

## Module IN3031 / INM378 Digital Signal Processing and Audio Programming

Tillman Weyde t.e.veyde@city.ac.uk

### Autocorrelation

- Autocorrelation** measures the similarity of a **signal with itself** at a certain **time** or **space lag**

$$autocorr(x, k) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x[t] \cdot x[t+k]$$

- The **autocorrelation** of a **signal at lag 0** is the **energy** of the signal. Matlab: `dot(x,x)`
- Auto-Correlation is useful for **detecting periodicities**.
- Matlab: `xcorr(x,x)` re

### Correlation Coefficient

$$\begin{aligned} \sum (x[n] + y[n])^2 &= \sum (x[n]^2 + 2x[n] \cdot y[n] + y[n]^2) \\ &= \sum x[n]^2 + \sum y[n]^2 + 2 \text{dot}(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

The **correlation coefficient**  $\rho$  (Greek letter 'rho') is the ratio of the correlation energy to the geometric mean of the mean-free signal energies:

$$\rho = \frac{\text{dot}(x, y)}{\sqrt{\sum x[n]^2 \cdot \sum y[n]^2}}$$

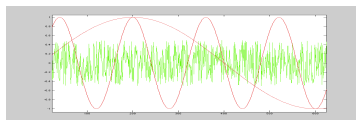
$\rho = 1$  means  $x = y \cdot z$  ( $z > 0$ )

$\rho = -1$  means  $x = y \cdot z$  ( $z < 0$ )

### Finding Frequency Components

For a periodic (i.e. repeating) function we can

- find signal components using **dot product**
- use **sine functions** as **building blocks**



## Signal Correlation Fourier Transform

### Cross-Correlation

- Cross-correlation** measures the similarity of two signals at a time lag  $k$ :

$$xcorr(x, y, k) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x[t] \cdot y[t+k]$$

- The cross-correlation between a signal and itself is the **auto-correlation**
- Cross-Correlation is useful for **measuring delays**.
- Values outside the signal time range are assumed as 0.
- Matlab: `xcorr(x,y)` calculates the result for all values of  $k$

### Correlation Coefficient

- The correlation coefficient  $\rho$  measures the **similarity** of signals  $x, y$  **independent of scaling**.
- If both signals are **mean-free** (i.e.  $\text{mean}(s) = 0$ ) and have the **same energy**:
  - $\rho = 1$  means  $x = y$ , correlation energy is equal to sum of energies of  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $\text{energy}(x+y) = 4 \cdot \text{energy}(x)$
  - $\rho = -1$  means  $x = -y$ , correlation energy is the negative of the sum of energies of both signals,  $\text{energy}(x+y) = 0$
  - $\rho = 0$  means that signals are not correlated, i.e.  $\text{energy}(x+y) = \text{energy}(x) + \text{energy}(y)$

### Dot Product with a Sine

Dot product of a signal  $x$  with sine wave of frequency  $f$ ,

$$sf := \sin(2\pi f / FS):$$

$$\text{dot}(x, sf) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x[t] \cdot \sin[2\pi f / FS \cdot t]$$

- $\text{dot}(x, sf)$  tells us **how similar**  $x$  is to  $sf$
- Interpretation:** how much of  $sf$  is contained in  $x$

### Dot Product

- The **dot product** (also called **inner** or **scalar product**) is the basic way of measuring the **correlation** (similarity) of two signals by adding their products at each sampled time
- $$\text{dot}(x, y) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} x[t] \cdot y[t]$$
- The basic intuition:
    - similar sample values**  $x[t], y[t]$  give **greater dot product**
    - $x[t]$  and  $y[t]$  big, same sign  $\rightarrow \text{dot}(x,y)$  big positive
    - $x[t]$  and  $y[t]$  big, different sign  $\rightarrow \text{dot}(x,y)$  big negative
    - $x[t]$  and  $y[t]$  small abs values  $\rightarrow \text{dot}(x,y)$  small abs

### Energy of Added Signals

- Example:** Convert a **stereo** signal to **mono** by adding the two signals (possibly dividing by 2 to avoid clipping).
- The **energy** of the **resulting signal** depends on the correlation of the signal:
 
$$\begin{aligned} \sum (x[n] + y[n])^2 &= \sum (x[n]^2 + 2 \cdot x[n] \cdot y[n] + y[n]^2) \\ &= \sum x[n]^2 + \sum y[n]^2 + 2 \text{dot}(x, y) \end{aligned}$$
- If  $x = y$ , we have  $(2x[n])^2 = 4x[n]^2 = x[n]^2 + x[n]^2 + 2 \cdot x[n] \cdot x[n]$
- if  $x = -y$ , it's  $(x[n] - x[n])^2 = 0 = x[n]^2 + x[n]^2 - 2 \cdot x[n] \cdot x[n]$  (total cancellation)

### Appraising Mono Compatibility

- Appraise the **Mono compatibility** of this stereo signal:
 
$$r = [2, 1, 0, -1, -2], l = [1, 2, 0, -2, -1]$$
- Correlation** is  $2 + 2 + 0 + 2 + 2 = 8$
- $r$  and  $l$  have mean 0 (**DC free**)
- Energy:**  $(r) \ 4+1+0+1+4 = 10, (l) \ 1+4+0+4+1 = 10$
- Corr. coefficient:**  $\rho = 8 / \sqrt{(10 \cdot 10)} = 8/10 = 0.8$
- This indicates good mono compatibility (close to 1).

### Which Frequencies to Try

- We use **frequencies** depending on the **period p** (i.e. the time after which the signal repeats)
 
$$f_1 = 1/p$$

$$f_n = n/p$$

$$\begin{aligned} s_1 &= \sin(2\pi f_1 t) \\ s_2 &= \sin(2\pi f_2 t) \\ s_3 &= \sin(2\pi f_3 t) \\ s_4 &= \sin(2\pi f_4 t) \\ &\dots \end{aligned}$$

### Dot Product and Correlation

- The **dot product** between a **signal and itself**, the **autocorrelation** at lag 0, is the **energy** of the signal,
- The term **correlation** is used for **different variants of similarity measures** in several areas of mathematics and applications

### Cross-Covariance

- mean-removed** cross correlation
- Is the same as **correlation**, but removes the mean (DC offset) of both signals before processing
- Example:
  - $x = [10, 0, -10, 0, 10] \rightarrow \text{mean}(x) = 2$
  - Remove mean:  $y = x - \text{mean}(x)$  (per sample)
  - $y = [8, -2, -12, -2, 8] \rightarrow \text{mean}(y) = 0$

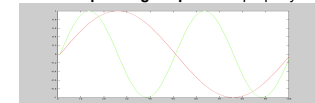
### Frequency Analysis

### Correlations of Sines

Different **sines** in our series have **zero correlation**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{dot}(sf_1, sf_2) &= \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} sf_1[t] \cdot sf_2[t] = 0 \\ \text{where } sf_1[t] &= \sin[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f_1 / FS \cdot t] \\ \text{and } sf_2[t] &= \sin[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f_2 / FS \cdot t] \text{ and } N = p \cdot FS \end{aligned}$$

- so we are **separating frequencies** properly



## Offsets on the Time Axis

Sine waves of **same frequency** but with **offset** on the **time axis (sinusoids)** can produce **different correlations**:

$$\text{dot}(sf[t], sf[t+k]) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} sf[t] \cdot sf[t+k]$$

where  $0 < k < f/Fs$   
and  $sf[t] = \sin[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f / FS \cdot t]$

If **offset** (in samples)  $k = 0.5 f/Fs$  (half cycle length)

**correlation switches sign**

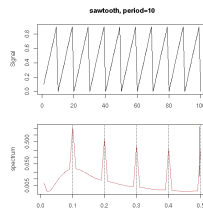
$$\text{dot}(sf[t], sf[t + .5 f / FS]) = -\text{dot}(sf[t], sf[t])$$

because  $\sin(x) = -\sin(x + \pi)$

## Frequency Spectrum

- The **amplitude** and **phase distribution** of a signal **over frequencies** is called its **spectrum**.

- We will see now **how to calculate** the spectrum.



## Complex Fourier Series

- Again, **x** is a **signal** of length **N**

$$x[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} c_k e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N} nk}$$

$$a_0 = c_0, \quad a_k = 2|c_k|, \quad \phi_k = \text{angle } c_k$$

- $e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N} nk}$  is complex sine(cosine) with freq  $k$
- The **magnitude  $a$**  and **phase  $\phi$**  are now **combined in the complex coefficients  $c_k$**
- The set of  $c_k$  is called the **spectrum** of  $x$

## Spectra of Digital Signals

- The **frequencies  $k$**  in the spectrum are **relative to the length  $L$**  of the signal, i.e.  **$X[k]$**  in the spectrum corresponds to  **$k$  cycles over length  $L$**  of the whole signal.
- Dividing  $k$  by length  $L$  gives the **digital frequency (cycles per sample)  $fd = k/L$**
- Multiplying by the sampling frequency  $Fs$**  gives the frequency  $f$  in **Hertz:  $f = Fs \cdot k / L$**

## Offsets on the Time Axis (2)

Sines at offsets  $1/2 \pi$  and  $3/2 \pi$  can be represented as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cosines:} \quad \cos(x) &= \sin(x + \pi/2) \\ -\cos(x) &= \sin(x + 3\pi/2) \end{aligned}$$

Sine plus cosine (with suitable **a, b**) can represent any offset:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall \phi \exists a, b \quad \text{such that} \\ \sin(x + \phi) &= a \sin(x) + b \cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

**a, b** can be **determined by the dot product**:

$$a = \text{dot}(f, \sin) \cdot 2/N, \quad b = \text{dot}(f, \cos) \cdot 2/N$$

## Frequency Units

- As a **sine** or **cosine** function has a period of  **$2\pi$**  (in radians units,  $2\pi$  is  $360^\circ$ ), expressing frequencies in radians is often convenient.
- analogue** frequencies
  - standard  $f$ : **cycles/sec** (0 ...  $Fs/2$ )
  - angular  $\Omega = 2\pi f$ : **radians/s** (0 ...  $\pi Fs$ )
- (so-called) **digital** frequencies
  - $f/Fs$ : **cycles/sample** (0 ...  $1/2$ )
  - angular:  $\omega = 2\pi f/Fs$ : **radians/sample** (0 ...  $\pi$ )

## Discrete Fourier Transform

- By **correlation** with the **complex** sines we get the  $c_k$  (up to a normalisation factor) as  $X[k]$

$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N} nk}$$

- X** is called the **(complex) spectrum** of signal **x**
- The **inverse transform** applies the Fourier series:

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X[k] e^{+i \frac{2\pi}{N} nk}$$

## Real and Complex FT

- Complex FT** elegant maths
  - spectra** with **positive/negative frequencies**
  - symmetric** around the **y-axis** (more later)
- Real FT**
  - describes the **whole process in real maths**
  - a bit more messy, but less complex ;-)

## Fourier Series (continuous)

- Famous insight by *Jean-Baptiste Joseph Fourier* in 1822:

Any **periodic** analogue **signal** with period  **$p = 1/f$**  is represented uniquely and unambiguously by an infinite **series of sinusoids** with frequencies  **$kf$** :

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= b_0 \\ &+ a_1 \sin(2\pi 1 f t) + b_1 \cos(2\pi 1 f t) \\ &+ a_2 \sin(2\pi 2 f t) + b_2 \cos(2\pi 2 f t) \\ &+ a_3 \sin(2\pi 3 f t) + b_3 \cos(2\pi 3 f t) \\ &+ \dots \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k \sin(2\pi k t) + b_k \cos(2\pi k t) \end{aligned}$$

## Complex Numbers

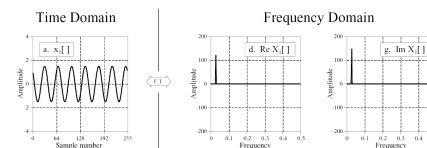
- To calculate  $a_k$  and  $\phi_k$  efficiently, we need complex numbers
- Complex numbers: **C**
  - real and imaginary part ( $i$ , sometimes  $j$ )**
  - $-i$  is root of  $-1: i^2 = -1$
  - $-c = p + qi, c \in \mathbb{C}, p, q \in \mathbb{R}$
- Euler formula
 
$$e^{a + i\phi} = e^a (\cos \phi + i \sin \phi)$$

## Fourier Transform for the Mathematically Inclined

- We can **generalise** to continuous periodic functions (with period  $T$ ):  $c_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x(t) e^{-ik2\pi ft} dt$
- And even do this for **non-periodic** functions by increasing  $T = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-i2\pi ft} dt$  to infinity:  $X: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
- X** is called the **continuous Fourier Transform** of **x**  
**X** contains positive and negative frequencies

## Example Spectra

- Discrete Fourier Transform of a **single sinusoid**:



- Phase = balance of Re and Im**, depends on time-axis **shift** of  $x$

## Fourier Series (discrete)

- A **sampled signal** of length **N** can be represented uniquely and unambiguously by a **finite series of sinusoids**:

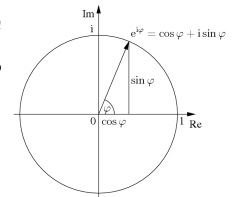
$$\begin{aligned} x[n] &= a_0 \\ &+ a_1 \cos(2\pi \frac{n}{N} + \phi_1) \\ &+ a_2 \cos(2\pi \frac{2n}{N} + \phi_2) \\ &+ \dots \\ &+ a_{N-1} \cos(2\pi \frac{(N-1)n}{N} + \phi_{N-1}) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} a_k \cos(2\pi \frac{kn}{N} + \phi_k) \end{aligned}$$

## Trigonometric Functions and Complex Exponentials

Any complex number  $c$  can be represented as **magnitude  $a$**  and **angle  $\phi$**   
 $c = p + qi = a e^{i\phi}$

$$\Re(e^{i\phi}) = \cos \phi$$

$$\Im(e^{i\phi}) = \sin \phi$$



## Inverse Fourier Transform (still for the math buffs)

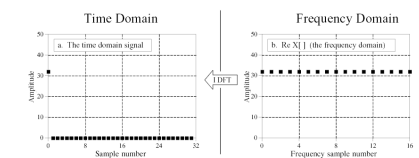
- Inverting the Fourier Transform** leads to a **generalised Fourier Series**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Fourier Series} \quad x(t) &= \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{ik2\pi ft} \\ \text{Inverse Fourier Transform} \quad x(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) e^{i2\pi ft} df \end{aligned}$$

- X(f)** gives the **magnitude** (absolute) and **phase** (angle) for every frequency in the continuum and is called the **(continuous) spectrum** of  $x(t)$ .

## Spectra 2

- Fourier Transform of a **single impulse**:

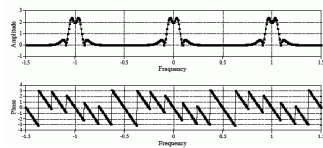


- One **impulse** contains **all frequencies**

## Notation of the FT

- The **Fourier Transform** of a **signal** (function) is denoted by  $(\mathcal{F}x)(f)$ , often written as  $\mathcal{F}(f)$ , if clear in the context
- There is a **special symbol**  $\leftrightarrow$  used for the FT, like this:  $x(t) \leftrightarrow X(f)$  or in short  $x \leftrightarrow X$

## Symmetries of the FT



- The **magnitude** (even function) is mirror-symmetrical
- The **phase** (odd function) is point-symmetrical

## READING

Smith, S.: The Scientist and Engineer's Guide to DSP.  
Chapter 8. <http://www.dspguide.com/ch8.htm>

## Linearity of the FT

- The Fourier Transform is **linear** (**invariant** under **addition** and **scalar multiplication**):

$$\mathcal{F}(x_1 + c x_2)(f) = \mathcal{F}(x_1)(f) + c \mathcal{F}(x_2)(f)$$

- Using the transformation symbol, linearity can be written like this:

$$x_1 + c x_2 \leftrightarrow X_1 + c X_2$$

## Time and Frequency

- Stretching** the signal over **time** ( $c > 1$ ) **compresses** the **spectrum** over **frequency** and reduces **magnitude**

$$x(ct) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{|c|} X\left(\frac{f}{c}\right)$$

- Shifting** a signal over **time** leaves the **frequencies unchanged** but **modifies phase**

$$x(t - t_0) \leftrightarrow X(f) e^{-j2\pi f t_0}$$

## Parseval's Theorem

- Parseval's theorem**: the **spectrum** has the **same energy** as the **signal**:

$$\sum_t |x(t)|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_f |X(f)|^2$$

- or using the transformation symbol:

$$\sum_t |x(t)|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_f |X(f)|^2, \text{ where } x \leftrightarrow X$$

- The **division by N** is because we **normalise only the inverse FT** (see definition)

## Fast Fourier Transform

$$\begin{aligned} X[k] &= \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}nk} \\ X[k] &= \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}2nk} + \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n+1] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}(2n+1)k} \\ X[k] &= \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}2nk} + e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}k} \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n+1] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}2nk} \\ X\left[k + \frac{N}{2}\right] &= \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}2nk} - e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}k} \sum_{n=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} x[2n+1] e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}2nk} \end{aligned}$$

FFT of even indices      'twiddle factor'      FFT of odd indices

$X[k]$  and  $X[k+N/2]$  differ only by the sign of the 'twiddle factor'. By recursively reducing the problem to halves, we can perform a complete FT in  $O(n \log n)$

## Symmetries of the FT

- Spectra of **real** signals (e.g. all measured signals) have several **symmetry** properties:

$$x(t): \text{real then } \begin{cases} |X(f)|: \text{even} & \arg(X(f)): \text{odd} \\ \Re(X(f)): \text{even} & \Im(X(f)): \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

**Even** functions are **mirror**-symmetrical around the y-axis, **odd** functions are **point**-symmetrical around the origin.

- For **real** signals, **half** of the **spectrum** contains **all information** because of these symmetries.

## Take-Home Messages

- Dot product** (raw correlation) - a form of signal similarity
- Fourier Transform**
  - decomposes a signal using its correlation with sinusoids
  - sinusoid frequencies are integer multiples of  $1/\text{len}(\text{signal})$
  - produces a spectrum with as many points as the signal
  - always has an inverse
  - is linear
- Points on the spectrum are complex numbers with
  - magnitude ( $\sim$ amplitude), and
  - phase ( $\sim$ angle, time-shift, balance of sine/cosine)
- Fast Fourier Transform (fft, ifft) is efficient  $O(n \log n)$