

Signals

Sinusoidal waveform

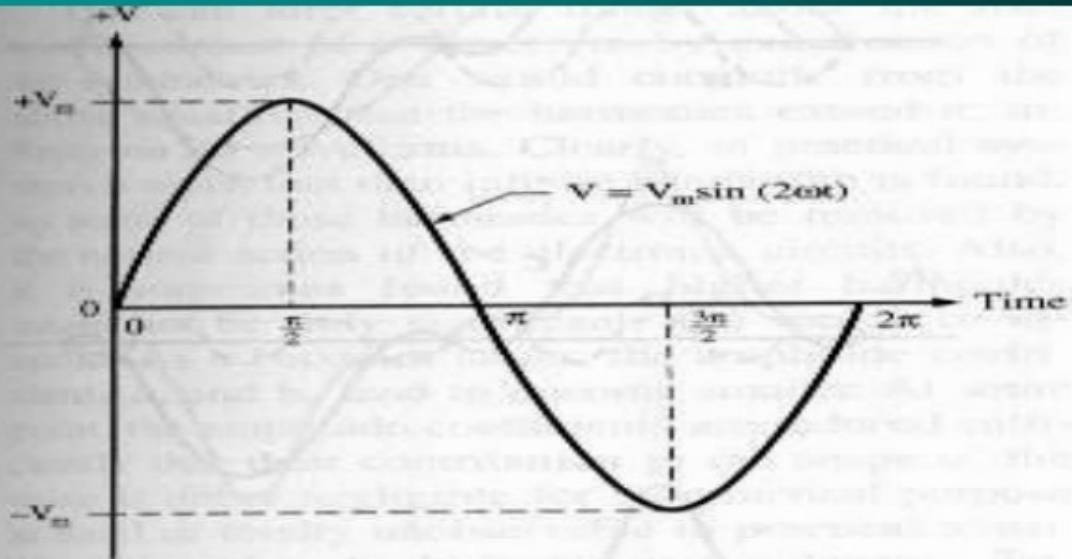


Figure 5-2
Sinusoidal waveform.

where

- v is the instantaneous amplitude of the sine wave
- V_M is the peak amplitude of the sine wave
- ω is the angular frequency ($2\pi F$) of the sine wave
- t is the time in seconds

Types of signal

a. Static: dc

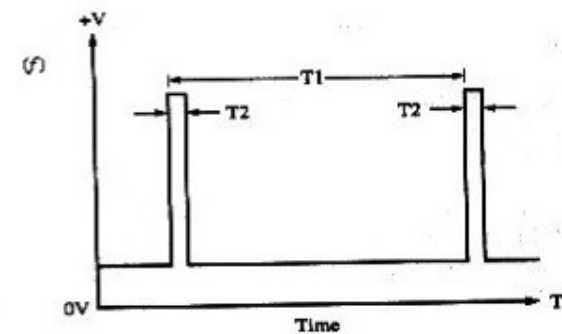
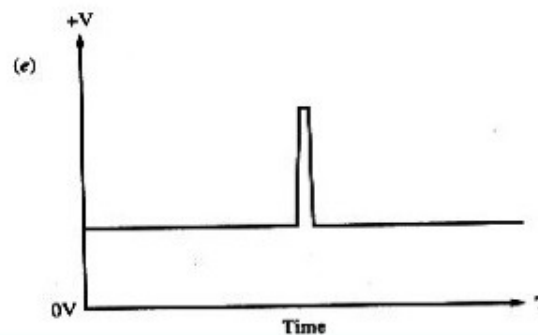
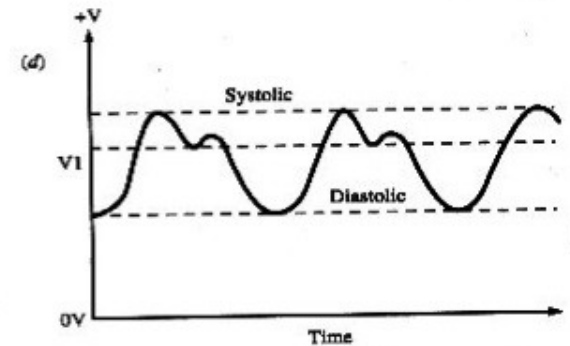
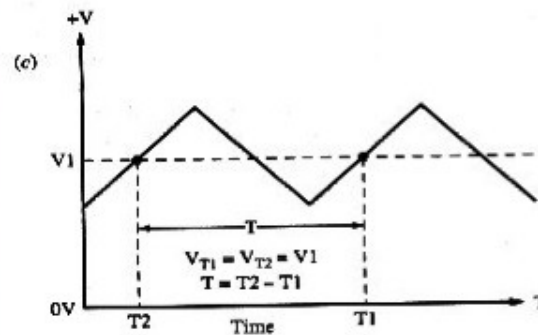
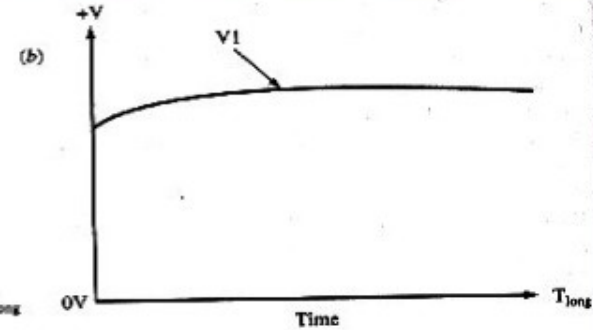
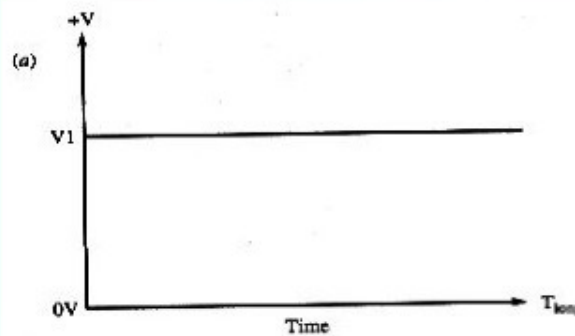
b. Quasistatic

c. Periodic: sine, square, ...
 $v(t) = v(t+T)$

d. Repetitive: quasiperiodic

e. Single event transient signal

f. Repetitive single event



Waveform symmetry

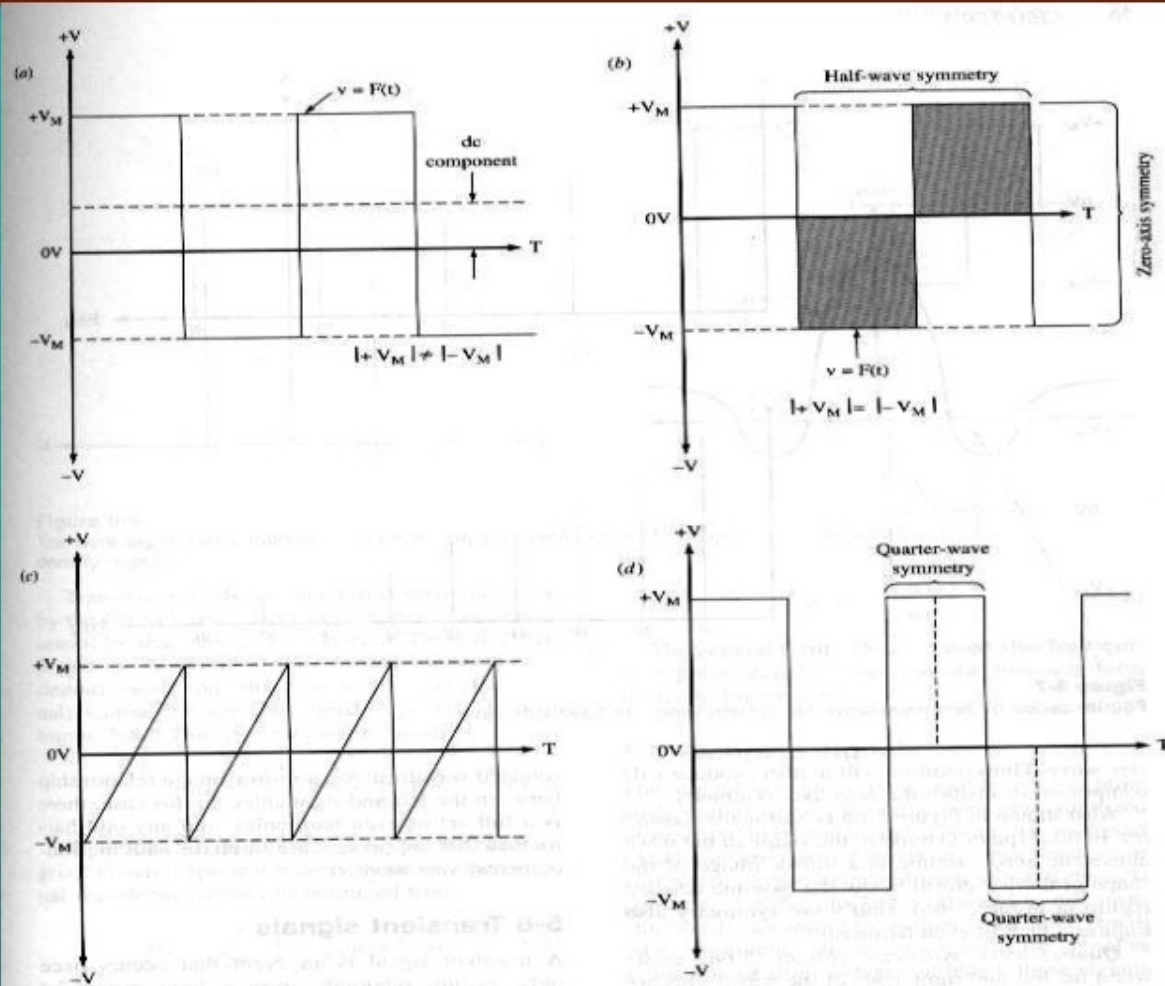
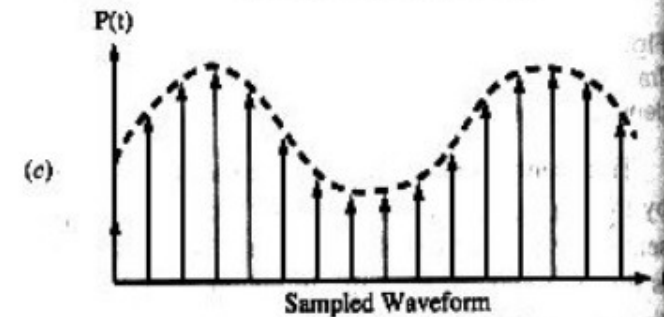
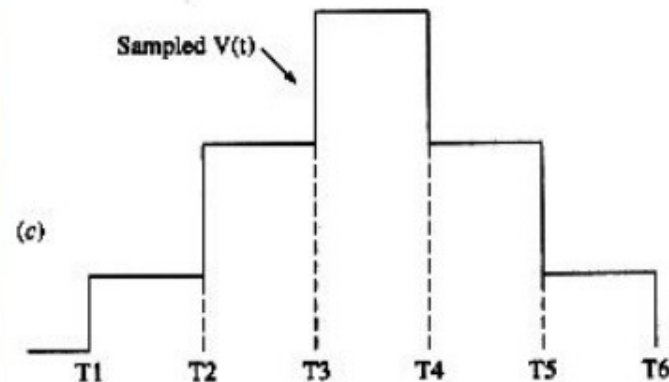
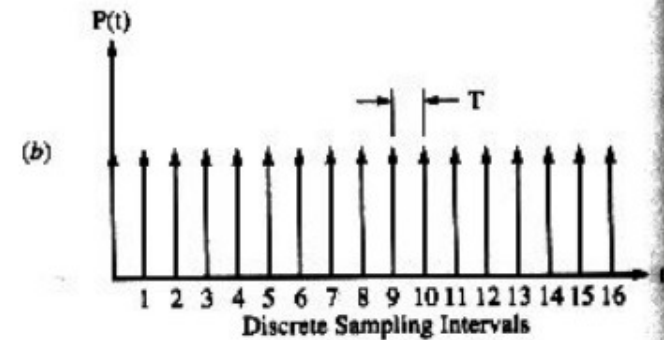
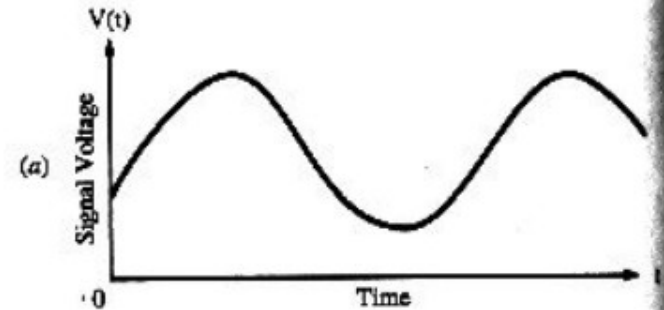
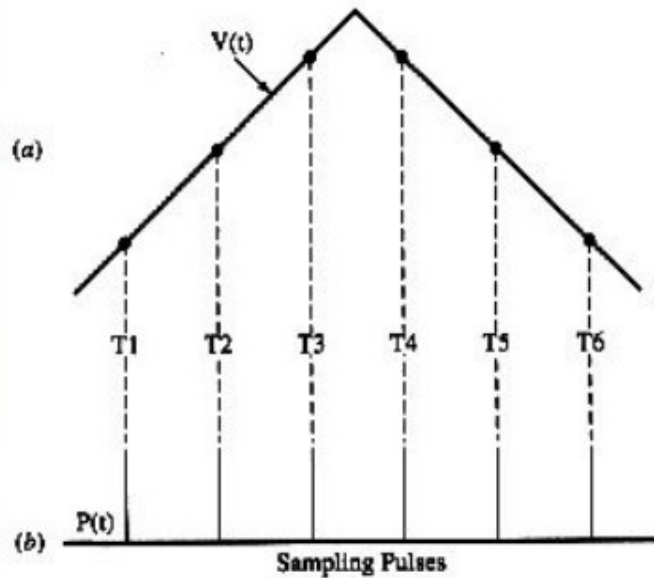


Figure 5-6
 Waveform symmetry. (a) Square wave with DC component that causes asymmetry.
 (b) Symmetrical square wave. (c) Sawtooth waveform forms mirror image across zero
 baseline. (d) Quarter-wave symmetry.

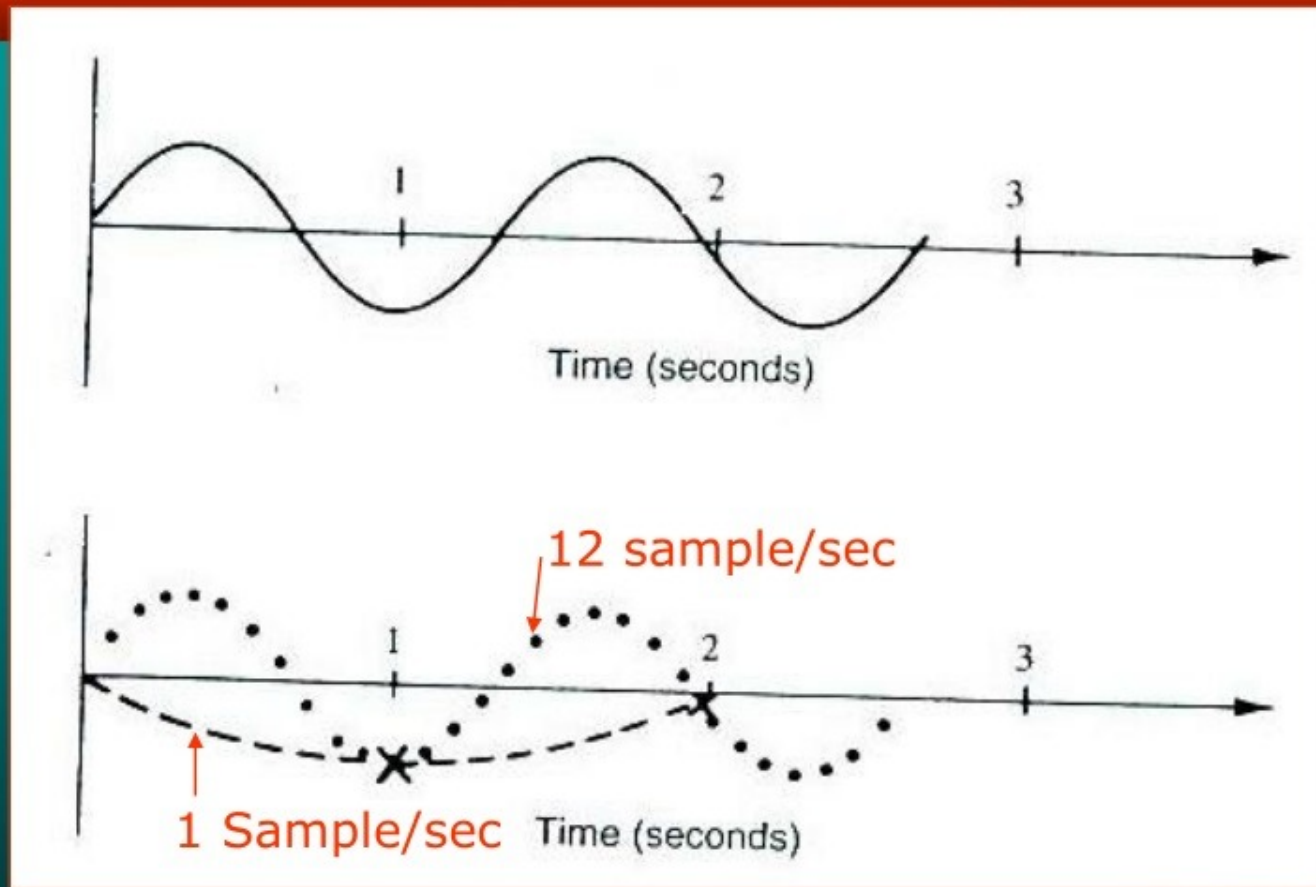
Signal sampling

- ☀ Most instrumentation transducers have analog output
- ☀ At the interface between analog transducers and digital computers the signal must be digitized
- ☀ So the signal is sampled at regular intervals
- ☀ Each sample voltage is then converted into an equivalent digital value
- ☀ The next sample cannot be taken until the conversion of the last sample to digital form is completed

Sampled signals



Effect of the sampling rate



If $f_{\text{sampling}} > f_{\text{signal}}$ o.k. Ideally $f_{\text{sampling}} = 2 f_{\text{signal}}$
If $f_{\text{sampling}} < f_{\text{signal}}$ aliasing

- ☀ To reconstruct the original signal after sampling □ pass the sampled waveform through a low-pass filter that blocks f_s
- ☀ Sampling is used to form
 - AM, PM,
- ☀ Some applications don't accept $f_{\text{sampling}} = 2f_{\text{signal}}$ as in ECG □ $= 5f_{\text{signal}}$

Essential Electronics Formula

☀ Ohm's Law

The first of these is Ohm's Law, which states that a voltage of 1V across a resistance of 1 Ohm will cause a current of 1 Amp to flow. The formula is

- $R = V / I$

(where R = resistance in Ohms, V = Voltage in Volts, and I = current in Amps)

- $V = R * I$

- $I = V / R$

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Reactance

- ☀ **The impedance (reactance) of a capacitor**, which varies **inversely with frequency** (as frequency is increased, the reactance falls and vice versa).
 - **$X_C = 1 / (2 \pi f C)$**
 - ☀ where X_C is capacitive reactance in Ohms, (π) is 3.14159, f is frequency in Hz, and C is capacitance in Farads.
- ☀ **Inductive reactance**, being the reactance of an inductor. This is proportional to frequency.
 - **$X_L = 2 \pi f L$**
 - ☀ where X_L is inductive reactance in Ohms, and L is inductance in Henrys

☀ Decibels (dB)

$$\text{dB} = 20 \log (V1 / V2)$$

$$\text{dB} = 20 \log (I1 / I2)$$

$$\text{dB} = 10 \log (P1 / P2)$$

Either way, a drop of **3dB** represents half the power and vice versa.

☀ Frequency

There are many different calculations for this, depending on the combination of components.

- The -3dB frequency for resistance and capacitance (the most common in amplifier design) is determined by

$$f_0 = 1 / (2 \pi R C)$$

☀ where f_0 is the -3dB frequency

When resistance and inductance are combined, the formula is

$$f_0 = R / (2 \pi L)$$

☀ Power

Power in any form can be calculated by a number of means:

$$P = V I$$
$$P = V^2 / R$$
$$P = I^2 R$$

where P is power in watts, V is voltage in Volts, and I is current in Amps.