

LECTURE 519

Measuring the size of a signal

Often, we would like to describe the size of a signal:

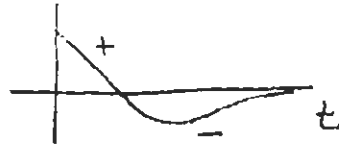
- 1) How much power is being transmitted?
- 2) How big is my signal compared to the noise?
- 3) How well does a control system track commanded reference signals? That is, how large is the error signal.

We would like to have a measure of the size of a signal that

- 1) Conforms to our notions of "big" and "small" signals.
 - 2) Is easy to compute, and has useful properties.
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Possible measures of size

a) $size = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) dt$



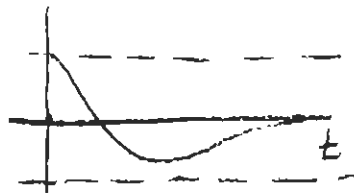
size ≥ 0 !

b) $size = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |g(t)| dt$



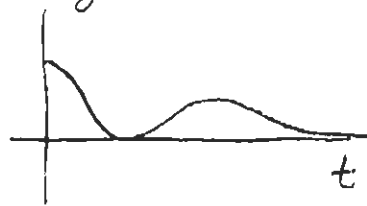
size ≥ 0 , but messy

c) $size = \max_t |g(t)|$



size ≥ 0 .

d) $size = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^2(t) dt$



size ≥ 0

Which is best? (b), (c), and (d) are all potentially useful, but (d) turns out to be the most useful:

- Works well analytically
- Corresponds to power or energy.

So define

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

$$\|g\| = \sqrt{\|g\|^2} = \text{"norm" (or "2-norm") of signal.}$$

This norm is a direct analog of the length of a vector:

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_i x_i^2$$

Parseval's Theorem

We have defined the norm (squared) of a signal as

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

Would like to compute this in frequency domain, where control design is done.

Define

$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= g(t) * g(-t) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\tau) g(\tau - t) d\tau \end{aligned}$$

So

$$h(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\tau) g(\tau) d\tau = \|g\|^2$$

So just need to compute $h(0)$.

Note that

$$H(f) = G(f)G(-f) = G(f)G^*(f)$$

Inverse FT $H(f)$ to find $h(0)$:

$$h(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df$$

$$\Rightarrow h(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f) df$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(f) G^*(f) df$$

Therefore,

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

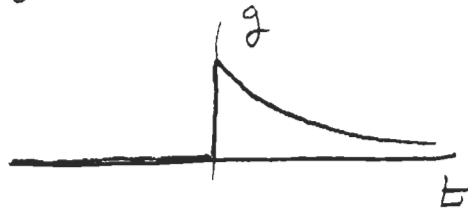
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |G(f)|^2 df$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |G(j\omega)|^2 d\omega$$

This is Parseval's Theorem -

very important.

Example $g(t) = e^{-at} \sigma(t), \quad a > 0$



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^2(t) dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-2at} dt = \frac{1}{2a}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow G(j\omega) G(-j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega + a} \frac{1}{-j\omega + a} = \frac{1}{\omega^2 + a^2}$$

$$\|G\|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\omega^2 + a^2} d\omega$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega}{a} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{1}{a} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \left(\frac{-\pi}{2} \right) \right) = \frac{1}{2a} \quad \checkmark$$

As expected, the two methods give the same result.

Note: This idea can be extended to Laplace transforms, where

$$\|g\|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi j} \int_{-j\infty}^{+j\infty} G(s)G(-s) ds$$

Looks harder, but is easier! To evaluate:

1) Expand $G(s)G(-s)$ as partial fractions:

$$G(s)G(-s) = \frac{-1}{(s+a)(s-a)}$$

$$= \frac{1/2a}{s+a} + \frac{-1/2a}{s-a}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$
pole in
left half
plane.

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$
pole in right half
plane

2) Integral = \sum residues of left half plane poles

"residue" = numerator coefficient of first-order poles,
