# Periodic signals

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#### **Definition 0.1 (Periodic signal, fundamental period)**

A signal  $x \in \mathcal{F}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K})$  is **periodic** if there exists  $T > 0$  such that for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x(t + T) = x(t)$ . The smallest  $T_0 > 0$ such that  $x(t+T_0)=x(t)$  for any  $t\in\mathbb{R}$  is the **fundamental period**. We denote  ${\cal F}_{T_0}(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{K})$  the subspace of periodic signals with period  $T_0$ .

### **Remarks:**

- If a signal x is periodic with period  $T_0$ , then it is with period  $kT_0$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . This is a cornerstone property intensively used in the next part.
- In other words, a signal x is periodic with period T if it is invariant by a pure delay of T, i.e.  $\tau_T(x) = x$ .

# **Definition 0.2 (Fundamental frequency, fundamental impulse)**

Let  $x \in \mathcal{F}_{\tau_0}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K})$  be a periodic signal with period  $T_0$ . The **fundamental frequency** of x is the number  $f_0 = \frac{1}{T_0}$  $\frac{1}{T_0}$ , and the **fundamental impulse** of x is the number  $\omega_0 = 2\pi f_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  $\frac{1}{T_0}$ .

# **Definition 0.3 (Complex exponential, cosine)**

The **complex exponential** of fundamental impulse  $\omega_0$ , amplitude  $A > 0$  and phase  $\varphi_0 \in [0, 2\pi]$  is the following signal in  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C})$ :

$$
e_{\omega_0,A,\varphi_0}:t\mapsto A\exp\left(i(\omega_0t+\varphi_0)\right)
$$

We simply denote  $e_{\omega_0} = e_{\omega_0,1,0}$  the complex exponential of amplitude  $A = 1$  and phase  $\varphi_0 = 0$ . The  $\bf{cosine}$  of fundamental impulse  $\omega_0$ , amplitude  $A>0$  and phase  $\varphi_0\in[0,2\pi[$  is the following signal in  ${\cal F}_{T_0}(\R,\Bbb C)$ :

$$
c_{\omega_0,A,\varphi_0}:t\mapsto A\cos(\omega_0 t+\varphi_0)
$$

We simply denote  $c_{\omega_0} = c_{\omega_0,1,0}$  the cosine of amplitude  $A = 1$  and phase  $\varphi_0 = 0$ .

#### **Remarks:**

- In With these definitions, we can check that the complex exponential and cosine of fundamental impulse  $\omega_0$  are periodic signals with period  $\mathcal{T}_0=\frac{2\pi}{\pi}$  $\frac{1}{\omega_0}$ .
- If a periodic signal with period  $T_0$  is the input of an LTI system, then the corresponding output is with period  $T_0$  as well. Indeed let an LTI system L, a periodic signal x with period  $T_0$ , et  $y=L(x)$  the corresponding output. Since LTI systems commute with pure delays,

$$
\tau_{\mathcal{T}_0}(y) = \tau_{\mathcal{T}_0}(L(x)) = L(\tau_{\mathcal{T}_0}(x)) = L(x) = y
$$

thus y is also periodic with period  $T_0$ .

► As we are going to see in Example [0.1,](#page-2-0) we often deal in practice with signals of the form  $t\mapsto e_{\omega_0,A,\varphi_0}(t) \Upsilon(t)$  and  $t\mapsto c_{\omega_0,A,\varphi_0}(t)\Upsilon(t),$  namely zero over  $]-\infty,0[$  and oscillating over  $[0,+\infty[$ . These signals will be the matter of a future lecture.

If a signal x is periodic with period  $| \tau_0,$  signal  $t \mapsto |x(t)|^2$  is clearly periodic with period  $| \tau_0|$  as well. Thus for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*,$ 

$$
\int_{-\pi T_0}^{\pi T_0} |x(t)|^2 dt = 2n \int_0^{T_0} |x(t)|^2 dt
$$

When n goes to  $+\infty$ , we note that a non-zero periodic signal has infinite energy. However, the average power of such a periodic signal  $x$  is:

$$
P(x) = \lim_{t \to +\infty} \frac{1}{2t} \int_{-t}^{t} |x(u)|^2 du = \lim_{n \to +\infty} \frac{1}{2nT_0} \int_{-nT_0}^{nT_0} |x(u)|^2 du = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{0}^{T_0} |x(u)|^2 du
$$

We are going to define a subspace of  $\mathcal F_{\tau_0}(\R,\mathbb K)$  containing periodic signals with period  $\tau_0$  which are locally square integrable, i.e. they have a finite average power.

## **Lemma 0.1**

Let x be a periodic signal with period  $T_0$ . For any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$
\int_{a}^{a+T_0} x(t)dt = \int_{0}^{T_0} x(t)dt
$$

**PROOF** : If  $a \in [0, T_0]$ , then  $T_0 \in [a, a + T_0]$ . By the change of variable  $t \mapsto t - T_0$ , we get

$$
\int_{a}^{a+T_0} x(t)dt = \int_{a}^{T_0} x(t)dt + \int_{T_0}^{a+T_0} x(t)dt = \int_{a}^{T_0} x(t)dt + \int_{0}^{a} x(t+T_0)dt = \int_{0}^{T_0} x(t)dt
$$

In general, let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $b = a - \frac{a}{b}$  $T_0$  $\left| T_0, \text{ then } b \in [0, T_0] \text{ and by the change of variable } t \mapsto t - \left| \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right|$  $T_0$  $T_0$ ,

$$
\int_{a}^{a+T_0} x(t)dt = \int_{b}^{b+T_0} x(t)dt = \int_{0}^{T_0} x(t)dt
$$

This lemma indicates that the integral of a periodic signal with period  $T_0$  is identical on any interval of length  $T_0$ . Therefore, we can now define the subspace of signals with finite average power and define on this subspace a scalar product base on the average power, instead of the energy which is infinite.

# **Definition 0.4**

We denote  $L^2_{\tau_0}(\R,\mathbb{K})$  the subspace of  ${\cal F}_{\tau_0}(\R,\mathbb{K})$  containing the periodic signals with period  $\tau_0$  which are square integrable over  $[0, T_0]$ , i.e.

$$
L^2_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{K})=\left\{x\in\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{K}),\frac{1}{\mathcal{T}_0}\int_0^{\mathcal{T}_0}|x(t)|^2dt<+\infty\right\}
$$

**Definition 0.5** We define a **scalar product** / **Hermitian product** over  $\mathcal{L}^2_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K})$  by

$$
\forall (x,y) \in L_{T_0}^2(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{K})^2 \qquad \langle x,y \rangle_{T_0} = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} x(t) y^*(t) dt
$$

From this scalar / Hermitian product, we can define the norm of a signal  $x$  to which we can connect the average power of the signal:

$$
\forall x \in L_{\mathcal{T}_0}^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K}) \qquad P(x) = \|x\|_{\mathcal{T}_0}^2 = \langle x, x \rangle_{\mathcal{T}_0}
$$

i.e.

$$
\forall x \in L_{T_0}^2(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K}) \quad P(x) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} |x(t)|^2 dt
$$

## **Remarks:**

- $\blacktriangleright$  We defined these integrals over the interval  $[0, T_0]$  but according to the lemma, any interval of length  $T_0$  is suitable. In some cases, it is more interesting to exploit the symmetry of interval  $\begin{bmatrix} -T_0 \end{bmatrix}$  $\frac{T_0}{2}$ ,  $\frac{T_0}{2}$ 2  $\Big]$ , when we deal with odd or even signals for example.
- $\triangleright$  We can define cross-correlation and autocorrelation of periodic signals from this new scalar product.

# **Proposition 0.2**

The autocorrelation of a periodic signal with period  $T_0$  is also a periodic signal with period  $T_0$ .

**PROOF**: Let  $x \in L^2_{T_0}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K})$ .

$$
\forall t \in \mathbb{R} \qquad \gamma_{\mathsf{x}}(t+\mathcal{T}_0)=\langle \mathsf{x}, \tau_{t+\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathsf{x}) \rangle = \langle \mathsf{x}, \tau_t(\mathsf{x}) \rangle = \gamma_{\mathsf{x}}(t)
$$

because the periodicity of x implies  $\tau_{t+T_0}(x) = \tau_t(\tau_{T_0}(x)) = \tau_t(x)$ .

Now we study the convolution of two non-zero periodic signals x and y with the same period  $T_0$ . Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then signals  $u \mapsto y(t - u)$  and  $u \mapsto x(u)y(t - u)$  are also periodic with period  $T_0$ , thus

$$
(x * y)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(u)y(t-u)du = \lim_{n \to +\infty} \int_{-nT_0}^{nT_0} x(u)y(t-u)du = \lim_{n \to +\infty} 2n \int_0^{T_0} x(u)y(t-u)du = +\infty
$$

This result is not surprising, since the notions of energy and convolution are connected through correlation, and non-zero periodic signals have infinite energy. As for the scalar product, we have to adapt our definition of convolution.

## **Definition 0.6 (Circular convolution)**

The **circular convolution**  $\otimes$  is a product in  $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{K})$  defined by

$$
\forall (x,y)\in \mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{T}_0}(\mathbb{R},\mathbb{K})^2 \qquad \forall t\in \mathbb{R} \qquad (x\otimes y)(t)=\frac{1}{\mathcal{T}_0}\int_0^{\mathcal{T}_0}x(u)y(t-u)du
$$

**Remark:** The circular convolution of two periodic signals x and y with period  $T_0$  is also periodic with period  $T_0$ . Indeed, for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
(x \otimes y)(t + T_0) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} x(u)y(t + T_0 - u) du = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} x(u)y(t - u) du = (x \otimes y)(t)
$$



## **Example 0.1**

We go back to the RC circuit and we look for its response to the input  $V(t)=\sin(\omega_0 t)\Upsilon(t)=\cos\left(\omega_0 t-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\Upsilon(t),$ which is periodic over  $[0, +\infty]$ . We determine this response with two techniques developped so far: solving the governing differential equation and computing the convolution with the impulse response.

To abbreviate computations, we set  $\tau=RC$ , the time constant of the circuit. Recall that the solutions of the homogeneous differential equation are of the form  $u_c(t) = K \exp\left(-\frac{t}{2}\right)$ τ ), with  $K \in \mathbb{R}$ . We look for a particular solution of the form  $u_c(t)=A\sin(\omega_0 t)+B\cos(\omega_0 t)$  over  $[0,+\infty[$ . The derivative of such a function is  $u_c'(t)=A\omega_0\cos(\omega_0 t)-B\omega_0\sin(\omega_0 t)$ . Then the differential equation becomes over  $[0, +\infty]$ :

$$
(A - B\tau\omega_0)\sin(\omega_0 t) + (A\tau\omega_0 + B)\cos(\omega_0 t) = \sin(\omega_0 t)
$$

By identification, we get  $A - B\tau\omega_0 = 1$  and  $A\tau\omega_0 + B = 0$ , yielding

$$
A = \frac{1}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \quad \text{and} \quad B = -\frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2}
$$

Thus we have the solution

$$
u_c(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0\\ K \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) + \frac{1}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \sin(\omega_0 t) - \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \cos(\omega_0 t) & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases}
$$

Since  $u_c$  in continuous in  $t = 0$ ,

$$
\lim_{t \to 0^-} u_c(t) = 0 = \lim_{t \to 0^+} u_c(t) = K - \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2}
$$

for any  $t \in [0, +\infty[,$ 

$$
u_c(t) = \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) + \frac{1}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \sin(\omega_0 t) - \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \cos(\omega_0 t)
$$

Now we want to retrieve this result by the convolution of  $V(t)$  with impulse response  $h(t) = \frac{1}{\tau} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right)$ τ  $\int$   $\Upsilon(t)$ . For  $t\in ]-\infty,0[$ , the supports of  $u_c(u)$  and  $h(t-u)$  are disjoint, thus  $u_c(t)=(V*h)(t)=0.$  For  $t\in [0,+\infty[,$ 

$$
u_c(t) = (V * h)(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \Upsilon(u) \sin(\omega_0 u) \frac{1}{\tau} \exp\left(-\frac{t - u}{\tau}\right) \Upsilon(t - u) du
$$
  
=  $\frac{1}{\tau} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \int_0^t \sin(\omega_0 u) \exp\left(\frac{u}{\tau}\right) du$ 

A double integration by parts (left to the interested reader) gives

$$
\int_0^t \sin(\omega_0 u) \exp\left(\frac{u}{\tau}\right) du = \frac{\tau^2 \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} + \frac{\tau}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \sin(\omega_0 t) \exp\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) - \frac{\tau^2 \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \cos(\omega_0 t) \exp\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right)
$$

Hence we retrieve:

$$
u_c(t) = \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) + \frac{1}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \sin(\omega_0 t) - \frac{\tau \omega_0}{1 + \tau^2 \omega_0^2} \cos(\omega_0 t)
$$

Note that  $\displaystyle\lim_{t\to+\infty}\exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right)$ τ  $\Big) = 0$  so that for  $t \gg \tau,$ 

$$
u_c(t) \approx \frac{1}{1+\tau^2\omega_0^2}\sin(\omega_0 t) - \frac{\tau\omega_0}{1+\tau^2\omega_0^2}\cos(\omega_0 t)
$$

This is called the **steady state** of the system. For  $t \approx \tau$ , we have to take into account the first term which is not negligible, corresponding to *transient state*, i.e. the transition between the off state for  $t < 0$  and the steady state for  $t \gg \tau$ . Finally, note that the steady state is expressed as a function of  $sin(\omega_0 t)$  and  $cos(\omega_0 t)$ , namely the sine and cosine with the same period as the input sine  $sin(\omega_0 t)$ . We develop this notion in the next part.