EEE 3121 - Signals & Systems

Lecture 3: The Frequency domain: Fourier analysis

Instructor: Jerry MUWAMBA Email: jerry.muwamba@unza.zm jerrymuwamba@yahoo.com

March 2021

University of Zambia School of Engineering, Department of Electrical & Electronic Engineering

References

Our main reference text book in this course is

- [1] B. P. Lathi and R. A. Green, Linear Systems and Signals, 3rd Ed., 2018, Oxford University Press, New York. ISBN 978-0-19-020017-6
- [2] Kuo Franklin, F., Network Analysis and Synthesis, 3rd Ed., 1986, J. Wiley (SE), ISBN 0-471-51118-8.
- [3] Sundararanjan, D., A Practical Approach to Signals and Systems, 2008, John Wiley & Sons (Asia) Pte Ltd, ISBN 978-0-470-82353-8.

However, feel free to use pretty much any additional text which you might find relevant to our course.

3.1 Introduction

• One of the most common classes of signals encountered are periodic signals. If T_0 is the period of the signal, then

$$s(t) = s(t \pm nT_0)$$
 $n = 0, 1, 2, ...$ (3.1)

In addition, if s(t) has only a finite number of discontinuities in any finite period and if the integral

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+T_0} \left| s(t) \right| dt < \infty$$

is finite (where α is an arbitrary real number), then s(t) can be expanded into the infinite trigonometric series

$$s(t) = a_{0} + a_{1} \cos \omega_{0} t + a_{2} \cos 2\omega_{0} t + \cdots + b_{1} \sin \omega_{0} t + b_{2} \sin 2\omega_{0} t + \cdots$$
(3.2)



3.1 Introduction Cont'd

□ Here $\omega_0 = 2\pi/T_0$. This series is known as the Fourier series. In compact form, the Fourier series is

$$s(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos n\omega_0 t + b_n \sin n\omega_0 t \right)$$
(3.3)

- □ Thus, when s(t) can be described completely in terms of the coefficients of its harmonic terms. These coefficients constitute a frequency domain description of the signal.
- □ Our task now is to derive the equations for the coefficients a_n , b_n in terms of the given signal function s(t).
- □ Lets us first focus our energy and discussion on the mathematical basis of Fourier series, the theory of orthogonal sets.

3.2 Orthogonal functions

Consider any two functions $f_1(t)$ and $f_2(t)$ that are not identically zero. Then if

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} f_1(t) f_2(t) dt = 0$$
(3.4)

□ We say that $f_1(t)$ and $f_2(t)$ are orthogonal over the interval $[T_1, T_2]$. For instance, the functions sin t and cos t are orthogonal over the interval $n2\pi \le t \le (n+1)2\pi$. Consider next a set of real functions $\{\phi_1(t), \phi_2(t), ..., \phi_n(t)\}$. If the functions obey the condition

$$\left\langle \phi_{i}, \phi_{j} \right\rangle \equiv \int_{T_{1}}^{T_{2}} \phi_{i}(t) \phi_{j}(t) dt = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } i \neq j \\ \alpha, & \text{for } i = j \end{cases}$$
(3.5)

where $\alpha \neq 0$, then the set $\{\phi_i(t)\}$ forms an orthogonal set over $[T_1, T_2]$. In Eq. 3.5 the integral is denoted by the inner product $\langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle$. For convenience here, we use the inner product notation in our discussions.

3.2 Orthogonal functions Cont'd

□ The set $\{\phi_i(t)\}$ is orthonormal over $[T_1, T_2]$ if

$$\left\langle \phi_{i},\phi_{j}\right\rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & \forall i\neq j\\ 1, & \forall i=j \end{cases}$$
(3.6)

1 The norm of an element ϕ_k in the set $\{\phi_i(t)\}$ is defined as

$$\left\| \boldsymbol{\phi}_{k} \right\| = \left\langle \boldsymbol{\phi}_{k}, \boldsymbol{\phi}_{k} \right\rangle^{1/2} = \left[\int_{T_{1}}^{T_{2}} \boldsymbol{\phi}_{k}^{2}(t) dt \right]^{1/2}$$
(3.7)

□ Any orthogonal set $\{\phi_1(t), \phi_2(t), ..., \phi_n(t)\}$ can be normalized by dividing each term ϕ_k by its norm $\|\phi_k\|$.

Example 3.1 Orthogonal functions

A The Laguerre set, which has been shown to be very useful in time domain approximation, has the first four terms of as

$$\phi_{1}(t) = e^{-at}; \quad \phi_{2}(t) = e^{-at} \left[1 - 2(at) \right]; \quad \phi_{3}(t) = e^{-at} \left[1 - 4(at) + 2(at)^{2} \right];$$

$$\phi_{4}(t) = e^{-at} \left[1 - 6(at) + 6(at)^{2} - \frac{4}{3}(at)^{3} \right] \quad \dots$$
(3.8)

 \Leftrightarrow Show that the Laguerre set is orthogonal over $[0, \infty]$.

[Solution]

 \sim To show that the set is orthogonal, let us consider the integral

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \phi_{1}(t) \phi_{3}(t) dt = \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2at} \left[1 - 4(at) + 2(at)^{2} \right] dt$$
(3.9)



[Example 3.1] Orthogonal functions Cont'd

Ger Letting $\tau = at$, we have

Ger The norms of $\phi_1(t)$ and $\phi_2(t)$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \boldsymbol{\phi}_{1} \right\| &= \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2at} dt \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2a}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| \boldsymbol{\phi}_{2} \right\| &= \left(\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-2at} \left[1 - 4(at) + 4(at)^{2} \right] dt \right)^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$(3.11)$$

$$(3.12)$$

Department of Electrical & Electronic Engineering, School of Engineering, University of Zambia

 $\sqrt{2a}$

Example 3.1 Orthogonal functions Cont'd

Geven It is trivial to verify that the norms of all the elements in the set are also equal to $1/\sqrt{2a}$. Therefore, to render the Laguerre set orthonomal, we divide each element ϕ_i by $1/\sqrt{2a}$.

3.3 Approx. Using Orthogonal functions

□ We now explore some uses of orthogonal functions in linear approximation of functions. The key problem is approximating a function f(t) by a sequence of functions $f_n(t)$ such that the mean squared error (MSE) is

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left[f(t) - f_n(t) \right]^2 dt = 0$$
 (3.13)

When Eq. 3.13 is satisfied, we say that {f_n(t)} converges in the mean to f(t).
 To examine the concept of convergence in the mean more closely, we must consider the following definitions:

 $\mathcal{F} \text{Definition 3.1 Given a function } f(t) \text{ and constant } p > 0 \text{ for which} \\ \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left| f(t) \right|^p dt < \infty \\ \text{we say that } f(t) \text{ is integrable } L^p \text{ in } [T_1, T_2] \text{ , we write } f(t) \in L^p \text{ in } [T_1, T_2] \text{ .}$

3.3 Approx. Using Orthogonal functions Cont'd

G→*Definition 3.2* If $f(t) \in L^p$ in $[T_1, T_2]$, and $\{f_n(t)\}$ is a sequence of functions integrable L^p in $[T_1, T_2]$, we say that if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left[f(t) - f_n(t) \right]^p dt = 0$$

then $\{f_n(t)\}\$ converges in the mean order p to f(t). Specifically, when p = 2 we say that $\{f_n(t)\}\$ converges in the mean to f(t).

□ The principle of least squares. Consider the case when $f_n(t)$ consists of a linear combination of orthonormal functions $\phi_1, \phi_2, ..., \phi_n$.

$$f_n(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \phi_i(t)$$

(3.14)

3.3 Approx. Using Orthogonal functions Cont'd

 \Box Our problem is to determine the constants a_i such that the integral squared error

$$\left\|f - f_n\right\|^2 = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left[f(t) - f_n(t)\right]^2 dt$$
(3.15)

is a minimum. The principle of least squares states that in order to attain minimum squared error, the constants a_i must have values

$$c_{i} = \int_{T_{1}}^{T_{2}} f(t)\phi_{i}(t)dt$$
(3.16)

 $\mathcal{P} \text{roof. We show that in order for } \|f - f_n\|^2 \text{ to be minimum, we must set } a_i = c_i$ for every i = 1, 2, ..., n. $\|f - f_n\|^2 = \langle f, f \rangle - 2 \langle f, f_n \rangle + \langle f_n, f_n \rangle$ $= \|f\|^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \langle f, \phi_i \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \|\phi_i\|^2$ (3.17)

3.3 Approx. Using Orthogonal functions Cont'd

Since the set
$$\{\phi_i\}$$
 is orthonormal, $\|\phi_i\|^2 = 1$, and by definition
 $c_i = \langle f, \phi_i \rangle$. We thus have
 $\|f - f_n\|^2 = \|f\|^2 - 2\sum_{i=1}^n a_i c_i + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2$
(3.18)
Adding and subtracting $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$ yields
 $\|f - f_n\|^2 = \|f\|^2 - 2\sum_{i=1}^n a_i c_i + \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$
 $= \|f\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (c_i - a_i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$
(3.19)
 $= \|f\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (c_i - a_i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$
(3.19)
 $= \|f\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (c_i - a_i)^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$

3.3 Approx. Using Orthogonal functions Cont'd

D Parseval's equality. Consider $f_n(t)$ given in Eq. 3.14. We see that

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} \left[f_n(t) \right]^2 dt = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2$$
(3.20)

since ϕ_i are orthonormal functions. This result is known as *Parseval's equality*, and is important in determining the energy of a periodic signal.

3.4 Fourier Series

Let us return to the Fourier series as defined earlier.

$$s(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos n\omega_0 t + b_n \sin n\omega_0 t)$$
 (3.21)

□ By the approximation using orthonormal functions just discussed, we see that a periodic function s(t) with period T_0 can be approximated by a Fourier series $s_n(t)$ such that $s_n(t)$ converges in the mean to s(t), that is,

$$\lim_{\alpha \to \infty} \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha+T} \left[s(t) - s_n(t) \right]^2 dt \to 0$$
(3.22)

where α is any real number. We know, that if *n* is finite, the mean squared error $||s(t) - s_n(t)||^2$ is minimized when the constants a_i , b_i are Fourier coefficients of s(t) with respect to the orthonormal set

$$\left\{ \frac{\cos k \omega_0 t}{\left(T_0 / 2\right)^{1/2}}, \ \frac{\sin k \omega_0 t}{\left(T_0 / 2\right)^{1/2}} \right\}, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

3.4 Fourier Series Cont'd

In explicit form the Fourier coefficients, according to the definition given earlier, are obtained from the equations

$$a_{0} = \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha + T_{0}} s(t) dt$$
(3.23)
$$a_{k} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha + T_{0}} s(t) \cos k\omega_{0} t dt$$
(3.24)
$$b_{k} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \int_{\alpha}^{\alpha + T_{0}} s(t) \sin k\omega_{0} t dt$$
(3.25)

10

3.4 Fourier Series Cont'd

☐ It is worth noting that because the Fourier series $s_n(t)$ only converges to s(t) in the mean, when s(t) contains a jump discontinuity, for example, at t_0

$$s_n(t_0) = \frac{s(t_0 +) + s(t_0 -)}{2}$$
(3.26)

 \Box At any point t_1 that s(t) is differentiable $s_n(t_1)$ converges to $s(t_1)$.



Fig. 3.1: Rectified sine wave.

[Example 3.2] Fourier Series

Consider the Fourier coefficients of the fully rectified sine wave in Fig. 3.1. The period is $T_0 = \pi$ so that the fundamental frequency is $\omega_0 = 2$. The signal is given as

$$s(t) = A \left| \sin t \right| \tag{3.27}$$

[Solution]

A Lets us take $\alpha = 0$ and evaluate between 0 and π . Using the formulae just derived, we have

$$b_n = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} s(t) \sin 2nt \, dt = \frac{2A}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin t \sin 2nt \, dt = 0$$
(3.28)

$$a_{0} = \frac{A}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin t \, dt = -\frac{A}{\pi} \cos t \Big|_{0}^{\pi} = \frac{2A}{\pi}$$
(3.29)

$$a_{n} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} s(t) \cos 2nt \, dt = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} A \sin t \cos 2nt \, dt$$

[Example 3.2] Fourier Series Cont'd

Geo Use of the trigonometric identity $A \sin t \cos 2nt = \frac{A}{2} [\sin(1+2n)t + \sin(1-2n)t]$ yields

$$a_{n} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{A}{2} [\sin(1+2n)t + \sin(1-2n)t] dt; \text{ i.e.},$$

$$a_{n} = -\frac{A}{\pi} \left[\frac{\cos(1+2n)t}{1+2n} + \frac{\cos(1-2n)t}{1-2n} \right]_{0}^{\pi}; \qquad \therefore \ a_{n} = \frac{1}{1-4n^{2}} \frac{4A}{\pi}$$
(3.30)

Ger Thus the Fourier series of the rectified sine wave is

$$s(t) = \frac{4A}{2\pi} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{1 - 4n^2} \cos 2nt \right\}$$
(3.31)

We now consider two other useful forms of Fourier series. From Eqs. 3.23-3.25, let $\alpha = -T_0/2$ and we represent the integrals as the sum of two separate parts, that is

$$a_{n} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \left[\int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} s(t) \cos n\omega_{0} t \, dt + \int_{-T_{0}/2}^{0} s(t) \cos n\omega_{0} t \, dt \right]$$

$$b_{n} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \left[\int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} s(t) \sin n\omega_{0} t \, dt + \int_{-T_{0}/2}^{0} s(t) \sin n\omega_{0} t \, dt \right]$$
(3.32)

Since the variable (t) in the above integrals is a dummy variable, let us substitute x = t in the integrals with limits $(0; T_0/2)$, and let x = -t in the integrals with limits $(-T_0/2; 0)$. Then we have

$$a_{n} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} \left[s(x) + s(-x) \right] \cos n\omega_{0} x \, dx$$
$$b_{n} = \frac{2}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} \left[s(x) - s(-x) \right] \sin n\omega_{0} x \, dx$$

(3.33)

Suppose now the function is odd, that is, s(x) = -s(-x), then we see that $a_n = 0$ for all n, and

$$b_n = \frac{4}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0/2} s(x) \sin n\omega_0 x \, dx \tag{3.34}$$

- ☐ The implication is that, the Fourier series of an odd function will only contain *sine terms*.
- **Suppose the function is even, that is,** s(x) = s(-x), then $b_n = 0$ and

$$a_{n} = \frac{4}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} s(x) \cos n\omega_{0} x \, dx$$
(3.35)

Consequently, the Fourier series of an even function will contain only cosine terms.





Suppose next, the function s(t) obeys the condition

$$s\left(t\pm\frac{T}{2}\right) = -s(t)$$

(3.36)

as given by the example in Fig. 3.2.

 \Box We show that s(t) given in Fig. 3.2 contains only odd harmonic terms, that is,

$$a_{n} = b_{n} = 0; \quad n \text{ even}$$

$$a_{n} = \frac{4}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} s(t) \cos n\omega_{0} t \, dt \quad (3.37)$$

$$b_{n} = \frac{4}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} s(t) \sin n\omega_{0} t \, dt, \quad n \text{ odd}$$

and

❑ With knowledge of symmetry conditions, let us examine how we can approximate an arbitrary time function s(t) by a Fourier series within an interval [0, T]. Outside this interval, the Fourier series s_n(t) is not required to fit s(t).

□ Consider the signal s(t) in Fig. 3.3. We can approximate s(t) by any periodic functions shown in Fig. 3.4. Observe that each periodic waveform exhibits some sort of symmetry.



Fig. 3.3: Signal to be approximated.

Now let us consider two other useful forms of Fourier series. The first is the Fourier cosine series, based on trigonometric identity,

$$C_n \cos(n\omega_0 t + \theta_n) = C_n \cos n\omega_0 t \cos \theta_n - C_n \sin n\omega_0 t \sin \theta_n$$
(3.38)



Fig. 3.4: (*a*) Even function cosine terms only. (*b*) Odd function sine terms only. (*c*) Odd harmonics only with both sine and cosine terms.



We can derive the form of Fourier cosine series by setting

$$a_n = C_n \cos \theta_n \tag{3.39}$$
$$b = -C \sin \theta \tag{3.40}$$

and

We then obtain C_n and θ_n in terms of a_n and b_n , as

$$C_{n} = \left[a_{n}^{2} + b_{n}^{2}\right]^{1/2}; \quad C_{0} = a_{0}; \quad \theta_{n} = \tan^{-1}\left\{-\frac{b_{n}}{a_{n}}\right\}$$
(3.41)

□ If we combine the cosine and sine terms of each harmonic in the original series, we readily obtain from Eqs. 3.38 - 3.41 the Fourier cosine series

$$f(t) = C_0 + C_1 \cos(\omega_0 t + \theta_1) + C_2 \cos(2\omega_0 t + \theta_2)$$

+
$$C_3 \cos(3\omega_0 t + \theta_3) + \dots + C_n \cos(n\omega_0 t + \theta_n)$$

(3.42)

□ Note, that the coefficients C_n are usually taken to be positive. If however, a term such as $-3\cos 2\omega_0 t$ carries a negative sign, then we can use the equivalent form

$$-3\cos 2\omega_{0}t = 3\cos(2\omega_{0}t + \pi)$$
 (3.43)

Example, the Fourier series of the fully rectified sine wave in Fig. 3.1 was shown to be

$$s(t) = \frac{4A}{2\pi} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{1 - 4n^2} \cos 2nt \right\}$$

(3.44)

D Expressed as a Fourier cosine series, s(t) is

$$s(t) = \frac{4A}{2\pi} \left\{ 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{4n^2 - 1} \cos(2nt + \pi) \right\}$$
(3.45)

□ Next, consider the complex form of a Fourier series. If we express $\cos n\omega_0 t$ and $\sin n\omega_0 t$ in terms of complex exponentials, then the Fourier series can be written

as

$$\begin{split} s(t) &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ a_n \, \frac{e^{jn\omega_0 t} + e^{-jn\omega_0 t}}{2} + b_n \, \frac{e^{jn\omega_0 t} - e^{-jn\omega_0 t}}{2j} \right\} \\ &= a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{a_n - jb_n}{2} e^{jn\omega_0 t} + \frac{a_n + jb_n}{2} e^{-jn\omega_0 t} \right\} \end{split}$$

(3.46)

If we define

$$\beta_n = \frac{a_n - jb_n}{2}, \quad \beta_{-n} = \frac{a_n + jb_n}{2}, \quad \beta_0 = a_0$$
 (3.47)

Ger Thus the complex form of the Fourier series is

$$P(t) = \beta_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\beta_n e^{jn\omega_0 t} + \beta_{-n} e^{-jn\omega_0 t})$$

$$= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \beta_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$
(3.48)

(3.49)

Ger We can readily express the coefficients β_n as a function of s(t), since

$$\begin{split} \beta_{n} &= \frac{a_{n} - jb_{n}}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}} s(t) (\cos n\omega_{0}t - j\sin n\omega_{0}t) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}} s(t) e^{-jn\omega_{0}t} dt \end{split}$$

Equation 3.49 is sometimes called the discrete Fourier transform of s(t) and Eq. 3.48 is the inverse transform of $\beta_n(n\omega_0) = \beta_n$.



 \Box The real part of β_n is obtained from Eq. 3.49 as

Re
$$\beta_n = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} s(t) \cos n\omega_0 t \, dt$$
 (3.51)

and the imaginary part of β_n is

$$j \operatorname{Im} \beta_{n} = \frac{-j}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}} s(t) \sin n\omega_{0} t \, dt$$
(3.52)

Clearly, $\operatorname{Re} \beta_n$ is an even function in *n*, whereas $\operatorname{Im} \beta_n$ is an odd function in *n*. The amplitude spectrum of the Fourier series is defined as

$$\left|\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}\right| = \left\{\operatorname{Re}^{2}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n} + \operatorname{Im}^{2}\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n}\right\}^{1/2}$$
(3.53)

(3.54)

and the phase spectrum is defined as

$$\phi_n = \arctan\left\{rac{\operatorname{Im}oldsymbol{eta}_n}{\operatorname{Re}oldsymbol{eta}_n}
ight\}$$

- \Box It is easily seen that the amplitude spectrum is an even function and the phase spectrum is an odd function in n.
- □ The amplitude spectrum gives an insight as to where to truncate the infinite series and still maintain a good approximation to the original waveform.
- □ Clearly, for the amplitude spectrum in Fig. 3.5, we see that a good approximation can be obtained if we disregard any harmonic above the third.

[Example 3.3] Complex Fourier Coefficients

Ge Construction of the square wave in Fig. 3.6. Also find the amplitude and phase spectra of the square wave.

& [Solution]

Ger From Fig. 3.6, we note that s(t) is an odd function. Moreover, since

s(t - T/2) = -s(t), the series has only odd harmonics. Thus from Eq. 3.49 we

obtain the coefficients of the complex Fourier series as

[Example 3.3] Complex Fourier Coefficients Cont'd

$$\beta_{n} = \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}/2} A e^{-jn\omega_{0}t} dt - \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{T_{0}/2}^{T_{0}} A e^{-jn\omega_{0}t} dt$$

$$= \frac{A}{jn\omega_{0}T_{0}} \left(1 - 2e^{-(jn\omega_{0}T_{0}/2)} + e^{-jn\omega_{0}T_{0}} \right)$$
(3.55)

 $\text{Since } n\omega_{_{0}}T_{_{0}}=n2\pi \text{ , } \beta_{_{n}} \text{ can be simplified to}$

$$\beta_{n} = \frac{A}{j2n\pi} \left(1 - 2e^{-jn\pi} + e^{-j2n\pi} \right)$$
(3.56)

(3.57)

Ger Simplifying β_n one step further, we obtain

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n} = \begin{cases} \frac{2A}{jn\pi} & \forall \text{ odd } n \\ 0 & \forall \text{ even } n \end{cases}$$

[Example 3.3] Complex Fourier Coefficients Cont'd

Ger The amplitude and phase spectra of the square wave are thus as given in Fig. 3.7.





Fig. 3.7: Discrete spectra of square wave. (*a*) Amplitude. (*b*) Phase.

- Here, we make use of a basic property of impulse functions to simplify the calculation of complex Fourier coefficients. This method is applicable to functions consisting of straight-line components only. Thus the method applies for the square wave in Fig. 3.6.
- The method is based on the relation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\delta(t-T_1)dt = f(T_1)$$
(3.58)

□ Let us use Eq. 3.58 to evaluate the complex Fourier coefficients for the impulse train in Fig. 3.8. For $f(t) = e^{-jn\omega_0 t}$, we have

$$\beta_{n} = \frac{A}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}} \delta\left(t - \frac{T_{0}}{2}\right) e^{-jn\omega_{0}t} dt = \frac{A}{T_{0}} e^{-(jn\omega_{0}T_{0}/2)}$$
(3.59)



Fig. 3.8: Impulse train.

The complex Fourier coefficients for the impulse functions are obtained by simply substituting the time at which the impulses occur into the expression $e^{-jn\omega_0 t}$.

In the evaluation of Fourier coefficients, we must remember that the limits for the

 β_n integral are taken over one period only, i.e., we consider only a single period of the signal in the analysis.

Consider, as an example, the square wave in Fig. 3.6. To evaluate β_n , we consider only a single period of the square wave as shown in Fig. 3.9*a*.



Fig. 3.9: (a) Square wave over period [0, T]. (b) Derivative of square wave over period [0, T].

- □ Since the square wave is not made up of impulses, let us differentiate the single period of the square wave to give s'(t) as shown in Fig. 3.9*b*.
- □ We can now evaluate the complex Fourier coefficients for s'(t), which clearly is made up of impulses alone. Analytically, if s(t) is given as

$$s(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} eta_n e^{jn \omega_0 t}$$

then the derivative of s(t) is

$$s'(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} jn\omega_0 \beta_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$
(3.61)

(3.60)

Here, we define a new complex coefficient

$$\gamma_{n} = jn\omega_{0}\beta_{n}$$
(3.62)
$$\beta_{n} = \frac{\gamma_{n}}{jn\omega_{0}}$$
(3.63)

or

If the derivative s'(t) is a function which consists of impulse components alone, then we simply evaluate γ_n first and then obtain β_n from Eq. 3.63.

□ For example, the derivative of the square wave yields the impulse train in Fig.
 3.9b. In the interval [0, T], the signal s'(t) is given as

$$s'(t) = A\delta(t) - 2A\delta\left(t - \frac{T_0}{2}\right) + A\delta(t - T_0)$$
(3.64)

Then the complex coefficients are

$$Y_{n} = \frac{1}{T_{0}} \int_{0}^{T_{0}} s'(t) e^{-jn\omega_{0}t} dt$$

$$= \frac{A}{T_{0}} \left(1 - 2e^{-(jn\omega_{0}T_{0}/2)} + e^{-jn\omega T_{0}} \right)$$
(3.65)

(3.66)

☐ The Fourier coefficients of the square wave are

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{\beta}_{n} &= \frac{\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{n}}{jn\boldsymbol{\omega}_{0}} \\ &= \frac{A}{jn\boldsymbol{\omega}_{0}T_{0}} \Big(1 - 2e^{-(jn\boldsymbol{\omega}_{0}T_{0}/2)} + e^{-jn\boldsymbol{\omega}_{0}T_{0}} \Big) \end{split}$$

- □ The solution obtained in Eq. 3.66 checks with that obtained earlier by the standard way in Eq. 3.55.
- □ Note, if the first derivative, s'(t), does not contain impulses, then we must differentiate again to yield

$$s''(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \lambda_n e^{jn\omega_0 t}$$

$$\lambda_n = jn\omega_0 \gamma_n = (jn\omega_0)^2 \beta_n$$
(3.67)
(3.68)

where

For the triangular pulse in Fig. 3.10, the second derivative over the period [0, T] is

$$s''(t) = \frac{2A}{T_0} \left[\delta(t) - 2\delta\left(t - \frac{T_0}{2}\right) + \delta(t - T_0) \right]$$
(3.69)

 $\frac{T}{2}$

(b)

T

t

s'(t)

 $\frac{2A}{T}$

0

 $\frac{2A}{T}$



Fig. 3.10: The triangular wave and its derivatives.

The coefficients λ_n are now obtained as

$$\begin{split} \lambda_n &= \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} s''(t) \, e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt \\ &= \frac{2A}{T_0^2} \Big(1 - 2e^{-(jn\omega_0 T_0/2)} + e^{-jn\omega_0 T_0} \Big) \end{split}$$



(3.70)

☐ Eq. 3.70 simplifies to give

$$\lambda_n = \begin{cases} \frac{8A}{T^2} & \forall \ n \ \text{odd} \\ 0 & \forall \ n \ \text{even} \end{cases}$$

From λ_n we obtain

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{n} = \frac{\lambda_{n}}{\left(jn\boldsymbol{\omega}_{0}\right)^{2}} = \begin{cases} -\frac{2A}{n^{2}\pi^{2}} & \forall \ n \text{ odd} \\ 0 & \forall \ n \text{ even} \end{cases}$$
(3.72)

(3.71)

A slight difficulty arises if the expression for s'(t) contains an impulse in addition to other straight-line terms.

Nonetheless, we know that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t)\delta'(t-T)dt = -s'(T)$$
(3.73)

(3.74)

(3.75)

So that

Thus, doublets or even higher derivatives of impulses can be tolerated.

Consider the signal s(t) given in Fig. 3.11*a*. Its derivative s'(t), shown in Fig. 3.11*b*, can be expressed as

 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta'(t-T) e^{-jn\omega t} dt = jn\omega e^{-jn\omega T}$

$$s'(t) = \frac{2}{T} \left[u(t) - u \left(t - \frac{T}{2} \right) \right] + \delta(t) - 2\delta \left(t - \frac{T}{2} \right)$$

☐ It follows that the second derivative s''(t) is given by Eq. 3.76

$$s''(t) = \frac{2}{T} \left[\delta(t) - \delta\left(t - \frac{T}{2}\right) \right] + \delta'(t) - 2\delta'\left(t - \frac{T}{2}\right)$$

□ This is depicted in Fig. 3.11*c*. We therefore evaluate λ_n as

$$\begin{split} \lambda_n &= \frac{1}{T_0} \int_0^{T_0} s''(t) \, e^{-jn\omega_0 t} dt \\ &= \frac{2}{T^2} \Big(1 - e^{-(jn\omega T/2)} \Big) + \frac{jn\omega}{T} \Big(1 - 2e^{-(jn\omega T/2)} \Big) \end{split}$$

(3.77)

(3.76)





☐ Simplifying, we get

$$\beta_n = -\frac{1}{n^2 \pi^2} + \frac{3}{j2\pi n} \quad \forall n \text{ odd}$$
$$= -\frac{1}{j2\pi n} \quad \forall n \text{ even}$$

(3.79)

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the impulse method to evaluate Fourier coefficients does not give the dc component, $a_0 \text{ or } \beta_0$. Thus, this is obtain through standard means as given by Eq. 3.23.

3.7 The Fourier Integral

- □ We now extend our signal analysis to the aperiodic case. Generally, aperiodic signals have continuous amplitude and phase spectra.
- ☐ In our discussion of Fourier series, the complex coefficient β_n for periodic signals was also called the discrete Fourier transform

$$\beta(nf_0) = \frac{1}{T_0} \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} s(t) e^{-jn2\pi f_0 t} dt$$
(3.80)

and the inverse (discrete) transform was

$$s(t) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} \beta(nf_0) e^{jn2\pi f_0 t}$$
(3.81)

(3.82

From the discrete Fourier transform we obtain amplitude and phase spectra which consist of discrete lines. The spacing between adjacent lines is

$$\Delta f = (n+1)f_0 - nf_0 = \frac{1}{T}$$

- As the period T becomes larger, the spacing between the harmonic lines in the spectrum becomes smaller. For aperiodic signals, we let T approach infinity so that, in the limit, the discrete spectrum becomes *continuous*.
- We now define the Fourier integral or transform as

$$S(f) = \lim_{\substack{T \to \infty \\ \Delta f \to 0}} \frac{\beta_n(nf_0)}{f_0} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) e^{-j2\pi f t} dt$$

$$S(\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \qquad (3.83)$$

and the inverse transform is

s(t

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df \quad \text{or} \quad s(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\omega) e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$
(3.84)

or

Eqs. 3.83 and 3.84 are sometimes called the Fourier transform pair. If we let
 F denote the operation of Fourier transformation and *F*⁻¹ denote inverse transformation, then

$$S(f) = \mathcal{F} \cdot s(t)$$

$$s(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \cdot S(f)$$
(3.85)

□ In general, the Fourier transform S(f) is complex and can be denoted as

 $S(f) = \operatorname{Re} S(f) + j \operatorname{Im} S(f)$ (3.86)

The real part of S(f) is obtained through the formula

$$\operatorname{Re} S(f) = \frac{1}{2} \Big[S(f) + S(-f) \Big]$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) \cos 2\pi f t \, dt$$

(3.87)

and the imaginary part through

$$\operatorname{Im} S(f) = \frac{1}{2j} \Big[S(f) - S(-f) \Big]$$

= $-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) \sin 2\pi f t \, dt$ (3.88)

The amplitude spectrum of S(f) is defined as

$$A(f) = \left[\operatorname{Re} S(f)^{2} + \operatorname{Im} S(f)^{2} \right]^{1/2}$$
(3.89)

and the phase spectrum is

$$\phi(f) = \arctan \frac{\operatorname{Im} S(f)}{\operatorname{Re} S(f)}$$
(3.90)

❑ By means of the amplitude and phase definition of the Fourier transform, the inverse transform can be expressed as

$$s(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(f) \cos\left[2\pi ft - \phi(f)\right] df$$
(3.91)

□ Let us examine some examples.



Fig. 3.12: Amplitude and phase spectrum of $A\delta(t - t_0)$.



Example 3.4 The Fourier Integral

Get Obtain Fig. 3.12 by finding the Fourier transform of $s(t) = A\delta(t - t_0)$. [SOLUTION]

$$S(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A \,\delta(t - t_0) e^{-j2\pi f t} dt$$

= $A e^{-j2\pi f t_0}$ (3.92)

G√Its amplitude spectrum is

$$A(f) = A \tag{3.93}$$

Ger while its phase spectrum is

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}(f) = -2\pi f t_0 \tag{3.94}$$

Example 3.5 The Fourier Integral

Consider the rectangular function in Fig. 3.13. If formally, we define the function as the *rect* function given by

$$\operatorname{rect} f = \begin{cases} 1 & \forall \left| f \right| \leq \frac{W}{2} \\ 0 & \forall \left| f \right| > \frac{W}{2} \end{cases}$$
(3.95)

Get The inverse transform of rect f is defined as sinc t (pronounced as sink),

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}\left[\operatorname{rect} f\right] = \operatorname{sinc} t$$

$$= \int_{-W/2}^{W/2} e^{j2\pi ft} df = \left[\frac{e^{j2\pi ft}}{j2\pi t}\right]_{-W/2}^{W/2}$$

$$= \frac{\sin \pi W t}{\pi t}$$
(3.96)



Fig. 3.13: Plot of a rect function.







Fig. 3.15: Illustration of the reciprocity relationships between time duration and bandwidth.

- From the plot of sinc t in Fig. 3.14 we see that sinc t falls as does $|t|^{-1}$, with zeros at t = n/W, n = 1, 2, 3, ... Note that most of the energy of the signal is concentrated between the points -1/W < t < 1/W.
- □ Let us define time duration of a signal as that point, t_0 , beyond which the amplitude is never greater than a specified value, for example, ϵ_0 .
- □ For the sinc function, the effective time duration is given as $t_0 = \pm 1/W$. The value *W*, as seen from Fig. 3.13, is the spectral bandwith of the rect function.
- □ Clearly, if *W* increases, t_0 decreases. The preceding example illustrates the reciprocal relationship between the time duration of a signal and spectral bandwith of it Fourier transform.
- This concept is quite fundamental. It shows why in pulse transmission, narrow pulses, can only be transmitted through filters with larger bandwidths; whereas, wide pulses do not require wide bandwidths. See Fig. 3.15.



3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms

- U We now focus our energy on some important properties of Fourier transforms.
- Linearity. The linearity property of Fourier transforms states that the Fourier transform of a sum of two signals is the sum of their individual Fourier transforms, that is,

$$\mathscr{F}\left[c_{1}s_{1}(t) + c_{2}s_{2}(t)\right] = c_{1}S_{1}(f) + c_{2}S_{2}(f)$$
(3.97)

Differentiation. This property states that the Fourier transform of the derivative of a signal is $j2\pi f$ times the Fourier transform of the signal itself:

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot s'(t) = j2\pi f S(f) \tag{3.98}$$

(3.9

more generally,

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot s^{(n)}(t) = (j2\pi f)^n S(f)$$

3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

Proof, is obtained by taking the derivative of both sides of the inverse transform definition,

$$s'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} j2\pi f S(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df$$
(3.100)

Similarly, it is easily shown that the transform of the integral of s(t) is

$$\mathscr{F}\left[\int_{-\infty}^{t} s(\tau) d\tau\right] = \frac{1}{j2\pi f} S(f)$$
(3.101)

(3.102)

[Example 3.6] Properties of *F*-Transforms

Ger Consider the following

$$s(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$$

[Example 3.6] Properties of *F*-Transforms Cont'd

Ger Its Fourier transform is

$$S(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-at} u(t) e^{-j2\pi ft} dt$$

$$= \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-at} e^{-j2\pi ft} dt = \frac{1}{a+j2\pi f}$$
(3.103)

Get The derivative of s(t) is

$$s'(t) = \delta(t) - ae^{-at}u(t)$$
(3.104)

Ger Its Fourier transform is

$$\mathscr{F}\left[s'(t)\right] = 1 - \frac{a}{a+j2\pi f} = \frac{j2\pi f}{a+j2\pi f}$$
(3.105)
= $j2\pi f S(f)$



3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

Symmetry. The symmetry property of Fourier transforms states that if

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot x(t) = X(f) \tag{3.106}$$
$$\mathcal{F} \cdot X(t) = x(-f) \tag{3.107}$$

This property follows directly from the symmetrical nature of the Fourier transform pair in Eqs. 3.83 and 3.84.

[Example 3.7] Properties of *F*-Transforms

Ger We now know that

then

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot \operatorname{sinc} t = \operatorname{rect} f \tag{3.108}$$

Gerry It is then trivial to show that

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot \operatorname{rect} t = \operatorname{sinc}(-f) = \operatorname{sinc} f$$
 (3.109)

which conforms to the statement of the symmetry property.

[Example 3.8] Properties of F-Transforms

Ger Consider next the *Fourier transform* of the unit impulse, $\mathcal{F} \cdot \delta(t) = 1$. From the *symmetry property* we can show that

$$\mathcal{F} \cdot 1 = \delta(f) \tag{3.110}$$

as shown in Fig. 3.16.

The foregoing example is also an extreme illustration of the time-duration and bandwidth reciprocity relationship. It says that zero time duration, $\delta(t)$, gives rise to infinite bandwidth in the frequency domain; while zero bandwidth, $\delta(f)$ corresponds to infinite time duration.



3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

□ Scale change. The scale-change property describes the time-duration and bandwidth reciprocity relationship. It states that

$$\mathscr{F}\left[s\left(\frac{t}{a}\right)\right] = \left|a\right|S(af) \tag{3.111}$$

GSProof. We prove this property most easily through the inverse transform

$$\mathscr{F}^{-1}\left[\left|a\right|S(af)\right] = \left|a\right|\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}S(af)e^{j2\pi ft}df$$
(3.112)

Get f' = af, then

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}\left[\left|a\right|S(f')\right] = \left|a\right| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(f') e^{j2\pi f'(t/a)} \frac{df'}{a}$$

$$= s\left(\frac{t}{a}\right)$$
(3.113)

[Example 3.9] Properties of F-Transforms

$$\mathscr{F}\left[e^{-at}u(t)\right] = \frac{1}{j2\pi f + a}$$
(3.114)
then
$$\mathscr{F}\left[e^{-t}u(t)\right] = \frac{|a|}{j2\pi af + a}$$

$$= \frac{1}{j2\pi f + 1}$$
if $a > 0$.

Folding. The folding property states that

$$\mathscr{F}\left\{s(-t)\right\} = S(-f)$$

(3.116)

3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

□ The proof follows directly from the definition of the Fourier transform. An example is

$$\mathscr{F}\left\{e^{t}u(-t)\right\} = \frac{1}{1 - j2\pi f}$$
(3.117)

Delay. If a signal is delayed by an amount t_0 in the time domain, the corresponding effect in the frequency domain is to multiply the transform of the undelayed signal by $e^{-j2\pi ft_0}$, that is,

$$\mathscr{F}\left\{s(t-t_{0})\right\} = e^{-j2\pi ft_{0}}S(f)$$
(3.118)

☐ For example,

$$\mathscr{F}\left\{e^{-a(t-t_0)}u(t-t_0)\right\} = \frac{e^{-j2\pi ft_0}}{a+j2\pi f}$$
(3.119)

3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

□ Modulation. The modulation or frequency shift property of Fourier transforms states that if a Fourier transform is shifted in frequency by an amount f_0 , the corresponding effect in time is described by multiplying the original signal by

 $e^{j2\pi f_0 t}$, that is,

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}\left[S(f-f_0)\right] = e^{j2\pi f_0 t} s(t)$$
(3.120)



[Example 3.9] Properties of *F*-Transforms Cont'd

$$\mathscr{F}^{-1}S_1(f) = e^{j2\pi f_0 t} s(t) + e^{-j2\pi f_0 t} s(t) = 2s(t)\cos 2\pi f_0 t$$
(3.122)

Control Thus we see that multiplying a signal by a cosine or sine wave in the time domain corresponds to shifting its spectrum by an amount $\pm f_0$. In transmission terminology f_0 is the carrier frequency, and the process of multiplying s(t) by $\cos 2\pi f_0 t$ is called amplitude modulation.

Parseval's theorem. An important theorem which relates energy in the time and frequency domains is Parseval's theorem, which states that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s_1(t) s_2(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_1(f) S_2(-f) df$$
(3.123)

Ger Proof

$$\begin{split} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s_1(t) s_2(t) dt &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s_2(t) dt \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_1(f) e^{j2\pi ft} df \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_1(f) df \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s_2(t) e^{j2\pi ft} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S_1(f) S_2(-f) df \end{split}$$
(3.124)

3.8 Properties of Fourier Transforms Cont'd

In particular, when $s_1(t) = s_2(t)$, we have a corollary of Parseval's theorem known as Plancheral's theorem.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s^2(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left| S(f) \right|^2 df$$
(3.125)

□ If s(t) is equal to the current through, or the voltage across a 1-ohm resistor, the total energy is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}s^{2}(t)dt$$

■ We see from Eq. 3.125 that the total energy is also equal to the area under the curve of $|S(f)|^2$. Thus $|S(f)|^2$ is sometimes called an energy density or energy spectrum.

End of Lecture 3

Thank you for your attention!