

Principles of Communications

ECS 332

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4.2 Energy and Power



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Wednesday 14:30-15:30

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Review: Energy and Power

- Consider a signal $g(t)$.
- Total (normalized) **energy**:

Parseval's Theorem [2.43]

[Defn. 4.12]
$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt \stackrel{\downarrow}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |G(f)|^2 df.$$

- Average (normalized) **power**:

[Defn. 4.14]
$$P_g = \left\langle |g(t)|^2 \right\rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt.$$

time-average operator

[Defn. 4.15a]

Power Calculation: Special Cases

	$g(t)$	$P_g = \langle g(t) ^2 \rangle$
Linear combination of complex exponential functions	$\sum_k c_k e^{j2\pi f_k t}$ <p>where the f_k are distinct</p>	$\sum_k c_k ^2$
Linear combination of sinusoids	$\sum_k A_k \cos(2\pi f_k t + \phi_k)$ <p>where the f_k are positive and distinct</p>	$\frac{1}{2} \sum_k A_k ^2$

Inner Product (Cross Correlation)

- Vectors

$$\langle \bar{x}, \bar{y} \rangle = \bar{x} \cdot \bar{y}^* = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}^* = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k^*$$

Complex conjugate

When the vectors are real-valued, the operation is the same as dot product that you have seen in high school.

- Waveforms: Time-Domain

[Defn. 4.15b] $\langle x(t), y(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y^*(t) dt$

- Waveforms: Frequency Domain

$$\langle X(f), Y(f) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) Y^*(f) df$$

By Parseval's Theorem [2.43], these two calculations will give the same answer.

Inner Product (Cross Correlation)

- Vectors

$$\langle \bar{x}, \bar{y} \rangle = \bar{x} \cdot \bar{y}^* = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}^* = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k^*$$

Complex conjugate

When the vectors are real-valued, the operation is the same as dot product that you have seen in high school.

Example:

$$\left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle = (1)(-1) + (2)(0) + (-1)(-1) = 0$$

Time average vs. Inner Product

Inner Product:

$$\langle x(t), y(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y^*(t) dt$$

two arguments

Time Average:

$$\langle g(t) \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t) dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T g(t) dt.$$

one argument

Orthogonality

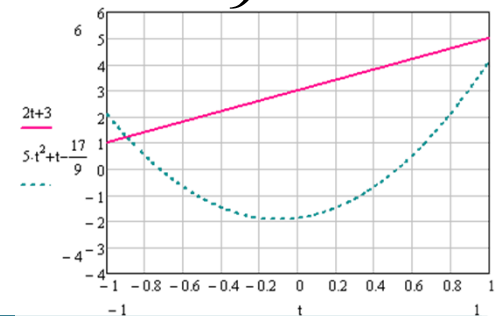
- Two signals are said to be **orthogonal** if their **inner product** is **zero**.
- The symbol **⊥** is used to denote orthogonality.

Vector:

$$\langle \bar{a}, \bar{b} \rangle = \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b}^* = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix}^* = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k b_k^* = 0$$

Example:

$$2t + 3 \text{ and } 5t^2 + t - \frac{17}{9} \text{ on } [-1, 1]$$



Time-domain:

$$\langle a, b \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a(t) b^*(t) dt = 0$$

Frequency domain:

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(f) B^*(f) df = 0$$

Example (Fourier Series):

$$\sin\left(2\pi k_1 \frac{t}{T}\right) \text{ and } \cos\left(2\pi k_2 \frac{t}{T}\right) \text{ on } [0, T]$$

$$e^{j2\pi n \frac{t}{T}} \text{ on } [0, T]$$

Important Properties

- Parseval's theorem

$$\langle x, y \rangle \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) y^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) Y^*(f) df \equiv \langle X, Y \rangle$$

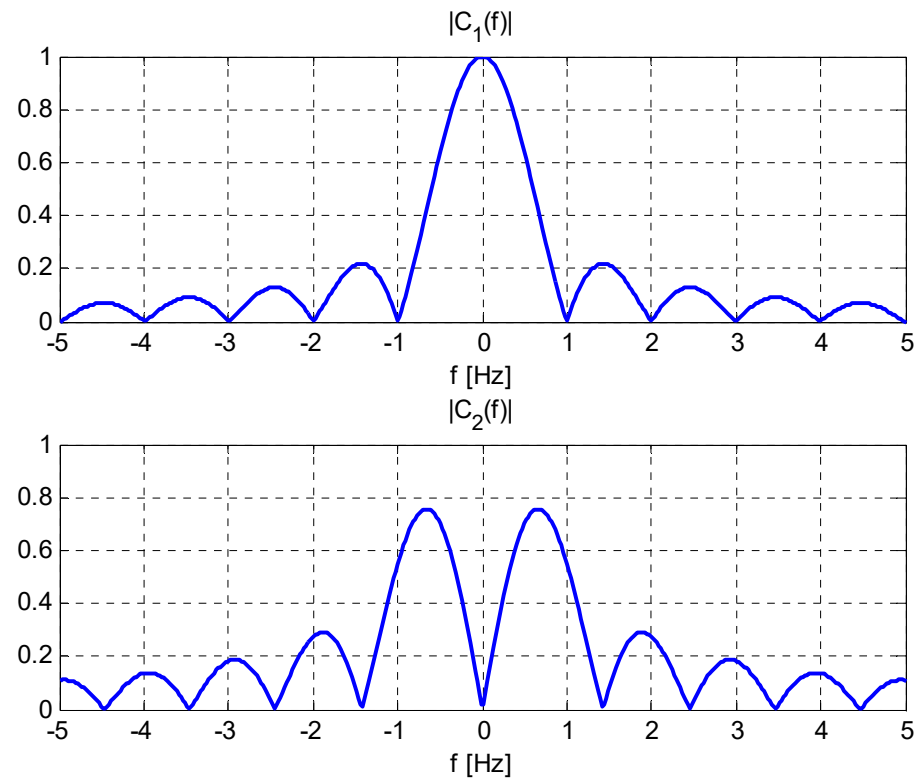
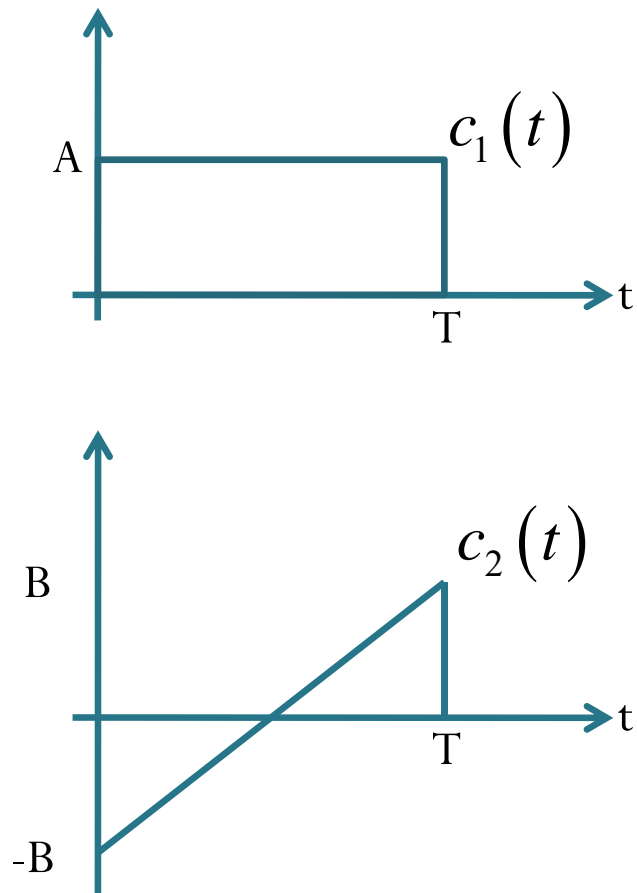
It is therefore sufficient
to check only on the
“convenient” domain.



$$x(t) \perp y(t) \quad \text{iff} \quad X(f) \perp Y(f).$$

- Useful observation: If the non-zero regions of two signals
 - do not overlap in time domain or
 - do not overlap in frequency domain,then the two signals are orthogonal (their inner product = 0).
- However, in general, orthogonal signals may overlap both in time and in frequency domain.

Orthogonality: Example 1

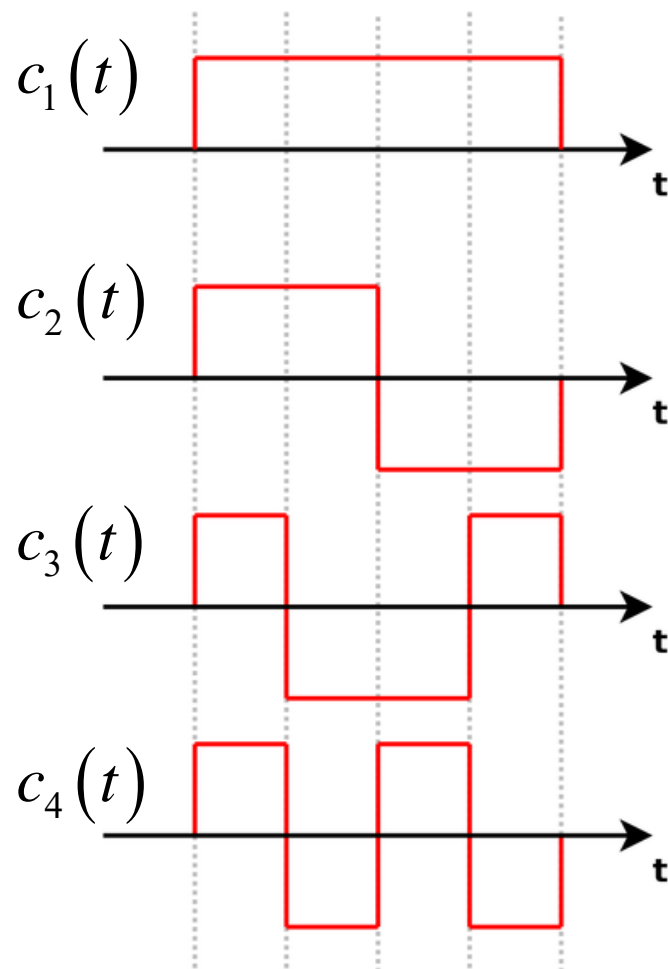


[CDMAEx.m]

The two waveforms above overlaps both in time domain and in frequency domain.

Orthogonality: Example 2

An example of four “mutually orthogonal” signals.



When $i \neq j$,

$$\langle c_i(t), c_j(t) \rangle = 0$$

Power Calculation

$g(t)$	$P_g = \langle g(t) ^2 \rangle$
$\sum_k a_k(t)$ where the $a_k(t)$ are orthogonal (e.g., do not overlap in the frequency domain)	$\sum_k P_{a_k}$

orthogonal summands

$$P_{\Sigma} \downarrow = \Sigma P$$

Special Cases: A Revisit

$g(t)$	$P_g = \langle g(t) ^2 \rangle$
$\sum_k c_k e^{j2\pi f_k t}$ <p>where the f_k are distinct</p>	$\sum_k c_k ^2$
$\sum_k A_k \cos(2\pi f_k t + \phi_k)$ <p>where the f_k are positive and distinct</p>	$\frac{1}{2} \sum_k A_k ^2$

The requirement that “the f_k are distinct” is there to guarantee that summands do not overlap in the frequency domain. This makes them orthogonal.

Power Calculation

$g(t)$	$P_g = \langle g(t) ^2 \rangle$
Periodic with period T_0	$\frac{1}{T_0} \int_{T_0} g(t) ^2 dt$
$\sum_k a_k(t)$ where the $a_k(t)$ are orthogonal (e.g., do not overlap in the frequency domain)	$\sum_k P_{a_k}$