Signal Analysis and Transmission

Course Teacher

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Signal: A signal is a function of one or more independent variables which contains a set of information or data. Some examples of signals are:

- A telephone or Television signals
- Radio signal
- Computer signal. Etc.

Signal Size: The size of any entity is a number that indicates the largeness or strength of that entity. For example, the size of human being can be measured by finding volume of person's

$$V = \pi \int_0^H r^2(h)dh$$

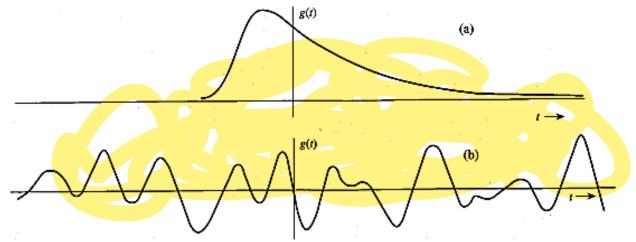
where, V is the volume of person

H is the height of a person

r is the radius of a person (if we consider a person as cylinder)

Signal Energy:

- Area under a signal g(t) is its size
- Signal size takes two values amplitude and duration
- This measuring approach is defective for large signals having positive and negative positions. So, positive portion is cancelled by negative portion. This can be solved by calculating area under $g^{2}(t)$.



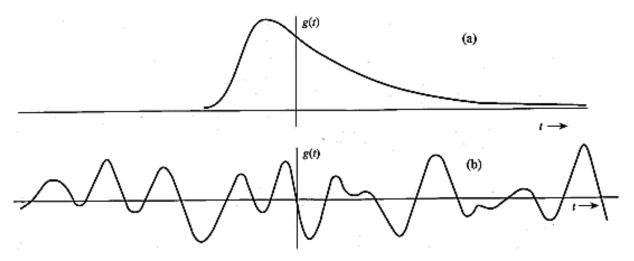
Signal Energy, $E_q = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^2(t) dt$,

For a real signal

Signal Energy,
$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)|^2 dt$$
, For a complex signal

Signal Power:

- The signal size to be meaningful if the energy is finite.
- The condition for energy to be finite is amplitude \rightarrow 0 as $|t| = \infty$.
- If amplitude of g(t) does not $\rightarrow 0$ as $|t| = \infty$, the signal energy is infinite. In this case, more meaningful measure of signal size is time average of the energy, which is average power, P_q .



Signal Power, $P_g = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g^2(t) dt$,

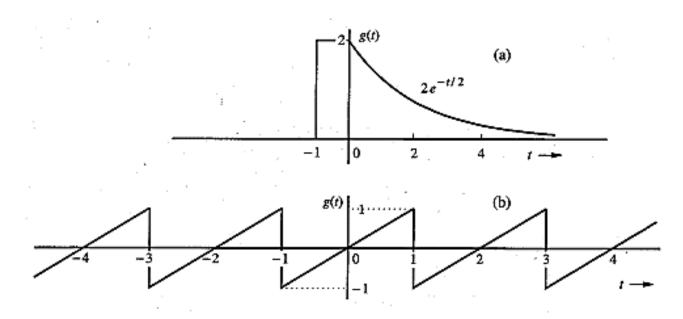
For a real signal

Signal Power,
$$P_g = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} |g(t)|^2 dt$$
,

For a complex signal

Example

Determine the suitable measures of the signal in the following figure:



For a figure (a), amplitude \rightarrow 0 as $|t| = \infty$. Therefore, suitable measure of this signal is its energy, E_g . $E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^2(t) dt = \int_{-1}^{0} 2^2 dt + \int_{0}^{\infty} 4e^{-t} dt = 4 + 4 = 8$

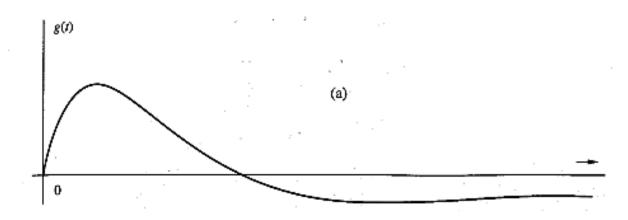
For a figure (b), amplitude does not $\rightarrow 0$ as $|t| = \infty$. Therefore, suitable measure of this signal is its power, P_{a} .

$$P_g = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g^2(t) dt = \int_{-1}^{1} t^2 dt = \frac{1}{3}$$

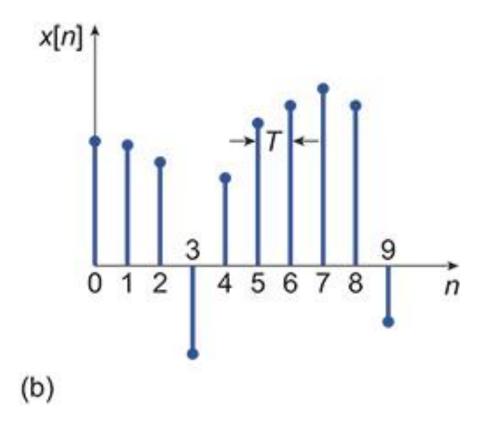
Signal Classification: Signals are classified into the following categories:

- Continuous Time and Discrete Time Signals
- Analog and Digital Signals
- Deterministic and Non-deterministic Signals
- Even and Odd Signals
- Periodic and Aperiodic Signals
- Energy and Power Signals
- Real and Imaginary Signals

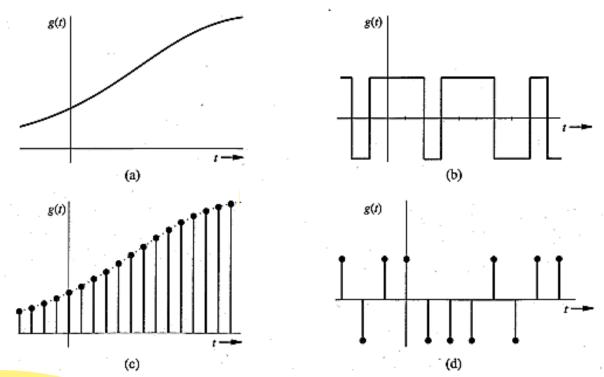
Continuous-time Signal: A signal is said to be continuous when it is defined for all instants of time.



Discrete-time Signal: A signal is said to be discrete when it is defined at only discrete instants of time.

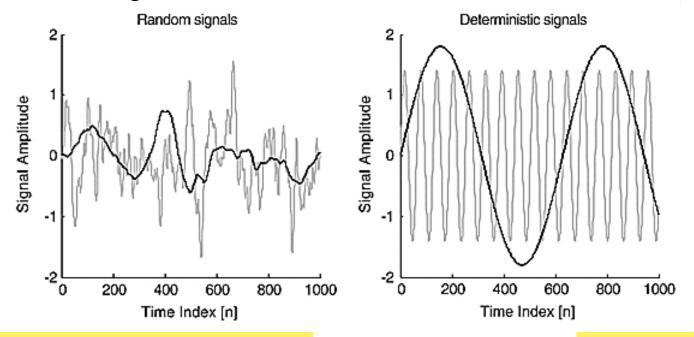


Analog Signals: A signal whose amplitude can take on any value in a continuous range is an analog signal. This means that an analog signal amplitude can take an infinite number of values.



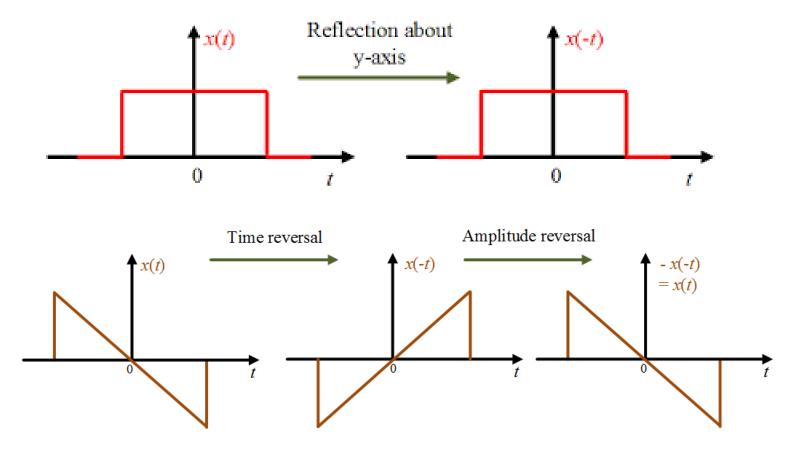
Digital Signals: A digital signal has only finite a finite number of values.

Deterministic Signal: A signal is said to be deterministic if there is no uncertainty with respect to its value at any instant of time. Or, signals which can be defined exactly by a mathematical formula are known as deterministic signals



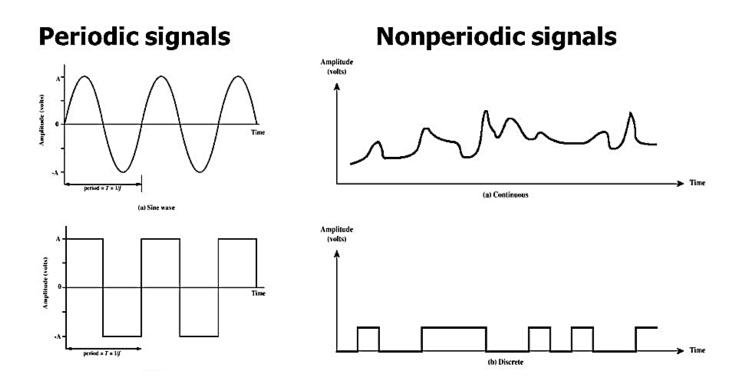
Non-deterministic Signal: A signal is said to be non-deterministic if there is uncertainty with respect to its value at some instant of time. Non-deterministic signals are random in nature hence they are called random signals.

Even Signal: A signal is said to even signal when it satisfies the condition x(t) = x(-t).



Odd Signal: A signal is said to be odd when it satisfies the condition x(t) = -x(-t).

Periodic Signal: A signal is said to be periodic if it satisfies the condition x(t) = x(t + T).



Aperiodic Signal: A signal is said to be periodic if it does not repeat.

Real Signal: A signal is said to be real when it satisfies the condition $x(t) = x^*(t)$

Imaginary Signal: A signal is said to be odd when it satisfies the condition $x(t) = -x^*(t)$

Example:

If x(t)=3 then $x^*(t)=3^*=3$ here x(t) is a real signal.

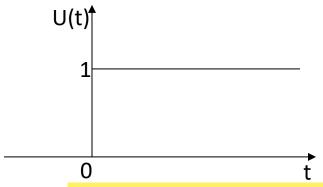
If x(t)=3j then $x^*(t)=3j^*=-3j=-x(t)$ hence x(t) is a odd signal.

Note: For a real signal, imaginary part should be zero. Similarly for an imaginary signal, real part should be zero

Singularity Functions

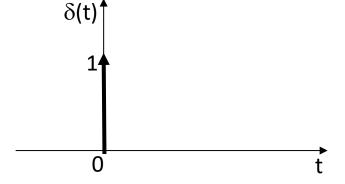
Unit Step Function: The unit step function is exist only for positive side and zero for negative side. It is denoted by u(t).

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } t > 0 \end{cases}$$



Unit Impulse Function: It is one of the most used elementary function used in the analysis of communication system, which is denoted by $\delta(t)$.

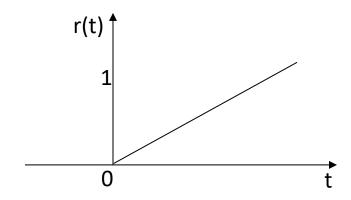
$$\delta(t)=0$$
 $t \neq 0$
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1$$
 when t=0



Singularity Functions

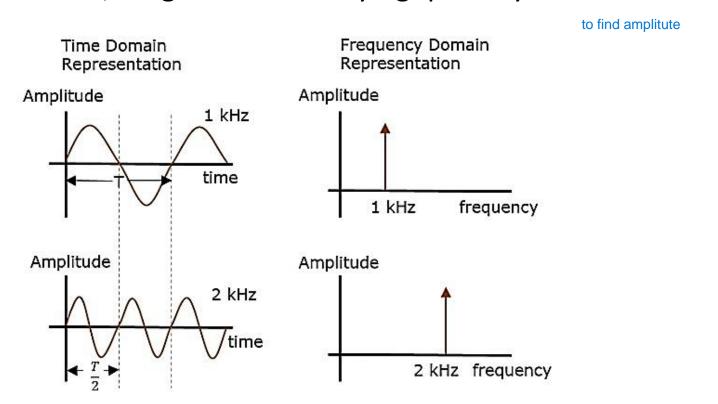
Unit Ramp Function: It is a function which starts at t=0 and increases linearly with time. It is denoted by r(t).

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t \le 0 \\ t & \text{for } t \ge 0 \end{cases}$$



Representation of Signals

Time domain representation: In the time domain representation, a signal is time varying quantity.



Frequency domain representation: In the frequency domain representation, a signal is represented by its frequency spectrum. It is also called line spectrum.

How to plot line spectrum

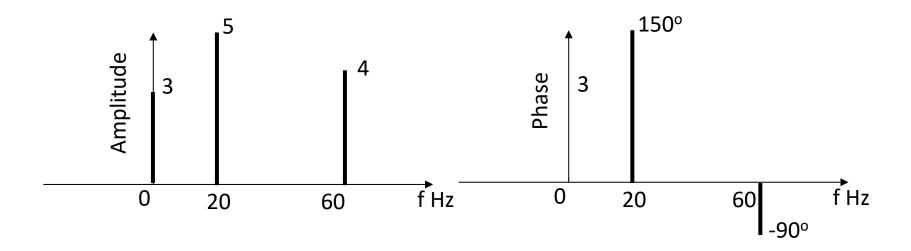
Sketch the line spectrum of the following signal:

$$g(t) = 3 - 5\cos(40\pi t - 30^{\circ}) + 4\sin(120\pi t)$$

Solution: The above equation can be re-written as

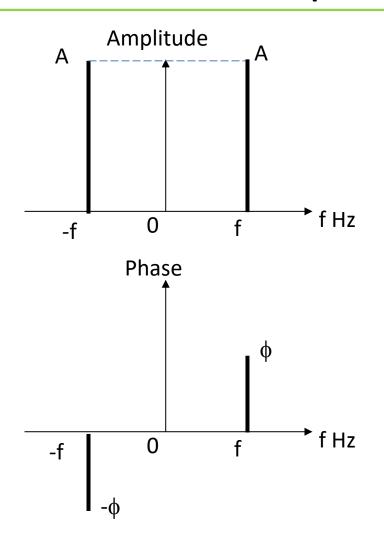
$$g(t) = 3 + 5\cos(40\pi t + 150^{\circ}) + 4\cos(120\pi t - 90^{\circ})$$

S. No.	Term	Amplitude	Frequency	Phase
1.	$3cos2\pi0t$	3 V	0 Hz	0°
2.	$5\cos(40\pi t + 150^{\circ})$	5 V	20 Hz	150°
3.	$4\cos(120\pi t - 90^{\circ})$	4 V	60 Hz	-90°



Double Sided Line Spectrum

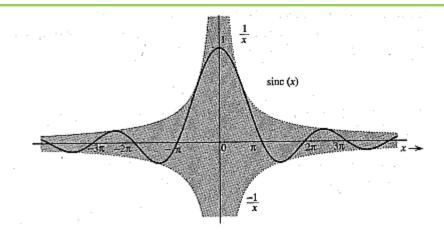
If spectrum is represented for both the positive and negative frequency is called double sided line spectrum.



Filtering or Interpolating function

- The function $\frac{sinx}{x}$ is the sine over argument function denoted by Sinc(x).
- It is also known as filtering or interpolating function.
- Sinc(x) is an even function of x.
- Sinc(x) = 0 when sinx = 0 except x = 0, where it is intermediate. That is Sinc(x) = 0 for $x = \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \pm 3\pi$
- Sinc(x) is the product of an oscillating signal sinx (of period 2π) and a monotonically decreasing function $\frac{1}{x}$. Therefore, sincx exhibits sinusoidal oscillation of period 2π , with amplitude decreasing continuously as $\frac{1}{x}$.

$$\operatorname{sinc}(x) \equiv \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x = 0\\ \frac{\sin x}{x} & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$



Fourier Series

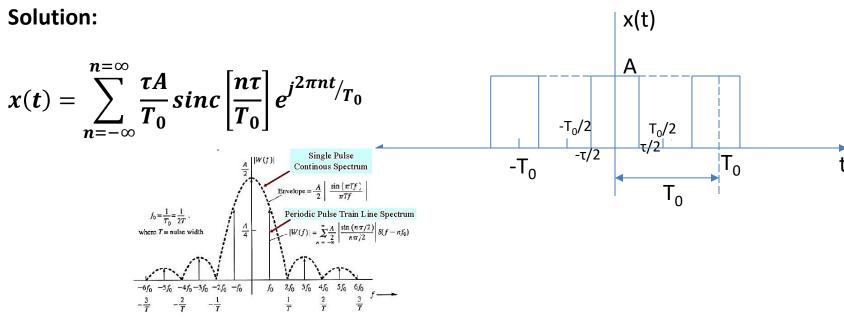
Fourier series are important for the following reasons:

- How many frequency components are present in the signal
- Their amplitudes

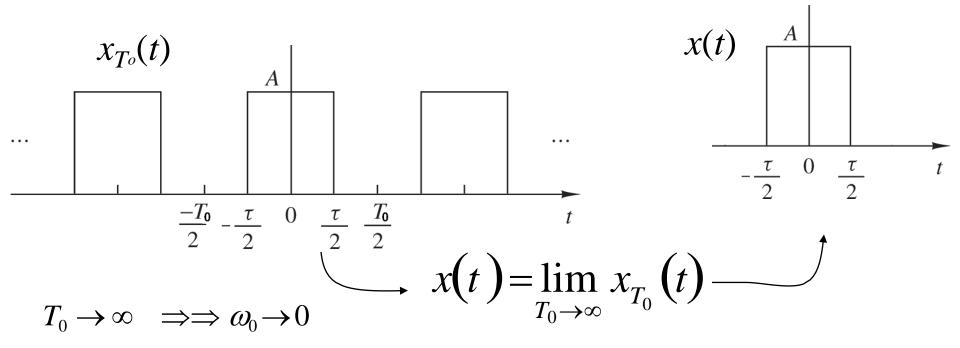
(b) Magnitude Spectrun

- Their relative phase difference between these frequency component.
- Fourier series is used for periodic signals

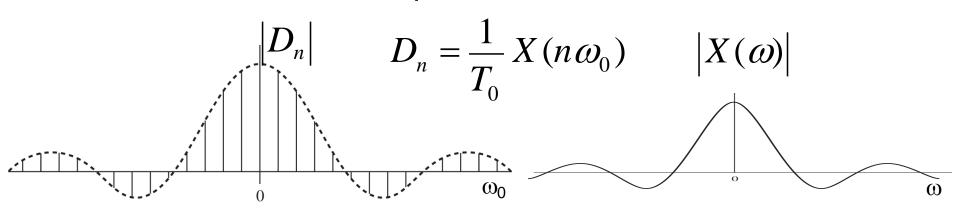
Obtain the Fourier series for the following rectangular pulse train



Link between FT and FS



As T_0 gets larger and larger the fundamental frequency ω_0 gets smaller and smaller so the spectrum becomes continuous.



Fourier transform are important for the following reasons:

- The non-periodic signals which extend from $-\infty$ to ∞ can be represented easily using FT.
- It is used to transform from the time domain to frequency domain.

Fourier transform of a function x(t) can be expressed as

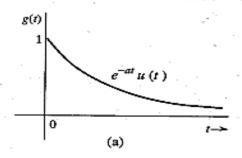
$$X(\omega) = F[x(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$

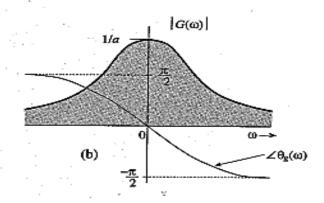
Inverse Fourier transform of a function can be expressed as

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

Find the Fourier transform of $e^{-at}u(t)$.

Find the Fourier transform of $e^{-at}u(t)$.





 $e^{-at}u(t)$ and its Fourier spectra.

By definition [Eq. (3.8a)],

$$G(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-at} u(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-(a+j\omega)t} dt = \frac{-1}{a+j\omega} e^{-(a+j\omega)t} \Big|_{0}^{\infty}$$

But $|e^{-j\omega t}| = 1$. Therefore, as $t \to \infty$, $e^{-(a+j\omega)t} = e^{-at}e^{-j\omega t} = 0$ if a > 0. Therefore,

$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{a + j\omega} \qquad a > 0$$

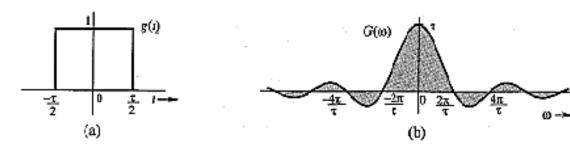
Expressing $a + j\omega$ in the polar form as $\sqrt{a^2 + \omega^2} e^{j \tan^{-1}(\frac{\omega}{a})}$, we obtain

$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + \omega^2}} e^{-\int \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{\omega}{a}\right)}$$

Therefore,

$$|G(\omega)| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 + \omega^2}}$$
 and $\theta_g(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega}{a}\right)$

Find the Fourier transform of $g(t) = rec(\frac{t}{\tau})$



Gate pulse and its Fourier spectrum.

We have

$$G(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

Since rect $(t/\tau) = 1$ for $|t| < \tau/2$, and since it is zero for $|t| > \tau/2$,

$$G(\omega) = \int_{-\tau/2}^{\tau/2} e^{-j\omega t} dt$$

$$= -\frac{1}{j\omega} (e^{-j\omega\tau/2} - e^{j\omega\tau/2}) = \frac{2\sin(\omega\tau/2)}{\omega}$$

$$= \tau \frac{\sin(\omega\tau/2)}{(\omega\tau/2)} = \tau \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega\tau}{2}\right)$$

Therefore,

$$\operatorname{rect}\left(\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \tau \operatorname{sinc}\left(\frac{\omega \tau}{2}\right)$$

Find the Fourier transform of the unit impulse $\delta(t) = 1$

If it is given that, $g(t) = \delta(t)$

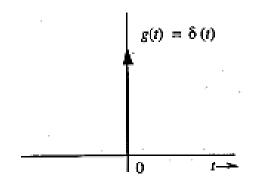
Then, from the definition of Fourier transform, we have,

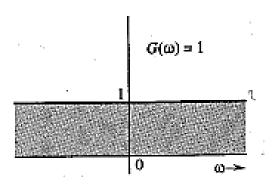
$$G(\omega) = F[g(t)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$

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

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1 \cdot e^{-j\omega t}dt = e^{-j\omega t}\Big|_{t=0} = 1$$

So,
$$F[\delta(t)] = 1$$
 or $\delta(t) \leftrightarrow 1$





That is, the Fourier transform of a unit impulse function is unity.

Find the inverse Fourier transform of the unit impulse $\delta(\omega)$.

Inverse Fourier transform of a function can be expressed as

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

$$G(\omega) = 1$$

$$0$$

$$0$$

$$0$$

The inverse Fourier transform of $G(\omega)=1$ is determined through inverse Fourier transform of impulse function $[\delta(\omega)]$.

$$\begin{split} F^{-1}[G(\omega)] &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1. \, e^{j\omega t} d\omega = \frac{1}{2\pi} . \, e^{j\omega t} \Big|_{\omega=0} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \\ F^{-1}[\delta(\omega)] &= \frac{1}{2\pi}, \, F^{-1}[2\pi\delta(\omega)] = 1, \, 1 \leftrightarrow 2\pi\delta(\omega). \end{split}$$

Find the inverse Fourier transform of the unit impulse $\delta(\omega-\omega_0)$.

Inverse Fourier transform of a function can be expressed as

$$\begin{split} F^{-1}[\delta(\omega-\omega_0)] &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\omega-\omega_0) e^{j\omega t} d\omega \\ \text{Let, } \omega' = \omega - \omega_0, \, d\dot{\omega} = d\omega \text{ and } \omega = \dot{\omega} + \omega_0 \\ F^{-1}[\delta(\dot{\omega})] &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{j\omega_0 t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\dot{\omega}) e^{j\dot{\omega} t} d\dot{\omega} \\ &=> F^{-1}[\delta(\dot{\omega})] = \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{j\omega_0 t} \\ &=> F^{-1}[2\pi\delta(\dot{\omega})] = e^{j\omega_0 t} \\ &=> F^{-1}\left[2\pi\delta(\omega-\omega_0)\right] = e^{j\omega_0 t} \end{split}$$

Hence, the Fourier transform of the complex exponential function is given by,

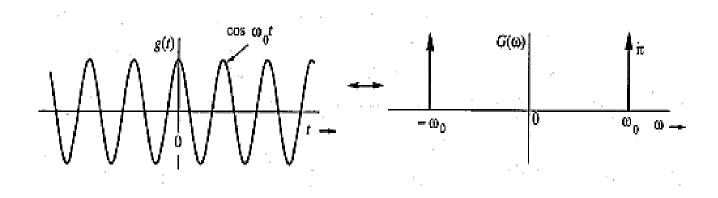
$$e^{j\omega_0 t} \leftrightarrow 2\pi\delta(\omega-\omega_0)$$

Find the Fourier transform of the everlasting sinusoid $\cos \omega_0 t$.

We can write that, $cos\omega_0 t = \frac{1}{2} \left[e^{j\omega_0 t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t} \right]$ since, $e^{i\theta} = cos\theta + isin\theta$

Fourier transform of $cos\omega_0 t$ is

$$cos\omega_0 t \leftrightarrow \pi[\delta(\omega-\omega_0)+\delta(\omega+\omega_0)], \quad e^{j\omega_0 t} \leftrightarrow 2\pi\delta(\omega-\omega_0)$$

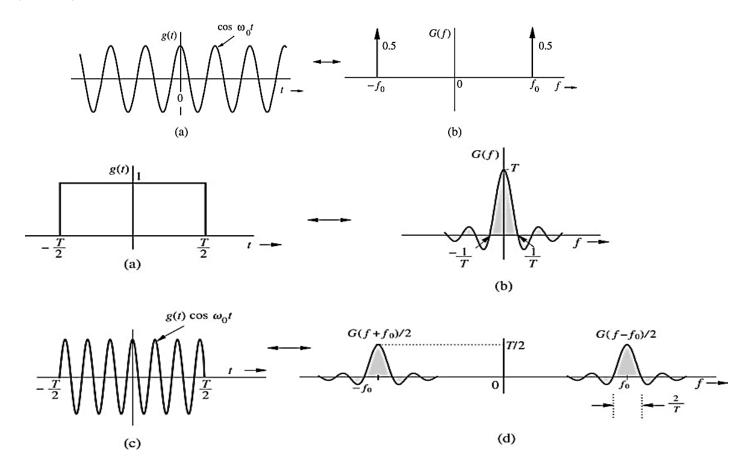


The spectrum of $cos\omega_0 t$ consists of two impulses at ω_0 and $-\omega_0$.

Example: Amplitude Modulation

Example: Find the FT for the signal

$$x(t) = rect(t/4)\cos 10t$$

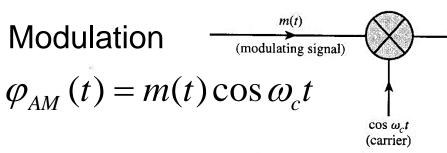


Amplitude Modulation

 $m(t)\cos\omega_c t$

(modulated signal)

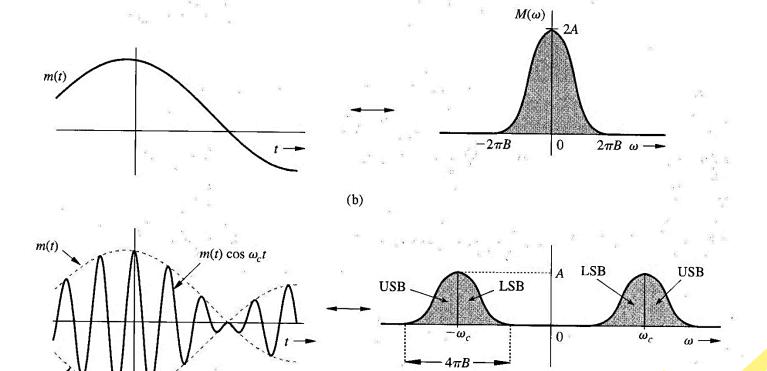




Demodulation

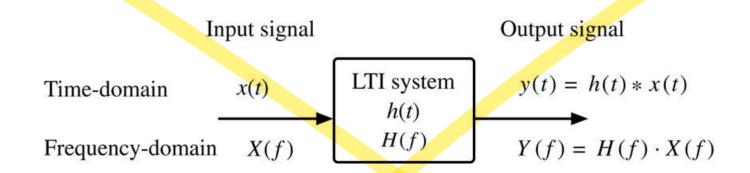
$$\varphi_{AM}(t)\cos^2\omega_c t = 0.5m(t)[1+\cos 2\omega_c t]$$

Then lowpass filtering



(a)

Signal Transmission Through a Linear System



$$X(f) = |X(f)|e^{j\theta_X(f)}$$

$$H(f) = |H(f)|e^{j\theta_h(f)}$$

$$|Y(f)|e^{j\theta_{\mathcal{Y}}(f)} = |X(f)||H(f)|e^{j[\theta_{h}(f) + \theta_{\mathcal{X}}(f)]}$$

Distortionless Transmission (System)

$$y(t) = k.x(t - t_d)$$

$$Y(f) = kX(f) e^{-j2\pi f t_d}$$

$$H(f) = ke^{-j2\pi f t_d}$$

Slope is constant for

$$t_d(f) = -\frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{df}$$
 group delay distortionless system $x(t) = 3\cos(2\pi f_1 t) + 5\cos(2\pi f_2 t)$

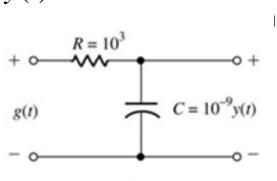
 $|\mathsf{H}(f)| = k$ $\theta(f) = -2\pi f t_d$

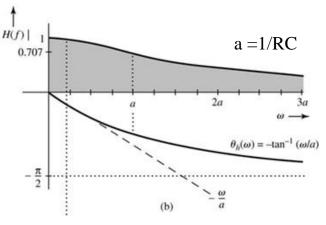
$$y(t) = x(t - t_d) = 3\cos(2\pi f_1(t - t_d)) + 5\cos(2\pi f_2(t - t_d))$$

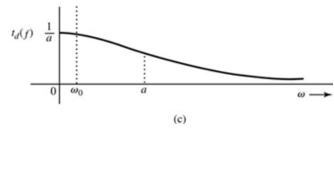
$$y(t) = 3\cos(2\pi f_1 t - 2\pi f_1 t_d) + 5\cos(2\pi f_2 t - 2\pi f_2 t_d)$$

Example 3.16

A transmission medium is modeled by a simple RC low-pass filter shown below. If g(t) and y(t) are the input and the output, respectively to the circuit, determine the transfer function H(f), $\theta_h(f)$, and $t_d(f)$. For distortionless transmission through this filter, what is the requirement on the bandwidth of g(t) if amplitude response variation within 2% and time delay variation within 5% are tolerable? What is the transmission delay? Find the output y(t).



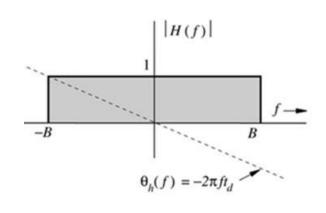


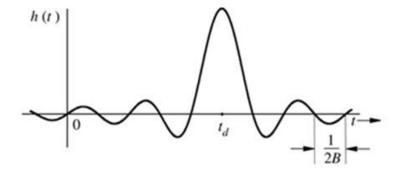


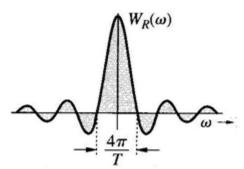
Answer:
$$f_0 = 32.31 \text{ kHz}$$

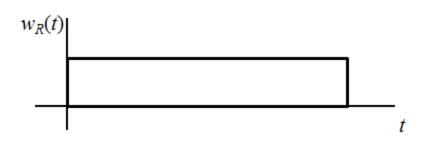
$$\frac{d}{dx}(tan^{-1}ax) = \frac{a}{1 + a^2x^2}$$

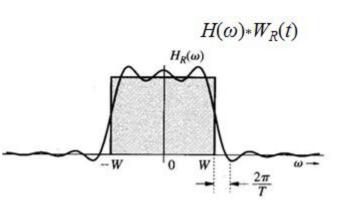
Ideal Versus Practical Filters

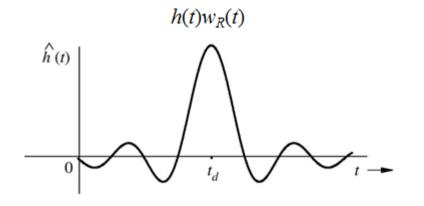




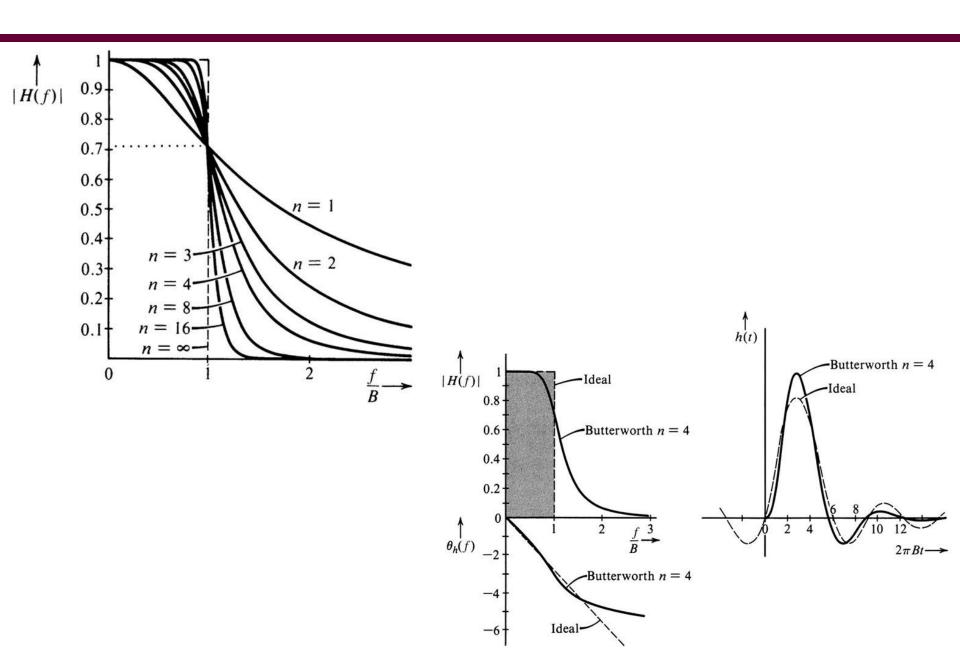




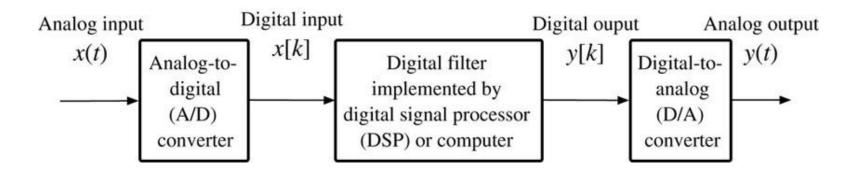




Ideal Versus Practical Filters



Digital Filter



Signal Distortion Over a Communication Channel

- 1. Linear Distortion
- 2. Channel Nonlinearities
- 3. Multipath Effects
- 4. Fading Channels

- Channel fading vary with time. To overcome this distortion is to use automatic gain control (AGC)

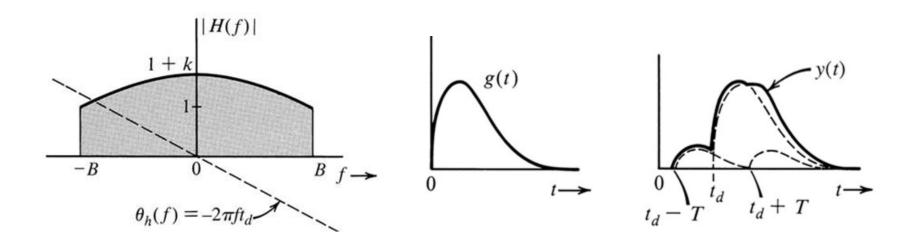
Linear Distortion

Channel causes magnitude distortion, phase distortion, or both.

Example: A channel is modeled by a low-pass filter with transfer function H(f) give by

$$H(f) = \begin{cases} (1 + k\cos 2\pi fT)e^{-j2\pi ft_d} & |f| < B\\ 0 & |f| > B \end{cases}$$

A pulse g(t) band-limited to B Hz is applied at the input of this filter. Find the output y(t).



Nonlinear Distortion

$$y(t) = f(g(t))$$

f(g) can be expanded by Maclaurin series

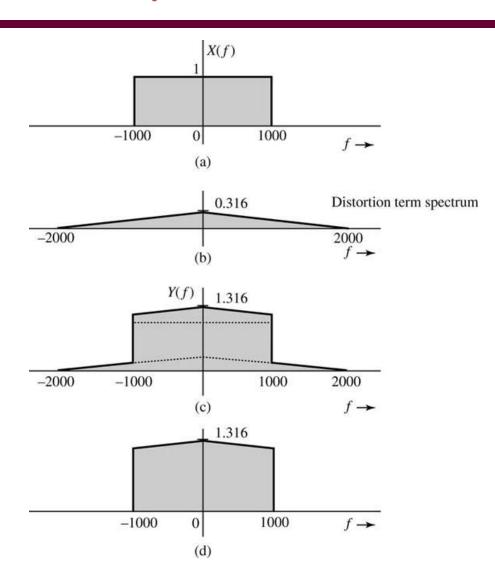
$$y(t) = a_0 + a_1 g(t) + a_2 g^2(t) + \dots + a_k g^k(t)$$

If the bandwidth of g(t) is B Hz then the bandwidth of y(t) is kB Hz.

Example: The input x(t) and the output y(t) of a certain nonlinear channel are related as $y(t) = x(t) + 0.000158 \ x^2(t)$

Find the output signal y(t) and its spectrum Y(f) if the input signal is x(t) = 2000 $sinc(2000\pi t)$. Verify that the bandwidth of the output signal is twice that of the input signal. This is the result of signal squaring. Can the signal x(t) be recovered (without distortion) from the output y(t)?

Continue Example

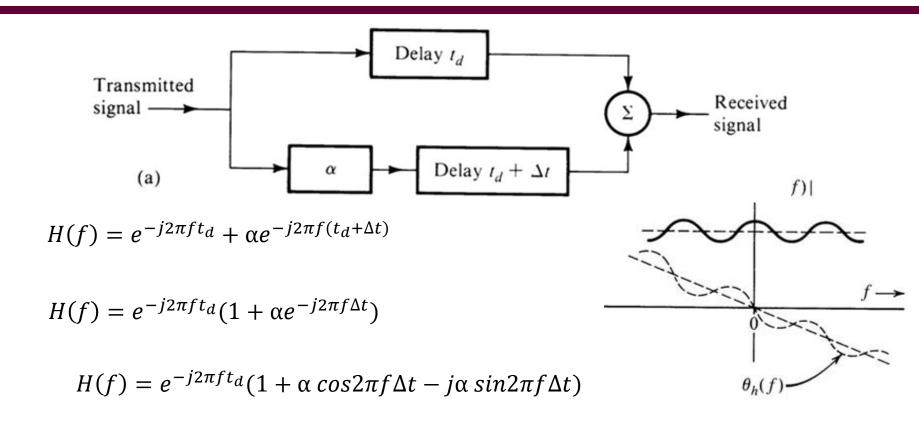


What is the consequence with this type of distortion if two signals are transmitted in adjacent bands?

Figure 3.36 Signal distortion caused by nonlinear operation: (a) desired (input) signal spectrum; (b) spectrum of the unwanted signal (distortion) in the received signal; (c) spectrum of the received signal;

(d) spectrum of the received signal after low-pass filtering.

Distortion Caused by Multipath Effects



$$H(f) = \sqrt{1 + \alpha^2 + 2\alpha \cos 2\pi f \Delta t} \exp \left[-j \left(2\pi f t_d + tan^{-1} \frac{\alpha \sin 2\pi f \Delta t}{1 + \alpha \cos 2\pi f \Delta t} \right) \right]$$

Common distortion in this type of channel is frequency selective fading

Energy and Energy Spectral Density

$$E_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)g^*(t)dt$$

Energy in the time domain

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

Energy in the frequency domain

Energy spectral density (ESD), $\Psi_g(f)$, is the energy per unit bandwidth (in hertz) of the spectral components of g(t) centered at frequency f.

$$\Psi_g(f) = |G(f)|^2$$

The ESD of the system's output in term of the input ESD is

$$\Psi_{x}(f) \longrightarrow H(f) \longrightarrow \Psi_{y}(f) = |H(f)|^{2} \Psi_{x}(f)$$

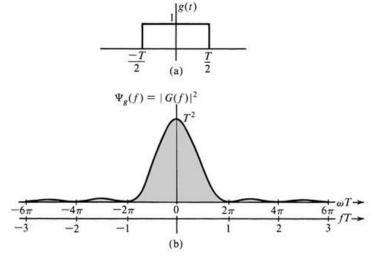
Essential Bandwidth of a Signal

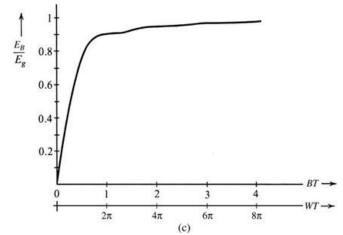
Estimate the essential bandwidth of a rectangular pulse $g(t) = \Pi(t/T)$, where the essential bandwidth must contain at least 90% of the pulse energy.

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

$$E_B = \int_{-B}^{B} T^2 sinc^2(\pi f T) df = 0.9 E_g$$

Solve the above equation numerically to find B





Energy of Modulated Signals

The modulated signal appears more energetic than the signal g(t) but its energy is half of the energy of the signal g(t). Why?

$$\varphi(t) = g(t) \cos 2\pi f_0 t$$

$$\Phi(f) = \frac{1}{2} [G(f + f_0) + G(f - f_0)]$$

$$\Psi_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{1}{4} |G(f + f_0) + G(f - f_0)|^2$$

$$\downarrow^{\Psi_g(f)}$$

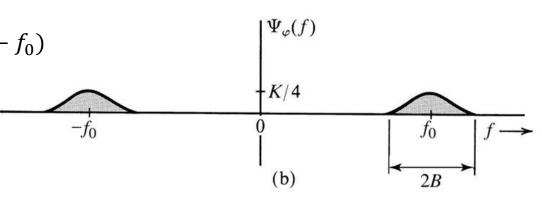
$$\downarrow^{\Phi_g(f)}$$

$$\downarrow^{$$

If $f_0 > 2B$ then

$$\Psi_{\varphi}(f) = \frac{1}{4} \Psi_{g}(f + f_{0}) + \frac{1}{4} \Psi_{g}(f - f_{0})$$

$$E_{\varphi} = \frac{1}{2} E_{g}$$



Time Autocorrelation Function and Energy Spectral Density

The autocorrelation is

of a $\mathfrak{P}(\mathfrak{g})$ g(t) and its ESD

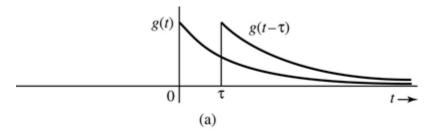
form a Fourier transfunt pair, that

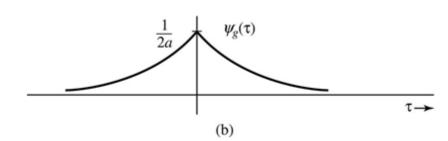
$$\psi_g(\tau) \underset{FT \text{ and } IFT}{\longleftrightarrow} \Psi_g(f)$$

Note: the autocorrelation of g(t) is the convolution of g(t) with g(-t).

Example: Find the time autocorrelation function of the signal $g(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$, and from it determine the ESD of g(t).

$$\psi_g(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t)g(t-\tau)dt$$



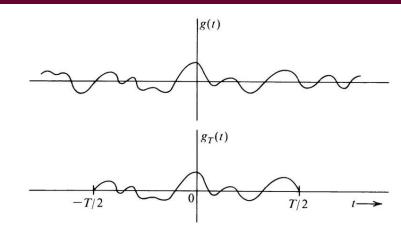


Signal Power and Power Spectral Density

Power P_g of the signal g(t)

$$P_g = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t)g^*(t)dt$$

$$P_g = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{E_{gT}}{T}$$



Power spectral density $S_g(f)$ of the signal g(t)

$$S_g(f) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{|G_T(f)|^2}{T}$$

$$P_g = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_g(f)df = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} S_g(f)df$$

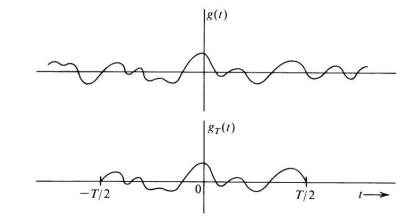
$$S_{\chi}(f) \longrightarrow H(f) \longrightarrow S_{\chi}(f) = |H(f)|^2 S_{\chi}(f)$$

Time Autocorrelation Function of Power Signals

Time autocorrelation $\mathcal{R}_q(\tau)$ of a power signal g(t)

$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t)g(t - \tau)dt$$

$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_T(t) g_T(t+\tau) dt$$



$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{\psi_{gT}(\tau)}{T}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) \underset{FT \ and \ IFT}{\longleftrightarrow} S_g(f)$$

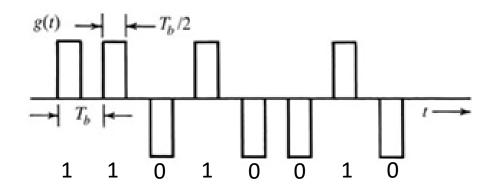
Autocorrelation a Powerful Tool

If the energy or power spectral density can be found by the Fourier transform of the signal g(t), then why do we need to find the time autocorrelation?

Ans: In communication field and in general the signal g(t) is not deterministic and it is probabilistic function.

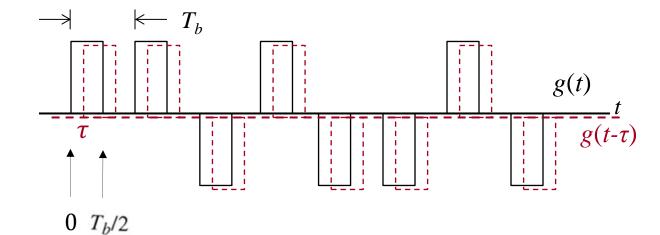
Example

A random binary pulse train g(t). The pulse width is $T_b/2$, and one binary digit is transmitted every T_b seconds. A binary $\bf 1$ is transmitted by positive pulse, and a binary $\bf 0$ is transmitted by negative pulse. The two symbols are equally likely and occur randomly. Determine the PSD and the essential bandwidth of this signal.



Challenge: g(t) is not deterministic and can not be expressed mathematically to find the Fourier transform and PSD. g(t) is probabilistic (almost random) signal.

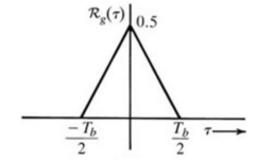
$$\mathcal{R}_{g}(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t)g(t-\tau)dt$$



For
$$0 < \tau < T_b/2$$

Let $T = NT_b$ and solve the above integral.

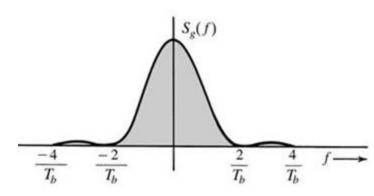
$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{NT_h} \left(\frac{T_b}{2} - \tau \right) N = \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\tau}{T_h} \right)$$



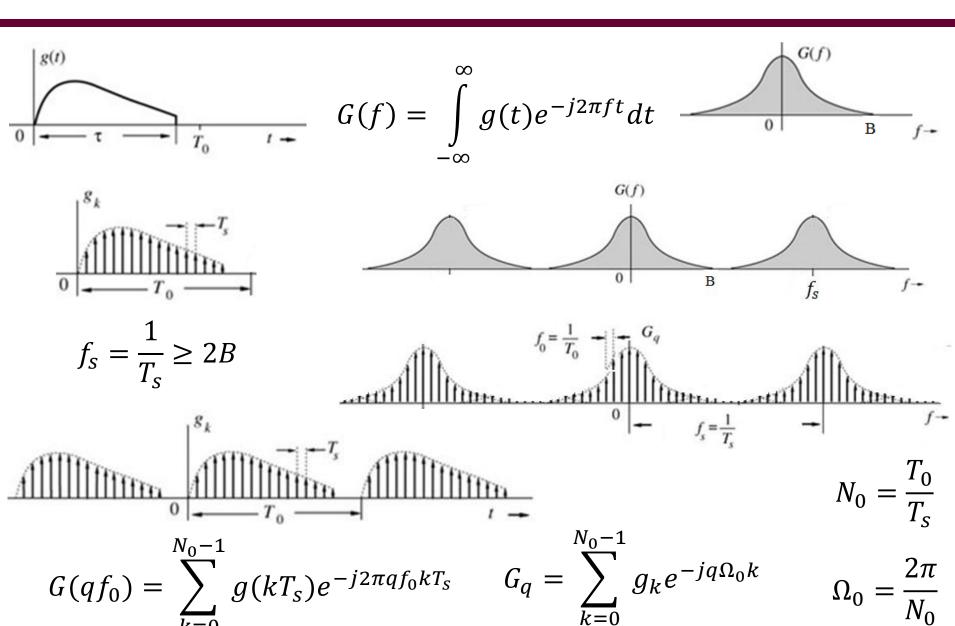
For $\tau > T_b/2$

$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = 0$$

$$S_g(f) = \frac{T_b}{4} \operatorname{sinc}^2\left(\frac{\pi f T_b}{2}\right)$$



Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT, FFT)



Homework Problem

ework Problem
$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int\limits_{-T/2}^{T/2} g(t)g(t-\tau)dt$$

$$(k+1)T_b$$

$$\mathcal{R}_g(\tau) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{1}{NT_b} \left(kT_b + \tau + \frac{T_b}{2} - (k+1)T_b \right) \frac{N}{4}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_{g}(\tau) = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\tau}{T_{b}} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$-T_{b} - T_{b}/2$$

$$T_{b}/2$$

$$T_{b}/2$$

4nhshwu