

4.4 Energy and Power

Definition 4.27. For a signal $g(t)$, the instantaneous power $p(t)$ dissipated in the $1\text{-}\Omega$ resistor is $p_g(t) = |g(t)|^2$ regardless of whether $g(t)$ represents a voltage or a current. To emphasize the fact that this power is based upon unity resistance, it is often referred to as the **normalized power**.

Definition 4.28. The total (normalized) **energy** of a signal $g(t)$ is given by

$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} p_g(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T}^T |g(t)|^2 dt.$$

4.29. By the **Parseval's theorem** discussed in 2.39, we have

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

Definition 4.30. The average (normalized) **power** of a signal $g(t)$ is given by

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

*general formula
always work but difficult to apply.*

Definition 4.31. To simplify the notation, there are two operators that used angle brackets to define two frequently-used integrals: *some properties for the average operator*

(a) The **"time-average"** operator:

$$\langle g \rangle \equiv \langle g(t) \rangle \equiv \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t) dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T g(t) dt \quad (46)$$

(b) The **inner-product** operator:

$$\langle g_1, g_2 \rangle \equiv \langle g_1(t), g_2(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_1(t) g_2^*(t) dt \quad (47)$$

4.32. Using the above definition, we may write

- $E_g = \langle g, g \rangle = \langle G, G \rangle$ where $G = \mathcal{F}\{g\}$
- $P_g = \langle |g|^2 \rangle$

*① $g(t) = 5 \quad \langle g \rangle = 5$
 $\langle c \rangle = c$ for any constant c .*

② $\langle a g_1 + b g_2 \rangle = a \langle g_1 \rangle + b \langle g_2 \rangle$

*Definition
When $\langle g_1, g_2 \rangle = 0$,
we say g_1 and g_2 are
orthogonal.*

- Parseval's theorem: $\langle g_1, g_2 \rangle = \langle G_1, G_2 \rangle$
where $G_1 = \mathcal{F}\{g_1\}$ and $G_2 = \mathcal{F}\{g_2\}$

4.33. Time-Averaging over Periodic Signal: For **periodic signal** $g(t)$ with period T_0 , the time-average operation in (46) can be simplified to

$$\langle g \rangle = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{T_0} g(t) dt$$

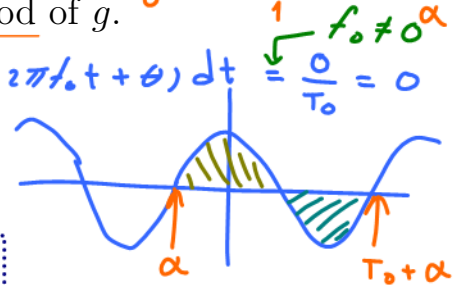
where the integration is performed over a period of g .

Example 4.34. $\langle \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) \rangle = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{T_0} \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) dt = \frac{0}{T_0} = 0$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & f_0 \neq 0, \\ \cos \theta, & f_0 = 0. \end{cases}$$

$f_0 = 0 \rightarrow \cos \theta$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & f_0 \neq 0, \\ \sin \theta, & f_0 = 0. \end{cases}$$



Similarly, $\langle \sin(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) \rangle =$

Example 4.35. $\langle \cos^2(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) \rangle = \langle \frac{1}{2} [1 + \cos(2\pi 2f_0 t + 2\theta)] \rangle$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} 0, & f_0 \neq 0 \\ \cos 2\theta, & f_0 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1/2, & f_0 \neq 0 \\ \cos^2 \theta, & f_0 = 0 \end{cases}$$

Example 4.36. $\langle e^{j(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)} \rangle = \langle \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) + j \sin(2\pi f_0 t + \theta) \rangle$

$$= \begin{cases} 0, & f_0 \neq 0 \\ e^{j\theta}, & f_0 = 0 \end{cases}$$

In particular,
 $\langle e^{j\beta t} \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & \beta \neq 0 \\ 1, & \beta = 0 \end{cases}$

Example 4.37. Suppose $g(t) = ce^{j2\pi f_0 t}$ for some (possibly complex-valued) constant c and (real-valued) frequency f_0 . Find P_g .

Ex. $g(t) = je^{j10\pi t}$

$$P_g = \langle |g(t)|^2 \rangle = \langle |c e^{j2\pi f_0 t}|^2 \rangle = \langle |c|^2 \rangle = |c|^2 \quad P_g = |j|^2 = 1$$

4.38. When the signal $g(t)$ can be expressed in the form $g(t) = \sum_k c_k e^{j2\pi f_k t}$ and the f_k are distinct, then its (average) power can be calculated from

$$P_g = \sum_k |c_k|^2$$

"power of sum" = "sum of power" of orthogonal signals

↑
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This is guaranteed when the signals do not overlap in the freq. domain.

Example 4.39. Suppose $g(t) = 2e^{j6\pi t} + 3e^{j8\pi t}$. Find P_g .

Handwritten notes: $f_1 = 3$, $f_2 = 4$, $f_1 \neq f_2$.
 $P_g = |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2$
 $P_g = 2^2 + 3^2 = 4 + 9 = 13$

Example 4.40. Suppose $g(t) = 2e^{j6\pi t} + 3e^{j6\pi t}$. Find P_g .

Handwritten notes: $f_1 = 3$, $f_2 = 3$, $f_1 = f_2$, \Rightarrow terms can be combined.
 $= 5e^{j6\pi t}$
 $P_g = 5^2 = 25$

Example 4.41. Suppose $g(t) = \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$. Find P_g .

Here, there are several ways to calculate P_g . We can simply use Example 4.35. Alternatively, we can first decompose the cosine into complex exponential functions using the Euler's formula:

Assume $f_0 \neq 0$.

① $\langle |\cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)|^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$ (4.35)

② $g(t) = \frac{1}{2} e^{j(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-j(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)} = \frac{1}{2} e^{j\theta} e^{j2\pi f_0 t} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-j\theta} e^{j2\pi(-f_0)t}$

Handwritten notes for ②: $P_g = |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \times 1 + \frac{1}{4} \times 1 = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$

4.42. The (average) power of a sinusoidal signal $g(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$ is

$$P_g = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}|A|^2, & f_0 \neq 0, \\ |A|^2 \cos^2 \theta, & f_0 = 0. \end{cases}$$

This property means any sinusoid with nonzero frequency can be written in the form

$$g(t) = \sqrt{2P_g} \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta).$$

4.43. Extension of 4.42: Consider sinusoids $A_k \cos(2\pi f_k t + \theta_k)$ whose frequencies are positive and distinct. The (average) power of their sum

$$g(t) = \sum_k A_k \cos(2\pi f_k t + \theta_k)$$

is

$$P_g = \frac{1}{2} \sum_k |A_k|^2.$$

Example 4.44. Suppose $g(t) = 2 \cos(2\pi\sqrt{3}t) + 4 \cos(2\pi\sqrt{5}t)$. Find P_g .

$$P_g = \frac{2^2}{2} + \frac{4^2}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(4+16) = 10$$

4.45. For *periodic* signal $g(t)$ with period T_0 , there is also no need to carry out the limiting operation to find its (average) power P_g . We only need to find an average carried out over a single period:

$$P_g = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} |g(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} 1^2 dt$$

(a) When the corresponding Fourier series expansion $g(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$ is known,

$$P_g = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |c_k|^2$$

(b) When the signal $g(t)$ is real-valued and its (compact) trigonometric Fourier series expansion $g(t) = c_0 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |c_k| \cos(k\omega_0 t + \angle c_k)$ is known,

$$P_g = c_0^2 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |c_k|^2$$

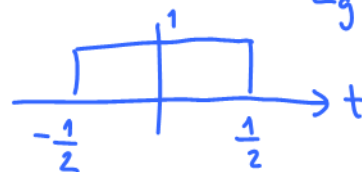
Definition 4.46. Based on Definitions 4.28 and 4.30, we can define three distinct classes of signals:

- (a) If E_g is finite and nonzero, g is referred to as an **energy signal**.
- (b) If P_g is finite and nonzero, g is referred to as a **power signal**.
- (c) Some signals¹⁷ are neither energy nor power signals.

• Note that the power signal has infinite energy and an energy signal has zero average power; thus the two categories are mutually exclusive.

Example 4.47. Rectangular pulse

$$g(t) = \text{rect}(t)$$



$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} 1^2 dt = 1$$

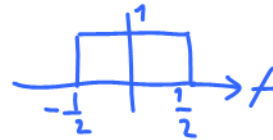
51 is an energy signal

¹⁷Consider $g(t) = t^{-1/4} 1_{[t_0, \infty)}(t)$, with $t_0 > 0$.

Example 4.48. Sinc pulse



$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |G(f)|^2 df = 1$$



Example 4.49. For $\alpha > 0$, $g(t) = Ae^{-\alpha t}1_{[0,\infty)}(t)$ is an energy signal with $E_g = |A|^2/2\alpha$.

Example 4.50. The rotating phasor signal $g(t) = Ae^{j(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)}$ is a power signal with $P_g = |A|^2$.

Example 4.51. The sinusoidal signal $g(t) = A \cos(2\pi f_0 t + \theta)$ is a power signal with $P_g = |A|^2/2$.

4.52. Consider the transmitted signal

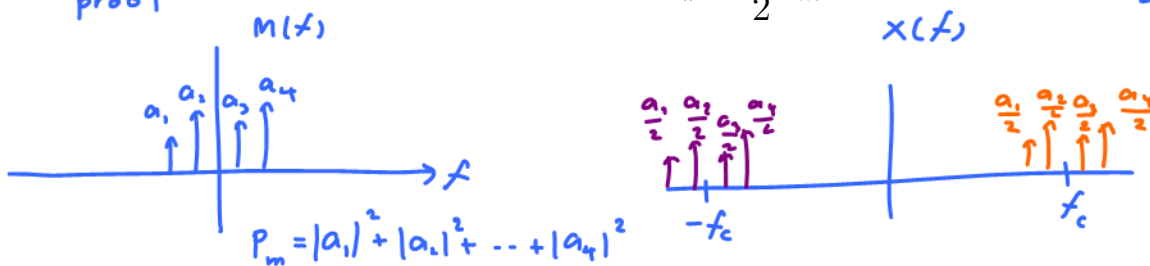
$$x(t) = m(t) \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta)$$

in DSB-SC modulation. Suppose $M(f - f_c)$ and $M(f + f_c)$ do not overlap (in the frequency domain).

(a) If $m(t)$ is a power signal with power P_m , then the average transmitted power is

$$P_x = \frac{1}{2} P_m = \frac{|a_1|^2}{2} + \frac{|a_2|^2}{2} + \dots + \frac{|a_4|^2}{2}$$

"proof"



(b) If $m(t)$ is an energy signal with energy E_m , then the transmitted energy is

$$E_x = \frac{1}{2} E_m.$$

- Q: Why is the power (or energy) reduced?

$$m^2(t) \cos^2(\dots)$$

- Remark: When $x(t) = \sqrt{2}m(t) \cos(2\pi f_c t + \theta)$ (with no overlapping between $M(f - f_c)$ and $M(f + f_c)$), we have $P_x = P_m$.