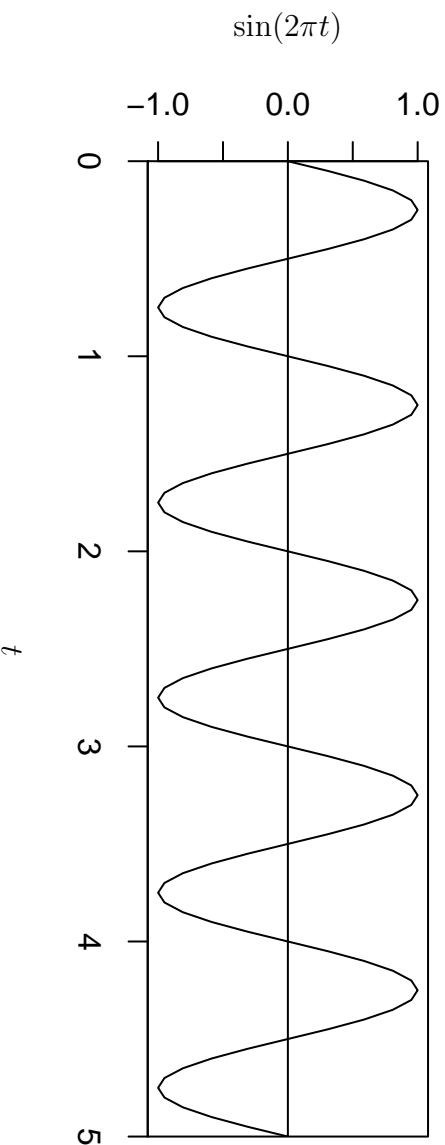


Sine Waves and Frequency

Think of pure tone

- Wave form is a sine (or cosine) wave



- Equations in time are

$$y(t) = \sin(2\pi ft) = \sin(2\pi t/L)$$

$$y(t) = \cos(2\pi ft) = \cos(2\pi t/L)$$

where f is the *frequency* and $L = 1/f$ the *wavelength*

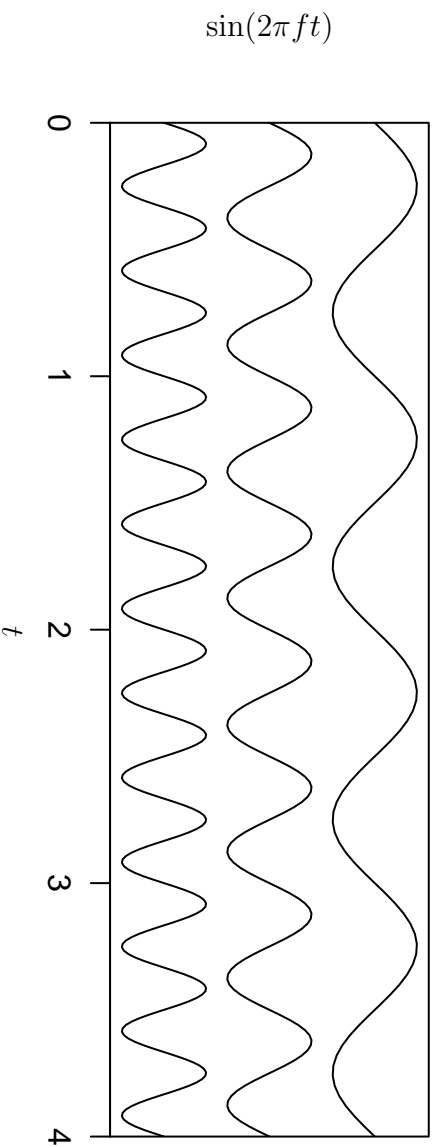
- The argument of the sine or cosine is measured in radians
 - * The wave goes through one complete cycle in 360° or 2π radians

$$1^\circ = 0.01745 \text{ radian} \quad \text{and} \quad 1 \text{ radian} = 57.30^\circ$$

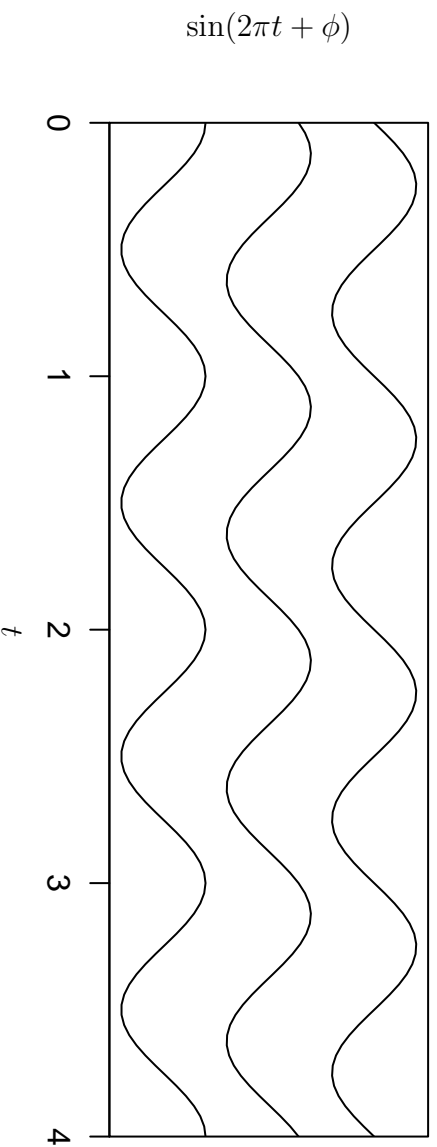
- The cosine is often the function chosen
 - * The cosine is an *even function*, symmetric about zero: $y(t) = y(-t)$
 - * The sine is an *odd function*, antisymmetric about zero: $y(t) = -y(-t)$

Frequency and Phase

- Sine waves can have different frequencies



- Sine waves can have different displacements or *phase*



- The cosine is a displacement of the sine by $\pi/2$: $\cos(t) = \sin(t + \pi/2)$

Three Representations of Phase

1. As an increment to the argument of a sine or cosine

$$y(t) = \sin(2\pi ft + \phi)$$

2. As the sum of a sine and a cosine term

$$y(t) = a \cos(2\pi ft) + b \sin(2\pi ft),$$

$$a = \sin(\phi) \quad \text{and} \quad b = \cos(\phi)$$

$$\phi = \arctan(a/b)$$

3. By coding as a complex exponential with a complex coefficient

$$y(t) = ze^{i2\pi ft} + \bar{z}e^{i2\pi(-f)t} \quad \text{where} \quad z = \frac{1}{2}(a - ib), \quad \bar{z} = \frac{1}{2}(a + ib) \quad \text{and} \quad i = \sqrt{-1}$$

- Use of imaginary numbers and negative frequencies is just a computational convenience
- Expect to find it in computer output

The exponential of an imaginary number ix is a point on the unit circle at a distance x along the circle from $(1, 0)$

$$e^x = \cos(x) + i \sin x$$

Thus, for the representation of phase

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= ze^{i2\pi ft} + \bar{z}e^{-i2\pi ft} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a - ib)[\cos(2\pi ft) + i \sin(2\pi ft)] + \frac{1}{2}(a + ib)[\cos(-2\pi ft) + i \sin(-2\pi ft)] \\ &= a \cos(2\pi ft) - i^2 b \sin(2\pi ft) \\ &= a \cos(2\pi ft) + b \sin(2\pi ft) \end{aligned}$$

Nonsinusoidal Waveforms

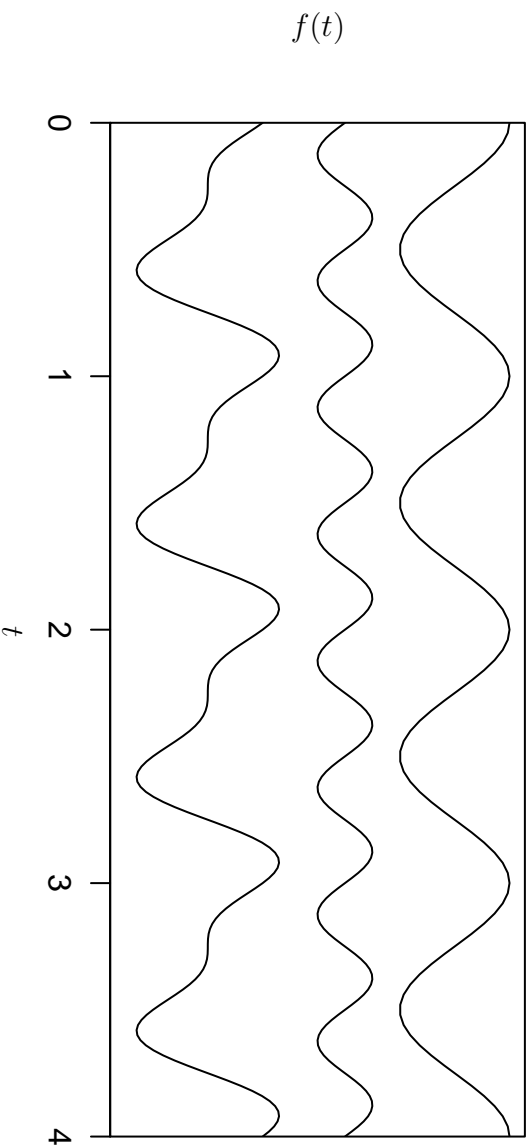
A combination of sinusoidal waves of different frequencies is periodic but not sinusoidal

$$f(t) = a_1 \cos(2\pi f_1 t + \phi_1) + a_2 \cos(2\pi f_2 t + \phi_2) + a_3 \cos(2\pi f_3 t + \phi_3) + \dots$$

The fundamental (longest) wavelength must be an integer multiple of the wavelength of each shorter component

$$L_1 = kL_j \quad \text{or} \quad f_j = f_1/k$$

- Changing the phase or amplitude of the combination changes the shape of the sum
- $f(t) = \cos(2\pi t) - \frac{1}{2} \sin(4\pi t)$



Fourier Series

Fundamental Result: Any periodic function can be expressed as the sum of a series of sine and cosine waves

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(2\pi n f t) + b_n \sin(2\pi n f t)$$

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} f(t) dt$$

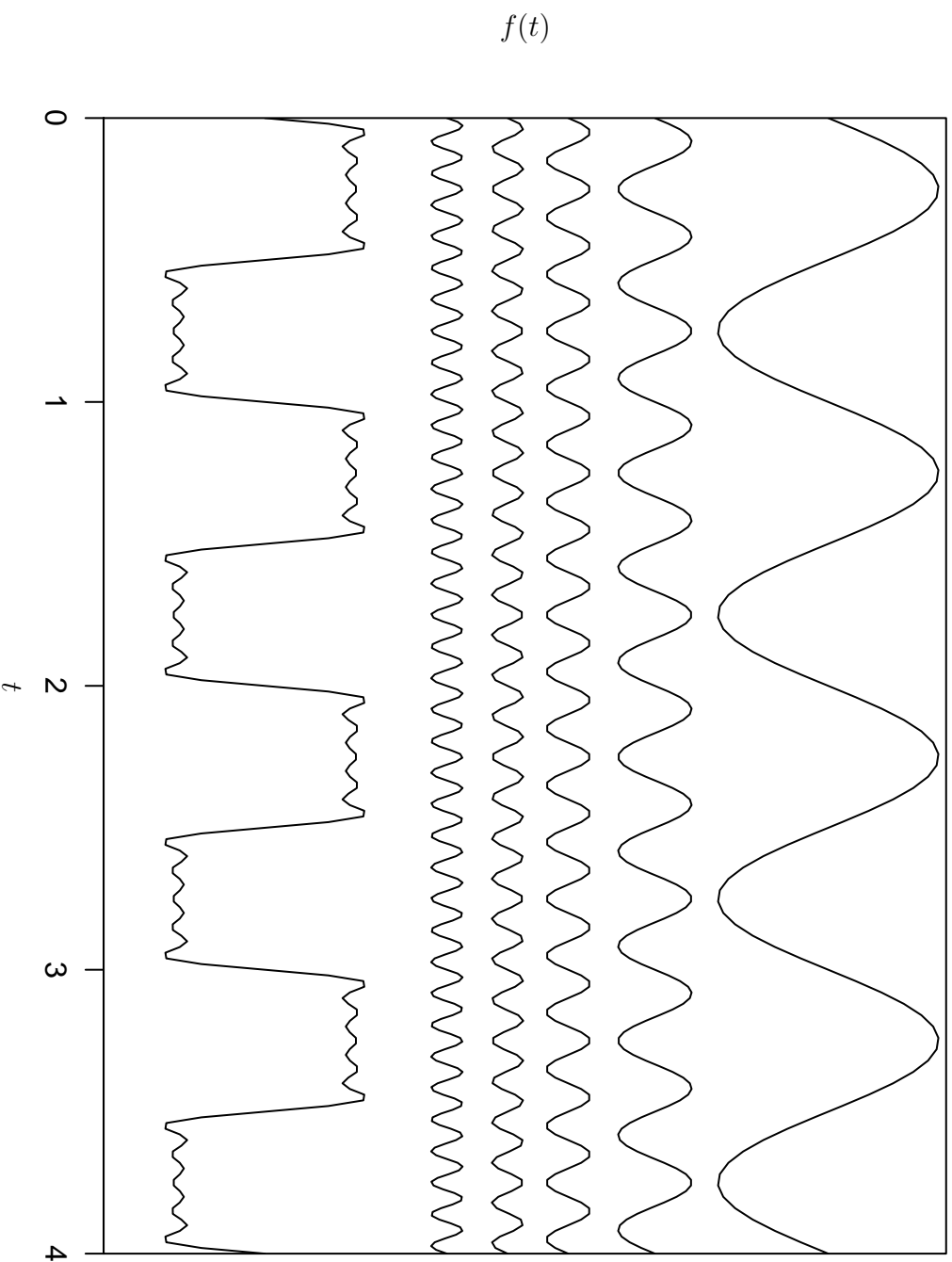
$$a_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \cos(2\pi n f t) f(t) dt \quad \text{and} \quad b_n = \frac{2}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \sin(2\pi n f t) f(t) dt$$

- The function $f(t)$ is fully determined by the coefficients a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots , and b_1, b_2, \dots
 - By analogy with visual stimuli, call this sequence the *spectrum* of $f(t)$
- The component functions— $\cos(2\pi n f t)$ and $\sin(2\pi n f t)$ —are mutually orthogonal
 - Each term picks up a different aspect of the function $f(t)$
 - * a_0 is an average over one cycle
 - * a_n and b_n are like the correlations of $f(t)$ with the cosine or sine
 - They are the *basis functions* or *eigenfunctions* for the representation
 - * Sines and cosines are appropriate for *linear systems*
- Can also use a single series of complex coefficients

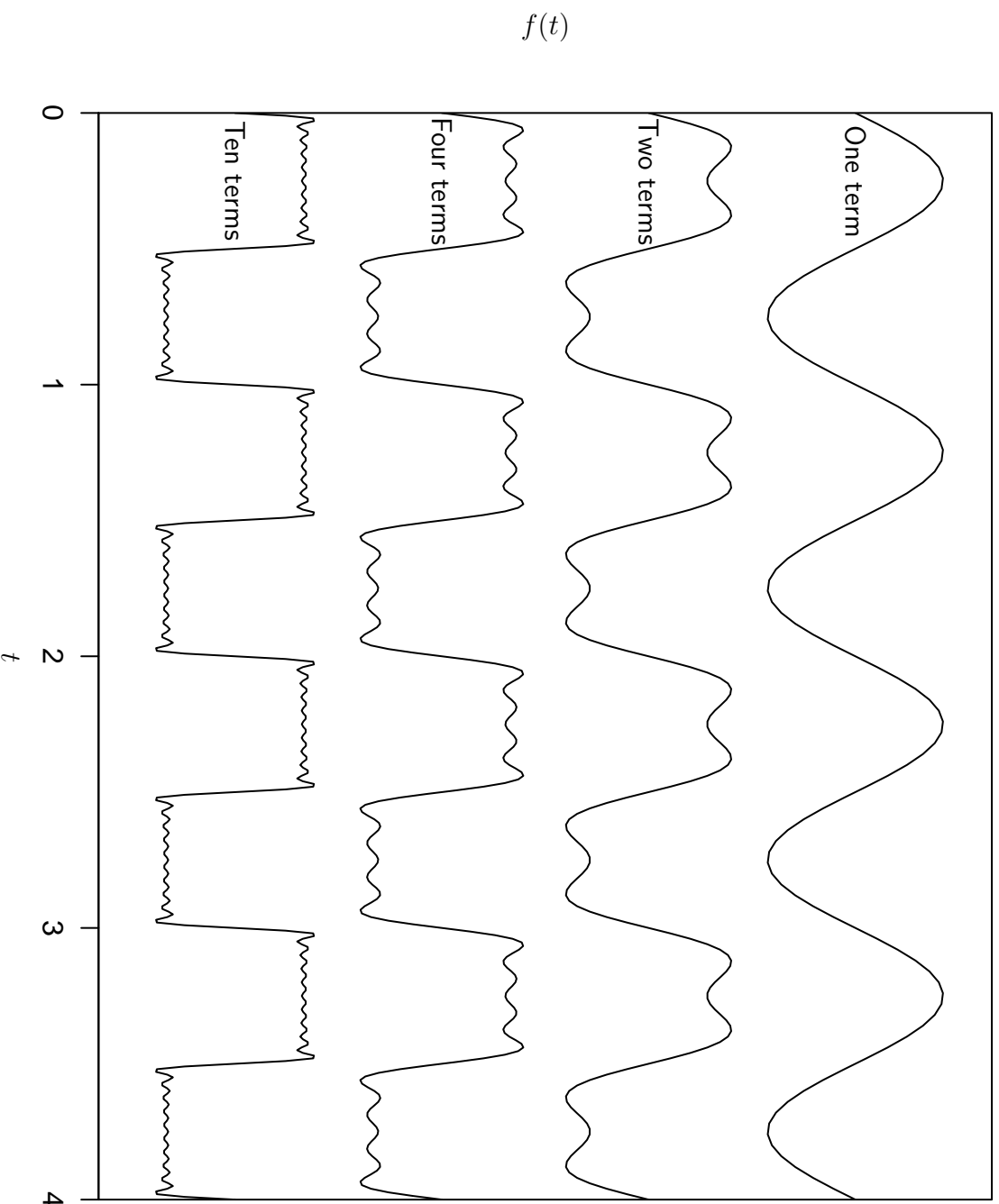
$$f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} z_n e^{-int} \quad \text{with} \quad z_{-n} = \bar{z}_n$$

Fourier Series for a Square Wave

$$f(t) = \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{n=1,3,5,\dots} \frac{1}{n} \sin \frac{n\pi t}{L}$$



Approximations to a Square Wave



- Each approximation has a 9% transient overshoot

The Two Domains

- A function can be represented by either its waveform or its spectrum

$$\boxed{\text{Waveform } f(t)} \iff \boxed{\text{Spectrum } F(f)}$$

The Fourier transform moves between these representations

- The two representations describe complementary domains
 - Problems can be solved in either domain
 - Many problems are easier to solve in one domain than the other
 - Sensory systems take advantage of this fact
 - * Auditory: Receive a waveform but perceive frequencies
 - * Visual
 - Color
 - Spatial arrays
- The two domains arise in many areas where linear processes appear
 - Signal processing
 - * Audio and video
 - Temporal evolution of a system
 - * Markov chains and processes
 - Statistics
 - * Distributions and moments
 - Moment generating functions and characteristic functions
 - * Multivariate variation and eigenvectors

Nonperiodic Functions—the Fourier Transform

- A nonperiodic function is like one that has an infinite wavelength
 - $L \rightarrow \infty$ implies $f_1 \rightarrow 1/L = 0$
 - The spectrum is continuous
- The Fourier transform and its inverse are complementary operations

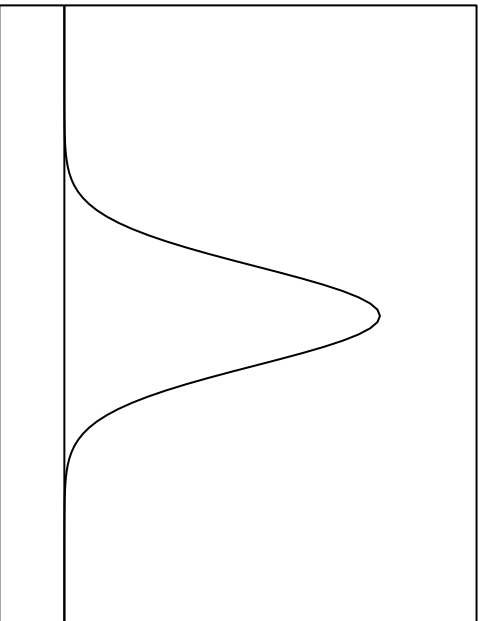
$$F(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)e^{-2\pi its} dt$$

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(s)e^{2\pi its} ds$$

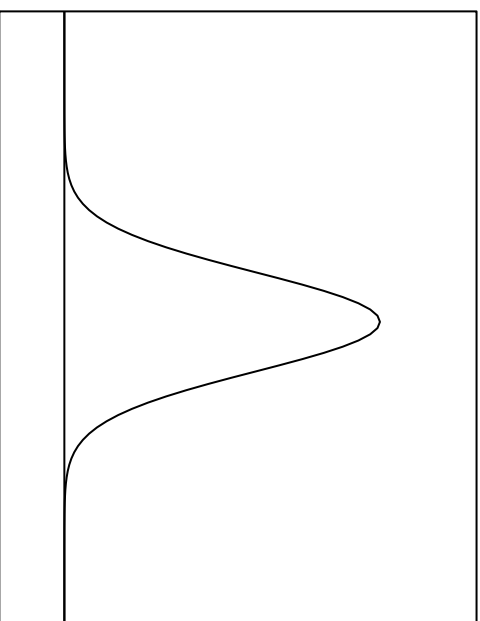
- These equations are equivalent to those that use cosine and sine or the phase
- The complex representation emphasizes the similarity of the two transforms
- The Fourier transform is a *functional*, which maps one function to another

Example of Fourier Transforms

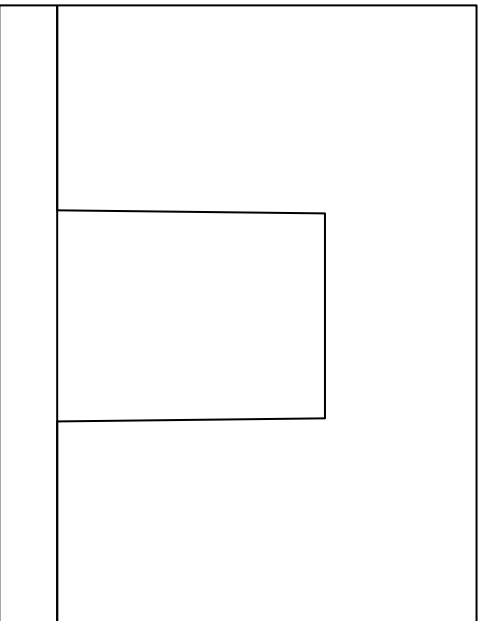
Gaussian waveform



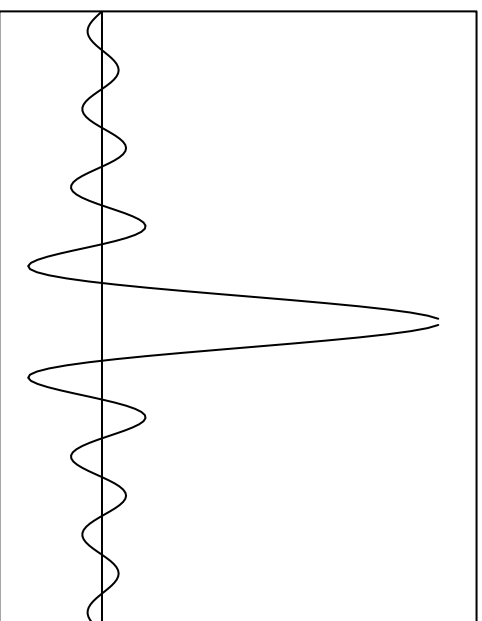
Fourier transform of Gaussian waveform



Square waveform



Fourier transform of square waveform



Tradeoffs between Domains

A number of results relate the width of a function to the width (or *bandwidth*) of its spectrum

- Narrow functions $f(t)$ have wide spectra and visa versa
 - The spectrum of the constant $f(t) = c$ is a spike at zero
 - The transform of a single spike contains all frequencies
- The *uncertainty principle*: The product of the variance of $f(t)$ and $F(f)$ cannot be too small
 - The precision of a signal in time is measured by the standard deviation Δt of the function $f(t)$
 - The precision of the signal in frequency is measured by the standard deviation Δf of the spectrum $F(f)$
 - These quantities must obey the inequality $(\Delta t)(\Delta f) \geq \frac{1}{4\pi}$
- The *sampling theorem*: A continuous signal with limited bandwidth (i.e., $F(f) = 0$ for $f > f_{\max}$) can be complete reconstructed from a set of discrete observations of spaced no more than $1/(2f_{\max})$ apart
 - The *Nyquist limit*: From a set of observations spaced at intervals D , one can recover the spectrum up to, but not above $f_c = 1/(2D)$
 - If the signal contains higher frequencies, they will be *aliased* to components of the calculated spectrum

Fourier Transforms in Two Dimensions

A two-dimensional function $f(x, y)$ has a Fourier transform $F(u, v)$

- The basic elements are one-dimensional waves
 - Each wave has an frequency and orientation
- The Fourier transformation determines an amplitude and phase for these wave
 - Alternatively, a complex value and its conjugate
- It is often convenient to represent the transform in polar coordinates
 - Angle is orientation of wave
 - Radial position is frequency
 - Amplitude is indicated at each point
- The two-dimensional transform is important in image processing
- Seemingly used by the visual system

Local Representations

- A Fourier transform describes the complete waveform
 - The only location information is the origin of $f(t)$ or $f(x, y)$
- In analyzing visual processing, it is useful to center the Fourier transform at particular points
 - Doing so amounts to shifting the origin of the space of $f(x, y)$
 - The *shift theorem* (in complex form states that

$$\text{If } f(x, y) \Longleftrightarrow F(u, v), \text{ then } f(x - a, y - b) \Longleftrightarrow e^{-2\pi i(au + bv)} F(u, v)$$

Transformation of Waveforms and Spectra

- Consider a process that transforms a waveform $f(t)$ to a waveform $g(t)$
 - Auditory signal changed by the ear
 - Light changed by passing into the eye
 - Neural signal transmitted forward
- The transformation of $f(t)$ to $g(t)$ induces a complementary transformation of the spectrum
- Likewise, a transformation of a spectrum $F(f)$ induces a complementary transformation of the waveform,

$$\boxed{f(t) \rightarrow g(t)} \iff \boxed{F(f) \rightarrow G(f)}$$
$$\boxed{F(f) \rightarrow G(f)} \iff \boxed{f(t) \rightarrow g(t)}$$

Modulation or Windowing

A simple transformation of a waveform increases or decreases its magnitude at each time according to a transmission function $w(t)$

$$g(t) = w(t)f(t)$$

- When $w(t)$ falls to zero as $|t| \rightarrow \infty$, it acts as a *window* on the function
 - For a function observed only between t_1 and t_2

$$w(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t_1 < t < t_2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- For a two-dimensional function observed in a Gaussian neighborhood of the origin

$$w(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} e^{-x^2 - y^2}$$

- A series of modulations or windows can be described by multiplying their transmission functions:

$$g_1(t) = w_1(t)f(t) \quad \text{and} \quad g(t) = w_2(t)g_1(t)$$

is equivalent to

$$g(t) = w(t)f(t) \quad \text{where} \quad w(t) = w_2(t)w_1(t)$$

- Not all processes can be described by modulations or windows

Filters

A *filter* is a transformation whose action is to multiple the spectrum by a frequency-specific (*modulation*) *transfer function* $A(f)$

$$G(f) = A(f)F(f)$$

- A *low-pass filter* blocks high frequencies and lets low frequencies pass
- A *high-pass filter* block low frequencies and lets high frequencies pass
- A series of filters can be analyzed by multiplying their transfer functions:

$$G_1(f) = A_1(f)F(f) \quad \text{and} \quad G(f) = A_2(f)G_1(f)$$

is equivalent to

$$G(f) = A(f)F(f) \quad \text{where} \quad A(f) = A_2(f)A_1(f)$$

- Described this way, a filter is
 - Linear
 - Time invariant
- Not all processes can be described by filters

Convolutions

A *convolution* is a transformation of a function $f(t)$ created by combining its values according to a sliding linear transformation

$$g(t) = h_2 f(t - 2) + h_1 f(t - 1) + h_0 f(0) + h_{-1} f(t + 1) + h_{-2} f(t + 2)$$

The convolution of a discrete process is

$$g(t) = \sum f(t - u)h(u)$$

The convolution of a continuous process is

$$g(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t - u)h(u)du$$

- Convolutions are denoted by an asterisk $g(t) = f(t) * h(t)$
- Convolutions are often easy to implement
 - Physical: blurring, running averages
 - Neural: cells in one layer combine the activation of cells in an earlier layer
 - Probability: distributions of sums of random variables

Convolutions and Fourier Transforms

- When a convolution is applied to a pure sinusoidal signal, it can change the amplitude and phase, but it does not change the frequency

$$f(t) = \cos(2\pi ft) \quad g(t) = f(t) * h(t) = A \cos(2\pi ft + \phi)$$

- The effect of a convolution can be described by a transfer function

$$\boxed{g(t) = f(t) * h(t)} \iff \boxed{G(f) = F(f)H(f)}$$

- Convolutions of waveforms and filters are descriptions of the same process

- The effect of a modulation or window can be described by a convolution of the spectra

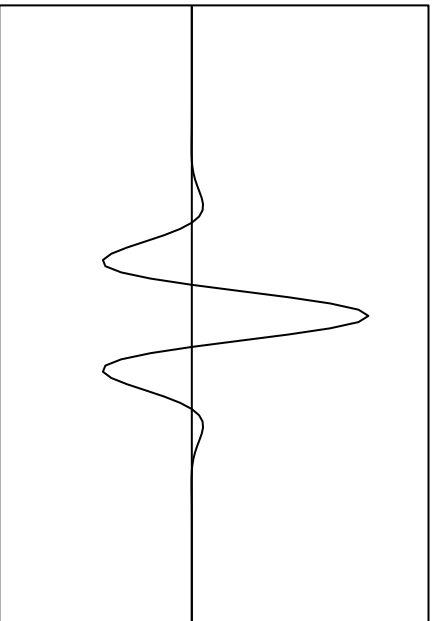
$$\boxed{g(t) = w(t)f(t)} \iff \boxed{G(f) = W(f) * F(f)}$$

- Windows and convolutions of spectra are descriptions of the same process

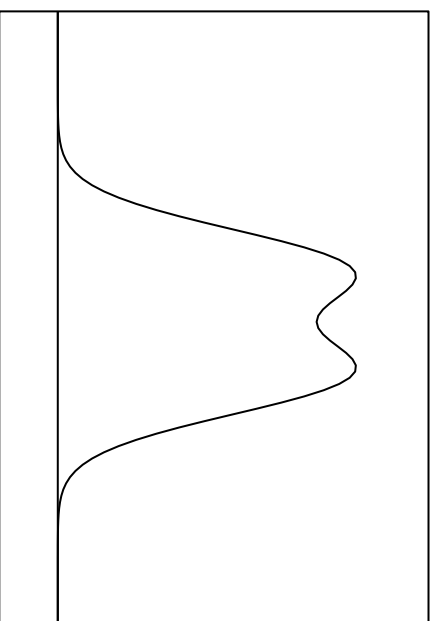
Gabor functions

A *Gabor function* is a cosine or sine wave modulated by a Gaussian window

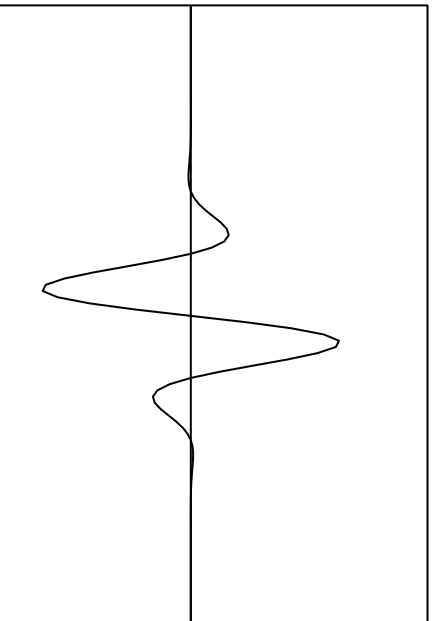
Even (cosine) Gabor function



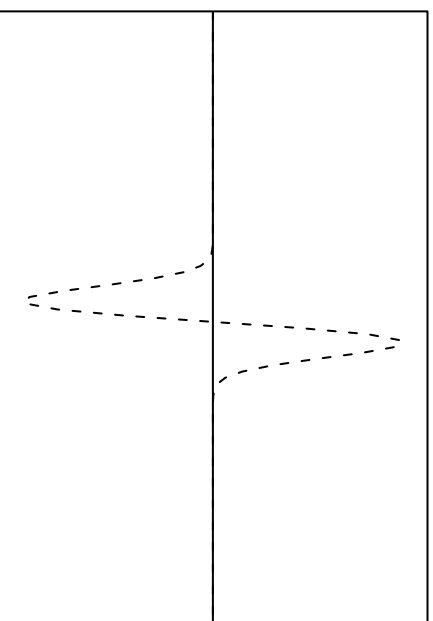
Fourier transform of even Gabor function



Odd (sine) Gabor function



Fourier transform of odd Gabor function (complex)



Impulse Response Functions

- An *impulse* is a spike of negligible width
- An impulse at time t is denoted by the “function” $\delta(t)$
 - $\delta(t)$ is not really a function
 - * It has infinitesimal width and finite area
 - $\delta(t)$ is defined mathematically by limits
 - In practice the pulse must simply be short in comparison to the behavior of the process
- The Fourier transform of an impulse function is flat
 - It contains all frequencies equally
- The response of system to $\delta(0)$ is known as the *impulse response function*.
- The Fourier Transform of the impulse response function is the modulation transfer function of the system

The Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

- Fourier transforms are computed numerically using an algorithm known as the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)
 - Computation is much more efficient than calculating the Fourier sums of integrals
- The FFT is built into many computer languages (**Matlab**, **Mathematica**, **R**)
 - Usually the output is given in complex form
- One- and two-dimensional forms of the FFT exist