW
    - $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\Omega}^{\Omega} |F(\omega)|^2 d\omega = rW$
- Bandwidth for Band-pass signals
  - r% BW
    - $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\omega_l}^{\omega_u} |F(\omega)|^2 d\omega = \frac{rW}{2}, \Omega = \omega_u - \omega_l$



# LTI System Response using Fourier Transform

- Given the following LTI system:

$$f(t) \rightarrow \boxed{H(\omega)} \rightarrow y(t)$$

- $Y(\omega) = F(\omega)H(\omega)$
- Computationally speaking, and in future courses, we prefer to use Fourier Transforms instead of convolution to evaluate an LTI system
- Why?
  - So much faster:  $O(n \log n)$  vs.  $O(n^2)$

# Modulation, AM Radio, Coherent Demodulation

- Modulation Property
  - If  $f(t) \leftrightarrow F(\omega)$ ,  $f(t) \cos(\omega_o t) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2}[F(\omega - \omega_o) + F(\omega + \omega_o)]$
- In general, for Amplitude Modulation in communications, we modulate with cosine in order to shift our frequency spectrum into different frequency bands
- Coherent Demodulation refers to the process of modulating a signal in order to make it band-pass, then modulating it back to the original low-pass baseband before low-pass filtering in order to recover the original signal
- Envelope detection is the process of Full-wave Rectification (absolute value), then low-pass filtering in order to extract the signal

# Impulse Response and Convolution

- Convolution
  - $x(t) * y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau)y(t - \tau)d\tau = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t - \tau)y(\tau)d\tau$
  - We “flip and shift” one signal and evaluate the integral of the product of the two signals at any value of t (our delay for the shift)
- Representing LTI Systems
  - $y(t) = x(t) * h(t)$ , where  $h(t)$  is the *impulse response* of the system
- Impulse Response is the system output to a  $\delta(t)$  input
- Graphical convolution helps to visualize the process of flipping and shifting

# Helpful Properties for Convolution

- Derivative
  - $h(t) * f(t) = y(t) \rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} h(t) * f(t) = h(t) * \frac{d}{dt} f(t) = \frac{d}{dt} y(t)$
  - Use of Derivative property: Finding the impulse response from the unit-step response
    - *If  $y(t) = u(t) * h(t)$ , then  $\frac{d}{dt} y(t) = \frac{d}{dt} u(t) * h(t) = \delta(t) * h(t) = h(t)$*
- Start Point
  - If the two signals have start points at  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , then the start point of their convolution will be at  $t_1 + t_2$
- End Point
  - Similarly for the end points, if the two signals have end points at  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , then the end point of their convolution will be at  $t_1 + t_2$
- Width
  - From the above two properties, we can see that if the two signals have widths  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ , then the width of their convolution will be  $W_1 + W_2$

# The Impulse Function $\delta(t)$

- The impulse function is the limit of  $\frac{1}{T} \text{rect}\left(\frac{t}{T}\right)$  as  $T \rightarrow 0$ 
  - Infinitesimal Width
  - Infinite Height
  - Of course, it integrates to 1. ( $0 * \infty = 1$ )
- Sifting
  - $\int_a^b \delta(t - t_0) f(t) dt = \begin{cases} f(t_0), & t_0 \in [a, b] \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$
- Sampling
  - $f(t) \delta(t - t_0) = f(t_0) \delta(t - t_0)$
- Unit-step derivative
  - $\frac{du}{dt} = \delta(t)$

# Sampling and Analog Reconstruction

- If we have an original analog signal  $f(t)$
- Our digital samples of the signal are obtained through sampling property as:
  - $f[n] = f(nT)$  where  $T$  is our sampling period; this is Analog to Digital (A/D) conversion
  - This results in infinitely many copies of the original signal's Fourier Transform spaced by  $\frac{2\pi}{T}$  and scaled by  $\frac{1}{T}$
- We must make sure to satisfy Nyquist Criterion:
  - $T < \frac{1}{2B}$  or  $f_s > 2B$
- Following A/D conversion, we perform D/A conversion, then low-pass filter our signal in order to obtain our original signal according to the following relation
- $f(t) = \sum_n f_n \text{sinc}\left(\frac{\pi}{T}(t - nT)\right)$
- For a more complete explanation, take ECE 310!

# LTIC

- LTIC stands for Linearity Time-Invariance and Causality (sometimes called LSIC, where SI means Shift-Invariance)
- Linearity
  - Satisfy Homogeneity and Additivity
  - Can be summarized by Superposition
    - If  $x_1(t) \rightarrow y_1(t)$  and  $x_2(t) \rightarrow y_2(t)$ , then  $ax_1(t) + bx_2(t) \rightarrow ay_1(t) + by_2(t)$
- Shift Invariance
  - If  $x(t) \rightarrow y(t)$  then  $x(t - t_0) \rightarrow y(t - t_0) \forall t_0$  and  $x(t)$
- Causality
  - Output cannot depend on future input values

# BIBO Stability

- A system is BIBO stable if for any bounded input, we obtain a bounded output
- Two ways to check BIBO stability
- By the definition:
  - *If  $|f(t)| \leq \alpha < \infty$ , then  $|y(t)| \leq \beta < \infty \forall t$*
- By Absolute Integrability
  - $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)| dt < \infty$



# Laplace Transform

- The Laplace Transform is another way we can capture the frequency content of a signal.
  - So then why do we need it?
  - It can be used for stability analysis and initial value circuit problems
- $s = \sigma + j\omega$
- $\hat{H}(s) = \int_0^{\infty} h(t)e^{-st} dt$
- $h(t) = \textit{big mess}$ 
  - Use Partial Fraction Expansion and Inspection for the Inverse Laplace Transform!
- Every Laplace transform has a region of convergence.
- If you are instead given the transfer characteristic, the ROC is the right half plane from the rightmost pole.
- s-plane has x-axis of  $\sigma$  and y-axis of  $j\omega$

# Applications of the Laplace Transform

- BIBO Stability
  - If the ROC of a system includes the  $\sigma = 0$  line, the system is stable.
- Initial Value Circuit Problems
  - A distinct advantage of Laplace Transforms is that they can give the full response of a system, while Fourier Transforms only give us the zero-state response.
  - When transferring a circuit into the s-domain we need to do a few things:
    - Take the Laplace transform of all sources
    - Capacitors go to  $\frac{1}{sC}$ ; inductors go to  $sL$
    - For initial state on a capacitor, place a current source in parallel with the capacitor that points from “-” to “+” with value of  $Cv(0^-)$  where  $v(0^-)$  is the initial voltage across the capacitor
    - For initial state on an inductor, place a voltage source in series with the inductor such that the current through inductor enters the positive terminal first. This source should have a voltage of  $Li(0^-)$  where  $i(0^-)$  is the initial current traveling through the inductor