

# Chapter 2. Signals and Signal Space

*Communication Theory - 2026*

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EE / KNU

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# DEFINITION: SIGNAL AND SYSTEM

## Signal

A signal is a set of information or data.

The signals are functions of the independent variable **time t**.

- Examples: Audio signals, video signals, sensor data, etc.

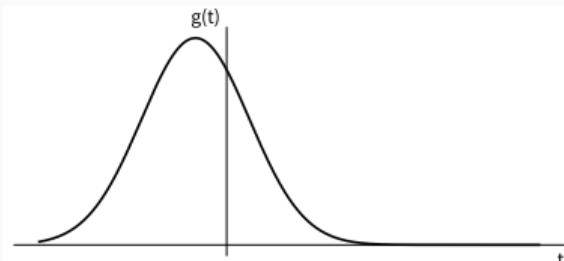
## System

Signals may be processed further by systems, which may modify them or extract additional information from them.

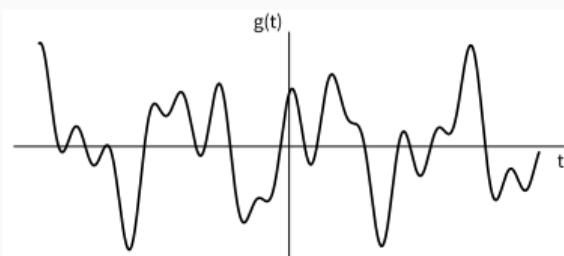
Thus, a system is an entity that processes signals (**inputs**) to yield another set of signals (**outputs**).

- For example, an antiaircraft radar system processes the received signals (inputs) to determine the position and velocity of an aircraft (outputs).
- More examples: Amplifiers, filters, modulators, demodulators, etc.

# ENERGY VS POWER SIGNALS



(a) Signal with finite energy



(b) Signal with finite power

**Fig. 2.1:** Examples of signals

## Energy Signal

A signal is said to be an energy signal if its energy is finite and its average power approaches zero.

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty, \quad P \rightarrow 0$$

## Power Signal

A signal is said to be a power signal if its average power is finite and its energy approaches infinite.

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty, \quad E \rightarrow \infty$$

## UNITS OF SIGNAL POWER

- The standard units of signal energy and power are the "joule" and the "watt".
- However, in practice, it is often customary to use logarithmic scales to describe signal power.
- A signal with average power of  $P$  watts has power of either  $P_{dBW}$  or  $P_{dBm}$ .

$$P_{dBW} = [10 \cdot \log_{10} P] \text{ dBW}$$

$$P_{dBm} = [30 + 10 \cdot \log_{10} P] \text{ dBm}$$

- For example,

$$P_{dBm} = -30 \text{ dBm} = 10^{-6} \text{ W.}$$

## EXAMPLE 2.1

**Q. Determine the suitable measures of the signals in Fig. 2.2.**

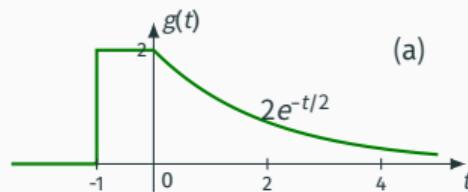


Fig. 2.2 (a)

Energy signal. Power approaches 0 as  $|t| \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-1}^0 (2)^2 dt + \int_0^{\infty} 4e^{-t} dt = 4 + 4 = 8$$

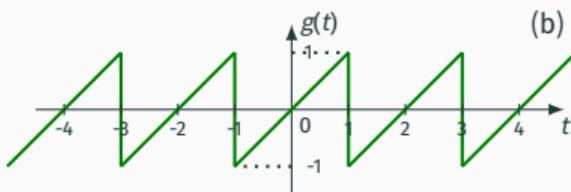


Fig. 2.2 (b)

Power signal. Averaging  $|g|^2(t)$  over an infinitely large interval is equivalent to averaging it over one period (2 seconds).

$$\begin{aligned} P_g &= \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 t^2 dt = \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 2.2: Signal for Example

# CLASSIFICATION OF SIGNALS

1. Continuous time and discrete time signals
2. Analog and digital signals
3. Periodic and aperiodic signals
4. Energy and power signals
5. Deterministic and probabilistic signals

## FIGURE 2.3 CONTINUOUS VS DISCRETE TIME SIGNALS

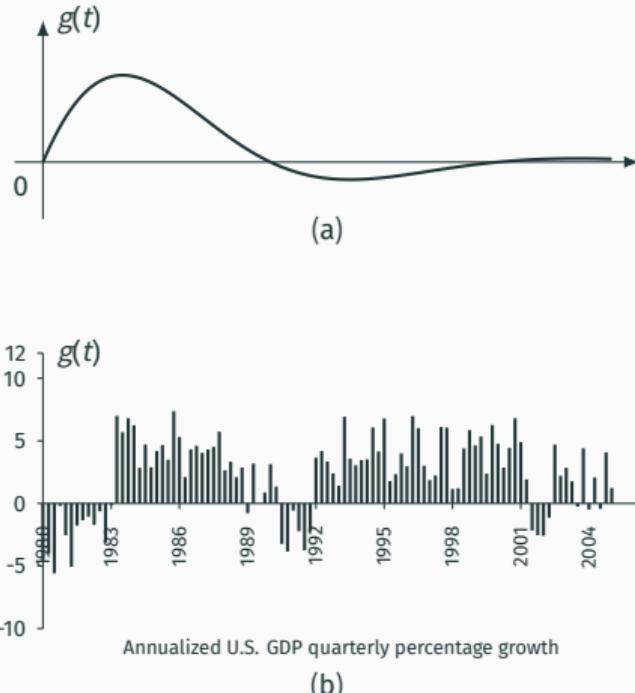


Fig. 2.3 (a)

**Continuous time signals** are specified for every value of time  $t$ . Many examples including:

- Audio recordings in analog media like LP, magnetic cassette, or reel-to-reel tapes.
- Signals received through AM/FM radio channel.

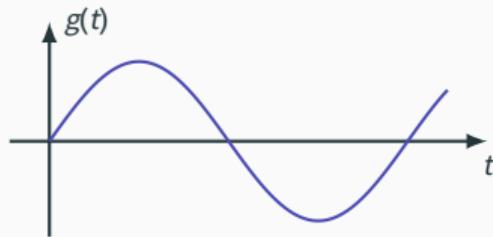
Fig. 2.3 (b)

**Discrete time signals** are specified only at discrete points of  $t = nT$ . Many examples including:

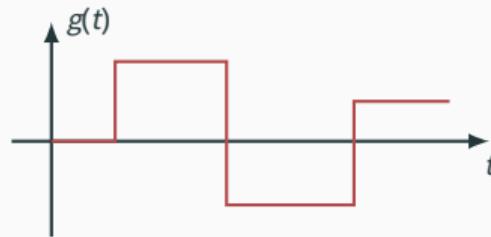
- The quarterly gross domestic product (GDP), stock market daily averages, and monthly sales of a corporation.
- Audio signals formatted by MP3, HE-AAC, FLAC, or ALAC.

Fig. 2.3: Continuous vs Discrete Time Signals

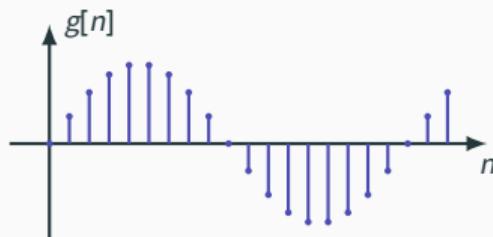
## FIGURE 2.4 CLASSIFICATION OF SIGNALS



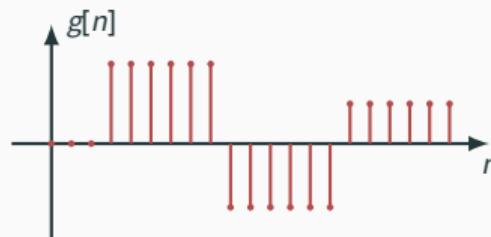
(a) Analog, Continuous-time



(b) Digital, Continuous-time



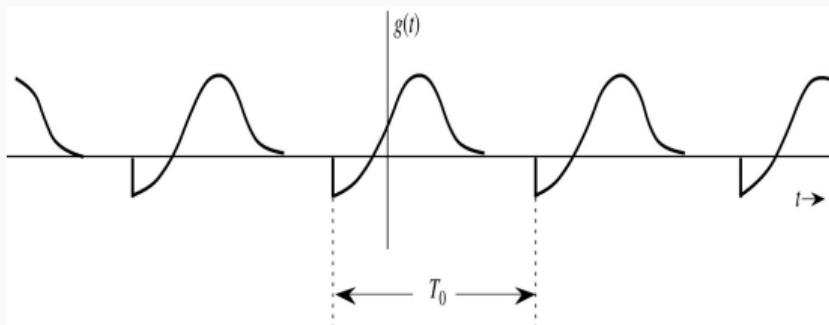
(c) Analog, Discrete-time



(d) Digital, Discrete-time

**Fig. 2.4:** Classification of signals based on amplitude and time domains

# PERIODIC AND APERIODIC SIGNALS



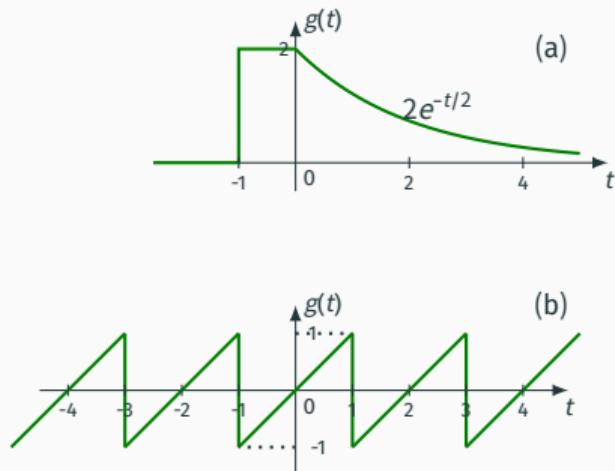
**Fig. 2.5:** Periodic signal of period  $T_0$

**Fig. 2.5**

A signal  $g(t)$  is **periodic** if there exists a positive constant  $T_0$ . The smallest value of  $T_0$  in Eq. (2.0) is the **period** of  $g(t)$ .

$$g(t) = g(t + T_0) \quad \text{for all } t \quad (2.5)$$

# ENERGY VS POWER SIGNALS



**Fig. 2.2:** Energy vs Power Signals

(Recap)

**Fig. 2.2(a) Energy Signal**

A signal is said to be an energy signal if its energy is finite and its average power approaches zero.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty \quad (2.6)$$

**Fig. 2.2(b) Power Signal**

A signal is said to be a power signal if its average power is finite and its energy approaches infinite.

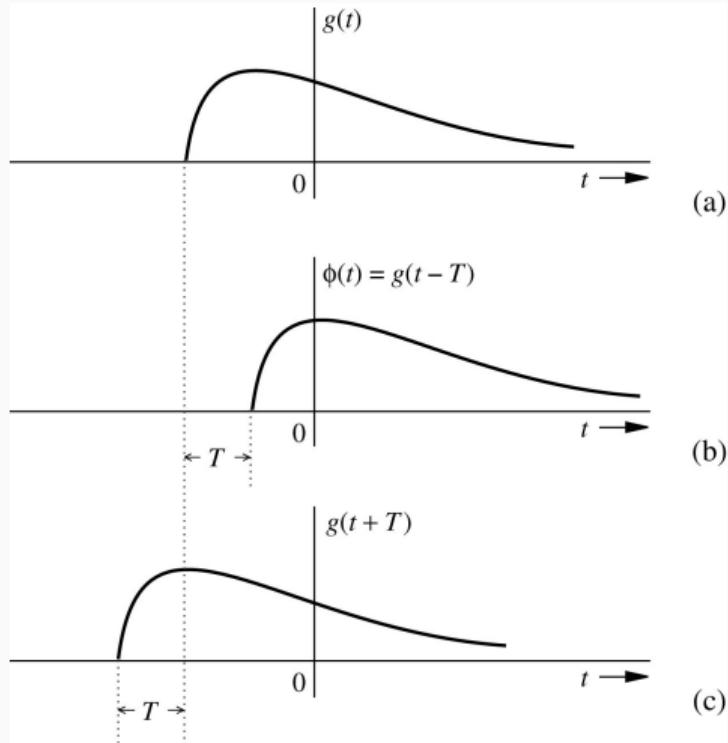
$$0 < \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt < \infty \quad (2.7)$$

## DETERMINISTIC AND RANDOM SIGNALS

• .  
• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.8)$$

## TIME SHIFTING A SIGNAL



**Fig. 2.6:** Time shifting a signal

**Fig. 2.6 Time shifting a signal**

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• .

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.9)$$

## TIME SCALING A SIGNAL

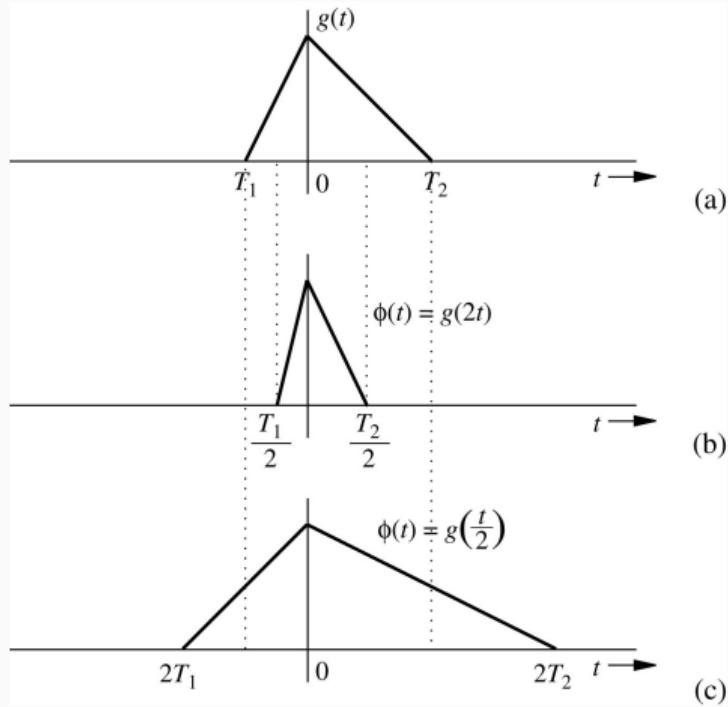


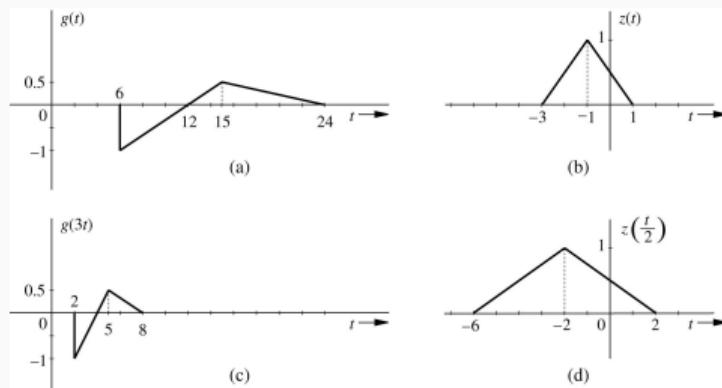
Fig. 2.7 Time scaling a signal

• .  
• .

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.10)$$

Fig. 2.7: Time scaling a signal

# EXAMPLES OF TIME COMPRESSION AND TIME EXPANSION OF SIGNALS

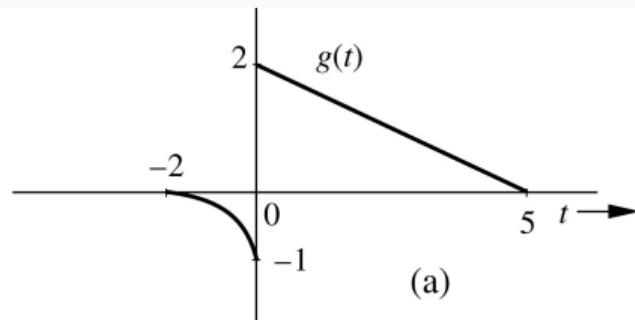


**Fig. 2.8:** Examples of time compression and time expansion of signals

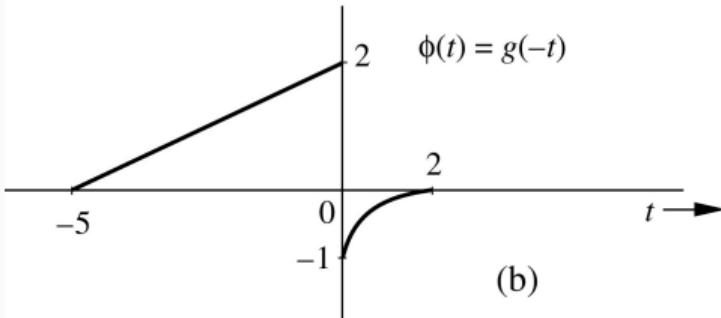
**Fig. 2.8**

$g(t) =$  (2.11)

## TIME INVERSION (REFLECTION) OF A SIGNAL



(a)



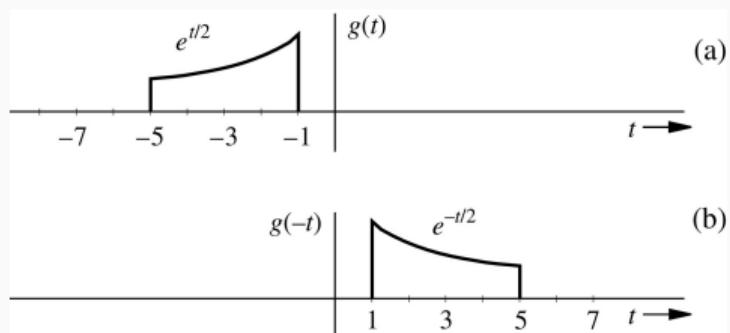
(b)

Fig. 2.9

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.12)$$

Fig. 2.9: Time inversion (reflection) of a signal

## EXAMPLE OF TIME INVERSION



**Fig. 2.10:** Example of time inversion

**Fig. 2.10**

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$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.13)$$

## (A) UNIT IMPULSE AND (B) ITS APPROXIMATION



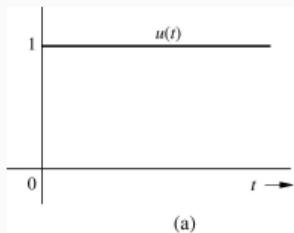
**Fig. 2.11:** (a) Unit impulse and (b) its approximation

**Fig. 2.11**

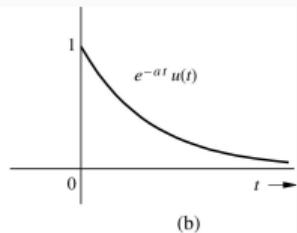
• .  
• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.14)$$

(A) UNIT STEP FUNCTION  $u(t)$ . (B) CAUSAL EXPONENTIAL  $e^{-at}u(t)$



(a)



(b)

**Fig. 2.12:** (a) Unit step function  $u(t)$ . (b) Causal exponential  $e^{-at}u(t)$

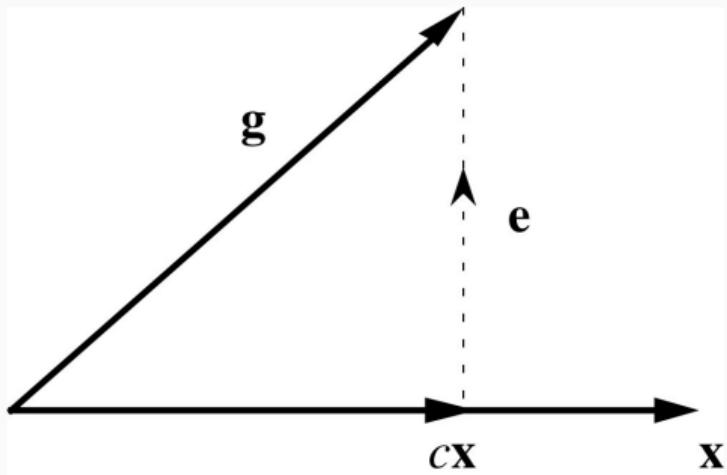
**Fig. 2.12**

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• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.15)$$

# SIGNALS VERSUS VECTORS

## COMPONENT (PROJECTION) OF A VECTOR ALONG ANOTHER VECTOR



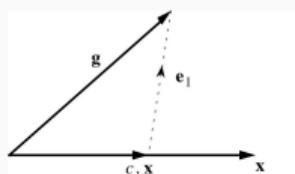
**Fig. 2.13:** Component (projection) of a vector along another vector

**Fig. 2.13**

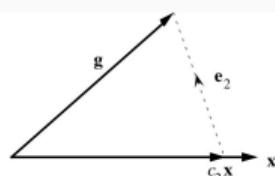
⋮  
⋮

$$g(t) = \quad (2.16)$$

# APPROXIMATIONS OF A VECTOR IN TERMS OF ANOTHER VECTOR



(a)



(b)

**Fig. 2.14:** Approximations of a vector in terms of another vector

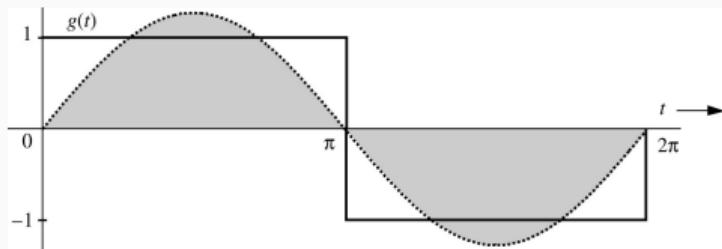
**Fig. 2.14**

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•

$$g(t) = \quad (2.17)$$

## DECOMPOSITION OF A SIGNAL AND SIGNAL COMPONENTS

# APPROXIMATION OF SQUARE SIGNAL IN TERMS OF A SINGLE SINUSOID



**Fig. 2.15:** Approximation of square signal in terms of a single sinusoid

**Fig. 2.15**

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• .

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.18)$$

## COMPLEX SIGNAL SPACE AND ORTHOGONALITY

# ENERGY OF THE SUM OF ORTHOGONAL SIGNALS

## SIGNALS FOR EXAMPLE 2.6

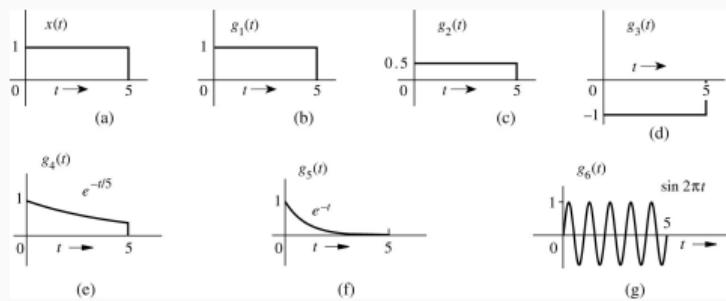


Fig. 2.16: Signals for Example 2.6

Fig. 2.16

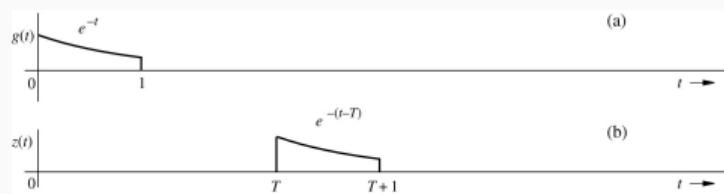
- •
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$$g(t) = \quad (2.19)$$

# CORRELATION OF SIGNALS

# CORRELATION FUNCTIONS

# PHYSICAL EXPLANATION OF THE AUTO-CORRELATION FUNCTION



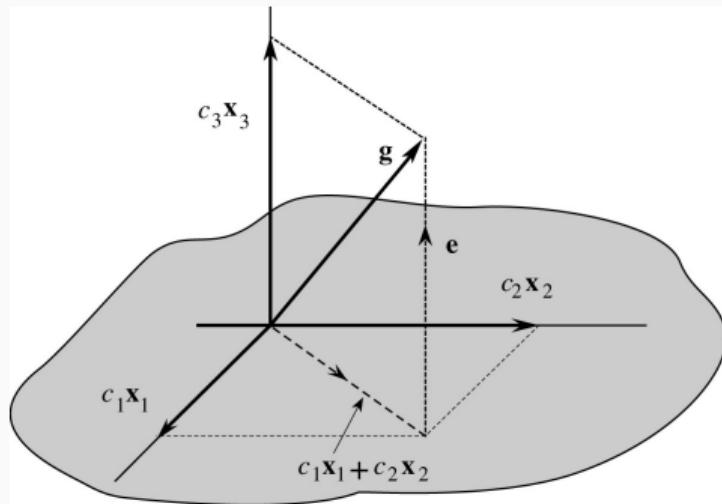
**Fig. 2.17:** Physical explanation of the auto-correlation function

**Fig. 2.17**

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• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.20)$$

# REPRESENTATION OF A VECTOR IN THREE-DIMENSIONAL SPACE



**Fig. 2.18:** Representation of a vector in three-dimensional space

**Fig. 2.18**

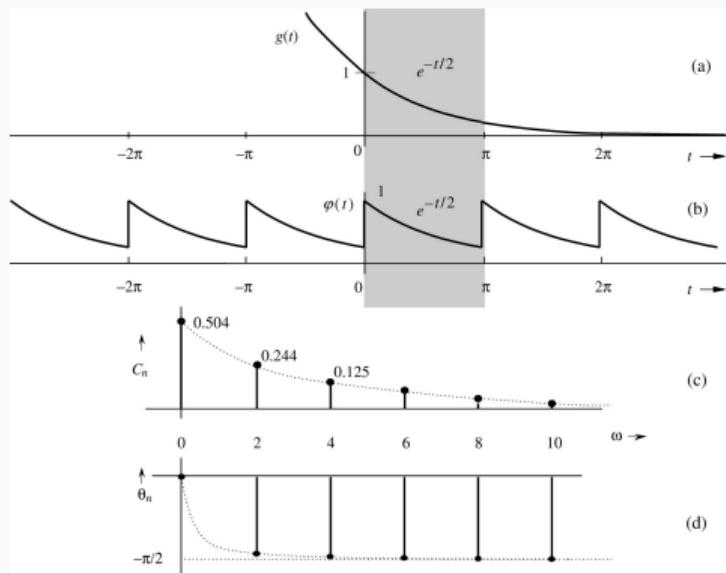
• .  
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$$g(t) = \quad (2.21)$$

# ORTHOGONAL VECTOR SPACE

# ORTHOGONAL SIGNAL SPACE

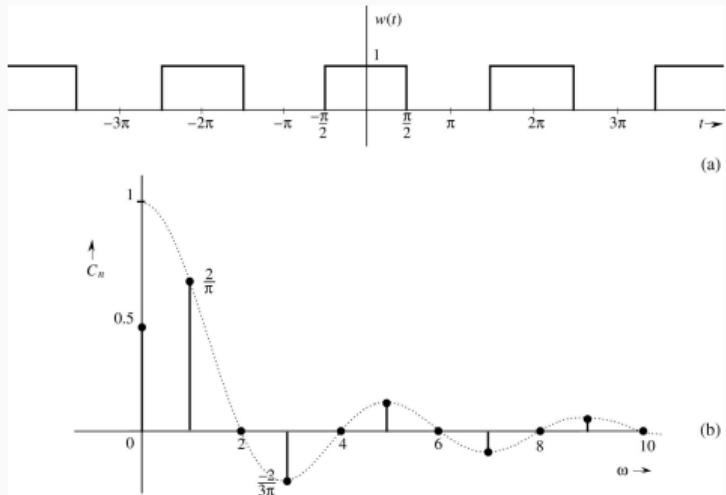
## PARSEVAL'S THEOREM



**Fig. 2.19:**

**Fig. 2.19**

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.22)$$



**Fig. 2.20:**

**Fig. 2.20**

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• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.23)$$

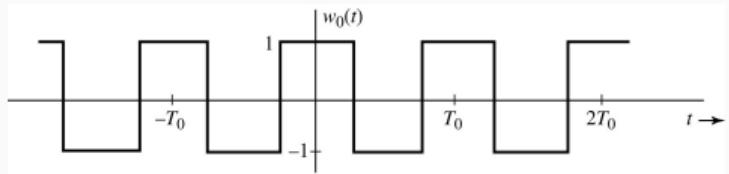
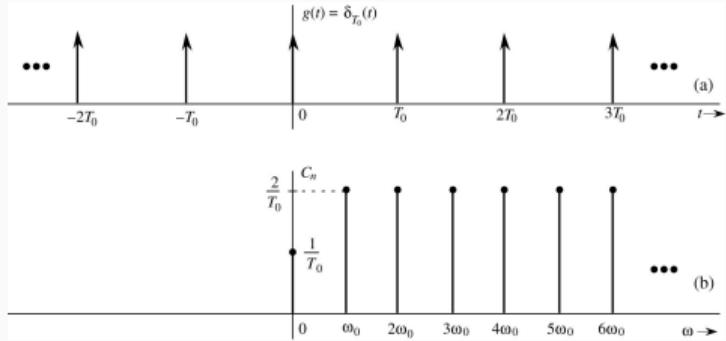


Fig. 2.21: .

Fig. 2.21

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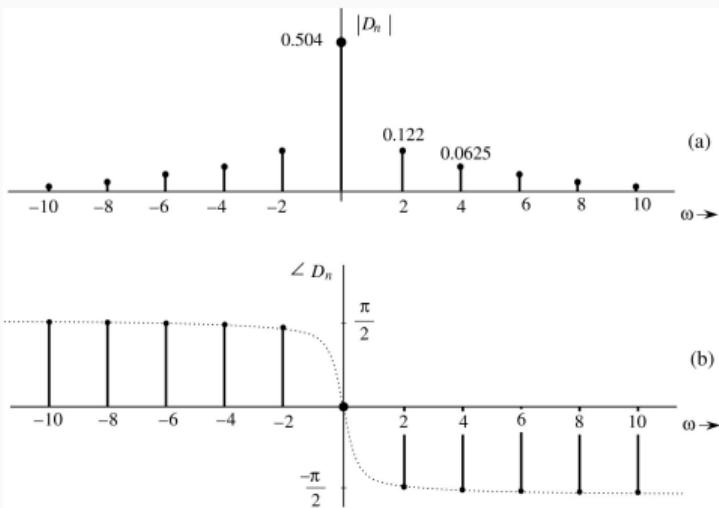
$$g(t) = \quad (2.24)$$



**Fig. 2.22:**

**Fig. 2.22**

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.25)$$

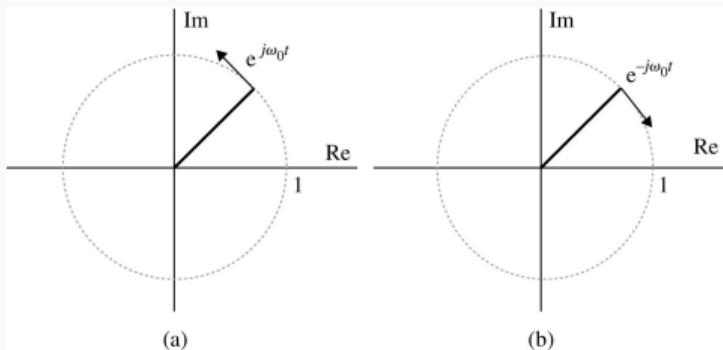


**Fig. 2.23**

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• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.26)$$

**Fig. 2.23:** .

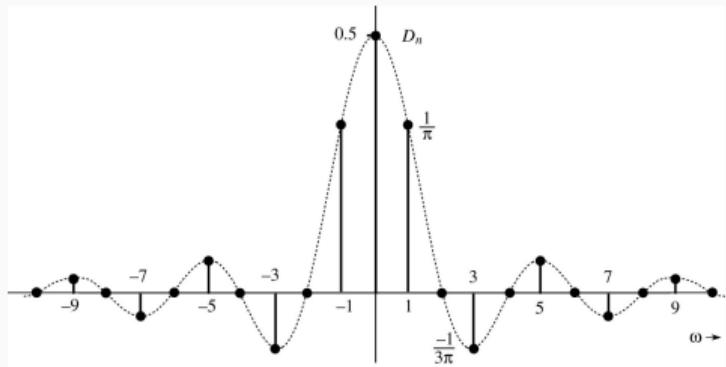


**Fig. 2.24:** .

**Fig. 2.24**

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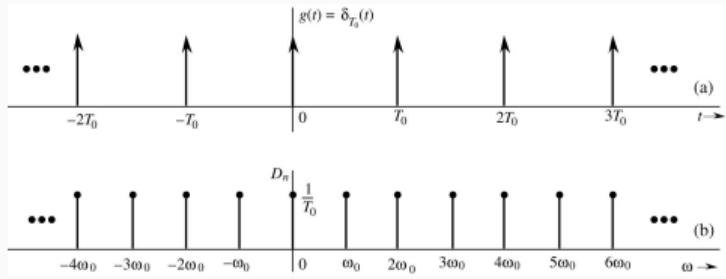
$$g(t) = \quad (2.27)$$



**Fig. 2.25:** .

**Fig. 2.25**

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.28)$$



**Fig. 2.26:**

**Fig. 2.26**

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.29)$$

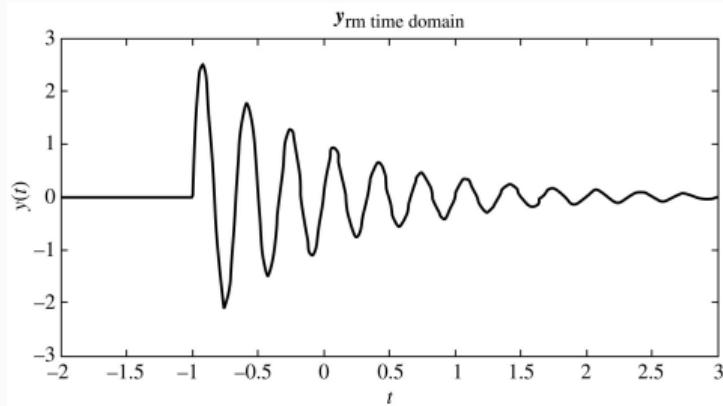
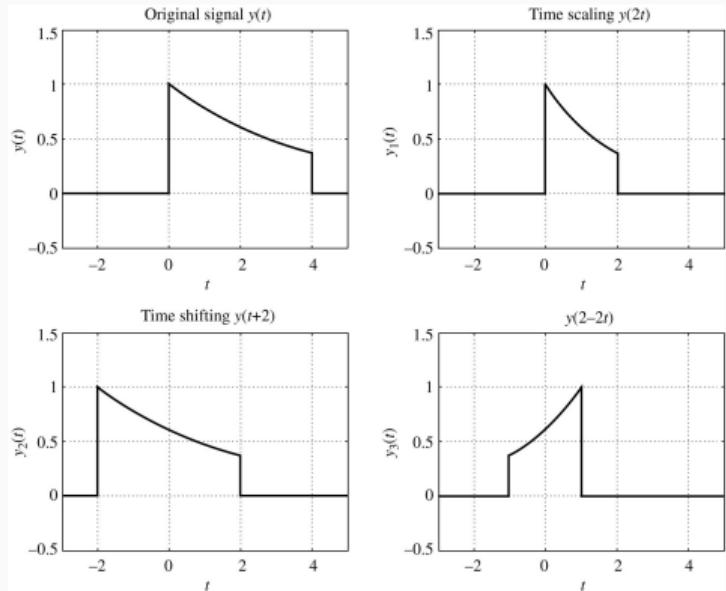


Fig. 2.27: .

Fig. 2.27

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.30)$$



**Fig. 2.28**

**Fig. 2.28**

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•  
•

$$g(t) = \quad (2.31)$$

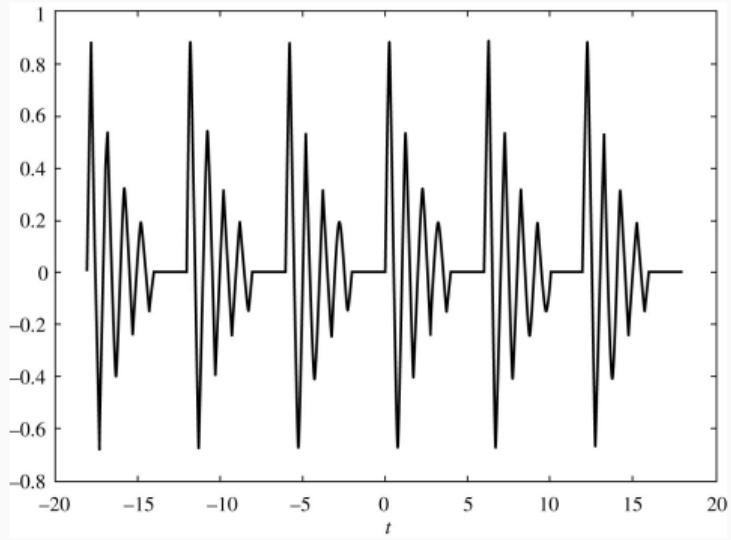
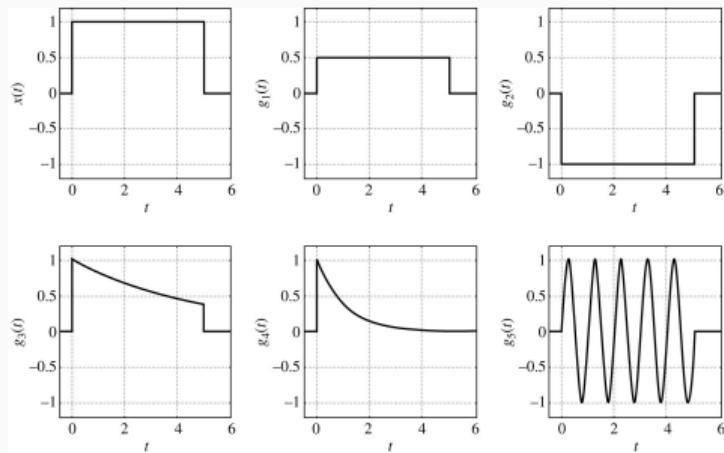


Fig. 2.29: .

Fig. 2.29

$$\begin{array}{c} \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \end{array} g(t) = \quad (2.32)$$

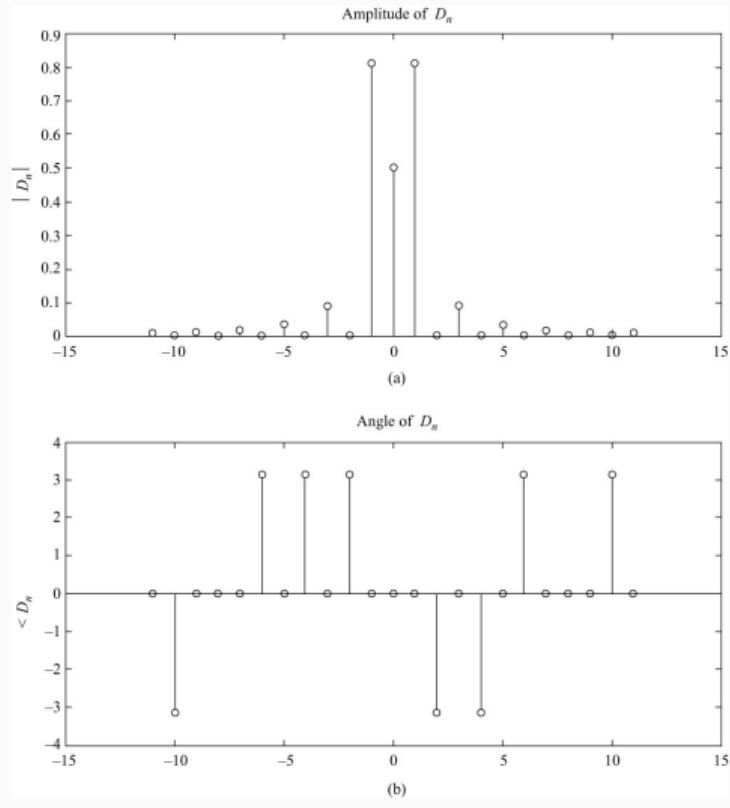


**Fig. 2.30:** .

**Fig. 2.30**

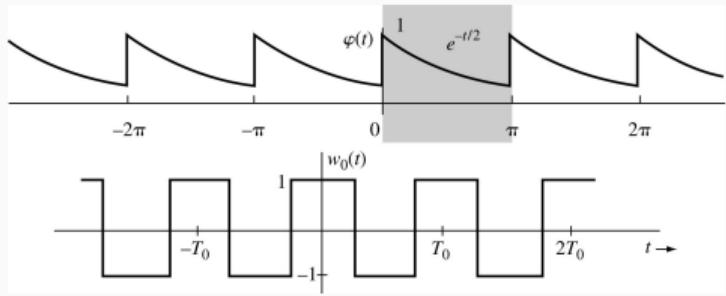
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$$g(t) = \quad (2.33)$$



**Fig. 2.31**

$$g(t) = \quad (2.34)$$

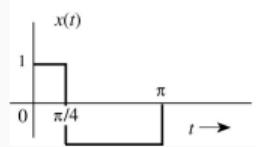
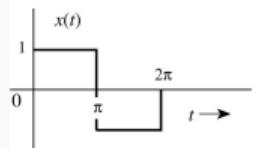
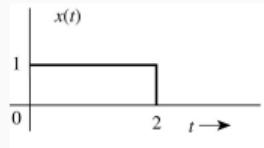


**Fig. 2.32:**

**Fig. 2.32**

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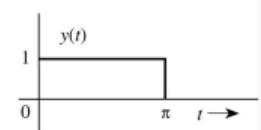
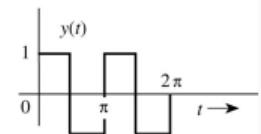
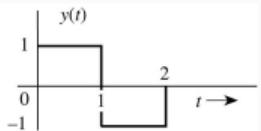
$$g(t) = \quad (2.35)$$



(a)

(b)

(c)

**Fig. 2.33**

$$g(t) = \dots \quad (2.36)$$

**Fig. 2.33:** .

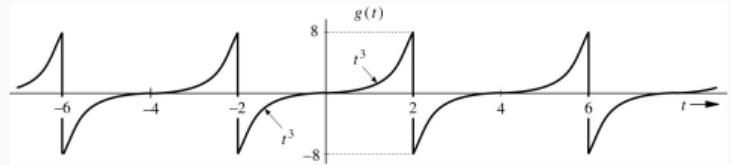
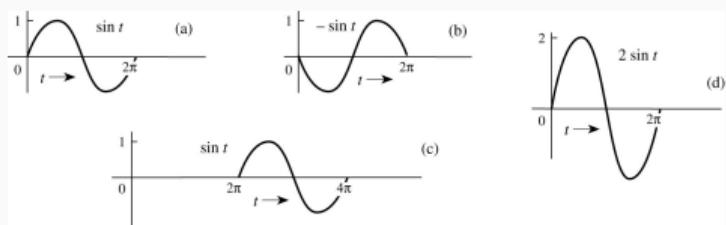


Fig. 2.34: .

Fig. 2.34

• .  
• .

$$g(t) = \quad (2.37)$$



**Fig. 2.35:** .

**Fig. 2.35**

$$g(t) = \quad (2.38)$$

# 1. Low FREQUENCY BANDS (VLF ~ MF)



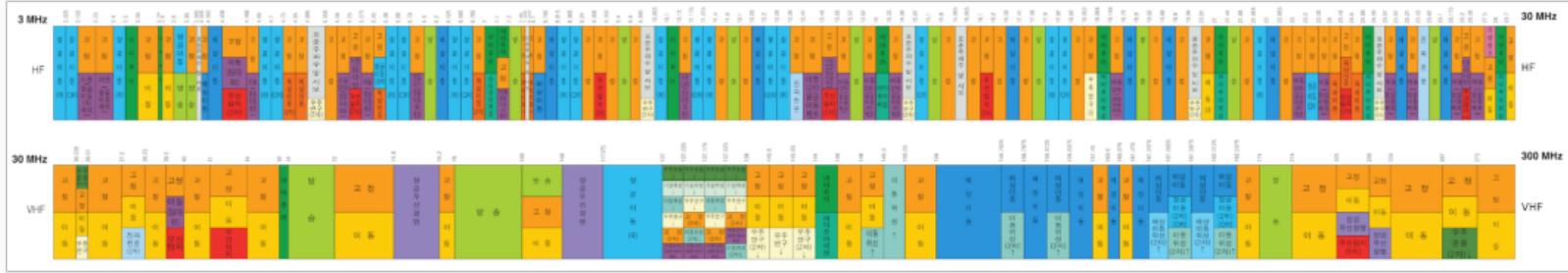
## KEY SERVICES

- **VLF/LF:** 해상/잠수함 통신, 항공 무선 표지 (Beacon)
- **MF:** AM Radio (535~1605 kHz), 해상 이동 업무

## CHARACTERISTICS

- **지표파(Ground Wave):** 지표면을 따라 멀리 전파됨
- 회절성이 매우 강함 (산/건물 통과 유리)
- 안테나 크기가 매우 커야 함 ( $\lambda$ 가 길기 때문)

## 2. MID-RANGE FREQUENCY (HF ~ VHF)



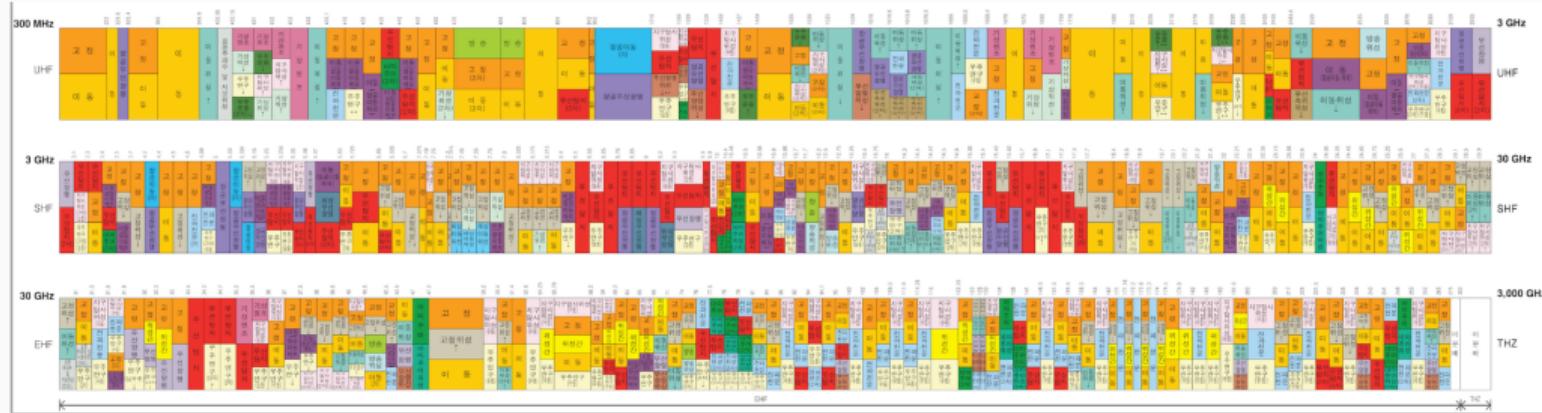
### KEY SERVICES

- **HF:** 단파 방송, 아마추어 무선(HAM), 비상 통신
- **VHF:** **FM Radio** (88~108 MHz), 지상파 DMB, 업무용 무전기

### CHARACTERISTICS

- **Sky Wave (HF):** 전리층 반사를 이용한 원거리(국제) 통신
- **Line-of-Sight (VHF):** 직진성 시작, 장애물 영향 받음
- 음질이 좋고 잡음에 강해짐

### 3. HIGH FREQUENCY BANDS (UHF ~ EHF)



#### KEY SERVICES (MOST ACTIVE)

- **UHF:** Mobile (LTE/5G), Wi-Fi(2.4G), GPS, DTV
- **SHF/EHF:** Satellite, Radar, 5G mmWave, Wi-Fi 6E/7

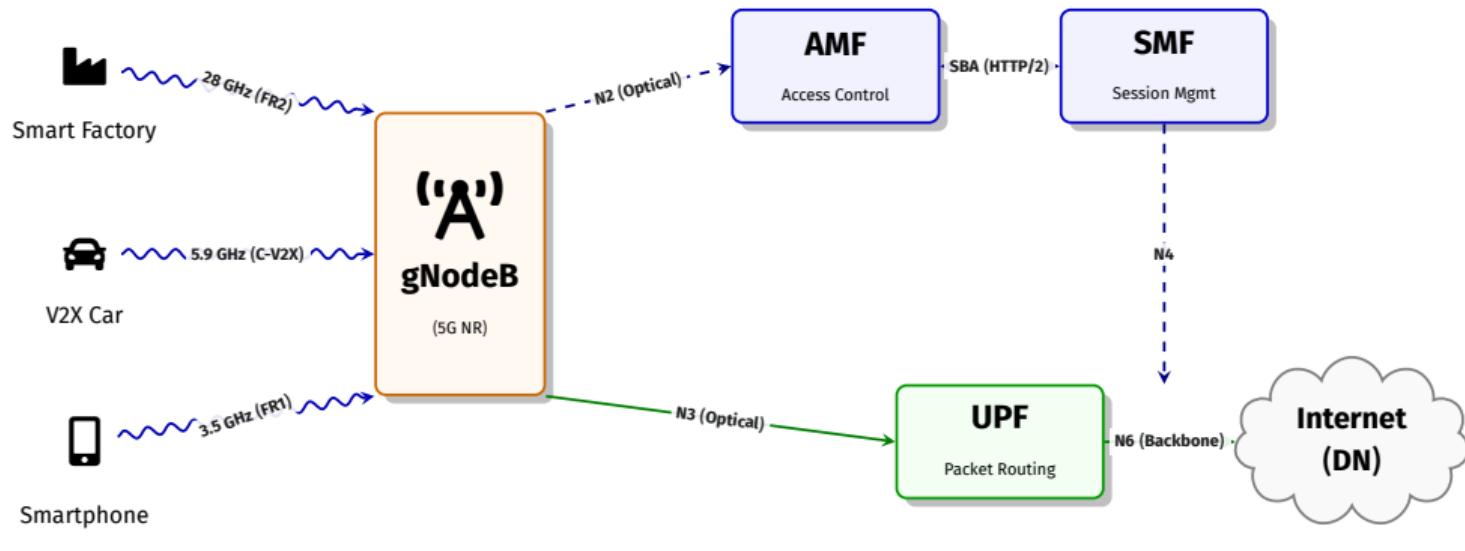
#### CHARACTERISTICS

- 빛에 가까운 강한 직진성
- **Wide Bandwidth:** 초고속 대용량 데이터 전송 가능
- 장애물(비, 벽)에 의한 감쇄 심함

# STARLINK NETWORK ARCHITECTURE



# 5G TERRESTRIAL NETWORK ARCHITECTURE (PLMN)



# UNDERWATER COMMUNICATION: SONAR SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

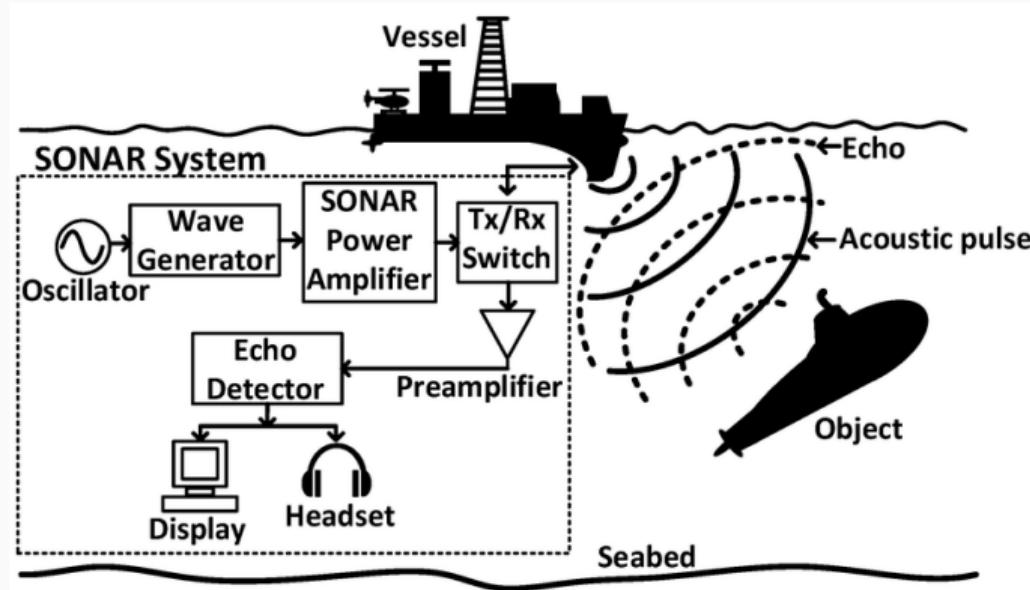


Fig. 2.36: General Architecture of SONAR System

Source: MDPI J. Mar. Sci. Eng. 2023, 11(7), 1279

# SUMMARY

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