



Module IN3031 / INM378

Digital Signal Processing and Audio Programming

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based on slides by Tillman Weyde



Signal Correlation Fourier Transform



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



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



Autocorrelation

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

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

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



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.
- Python: `np.correlate(x, y, mode='full')` calculates the result for all values of k



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 $(x[n] - x[n])^2 = 0 = x[n]^2 + x[n]^2 - 2x[n] \cdot x[n]$
(total cancellation)



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)
 - $y = [8, -2, -12, -2, 8]$ $\rightarrow \text{mean}(y) = 0$



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** ρ (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 $x = y \cdot z$ ($z < 0$)



Correlation Coefficient

- The correlation coefficient ρ 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. $\text{energy}(x+y) = \text{energy}(x) + \text{energy}(y)$



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).



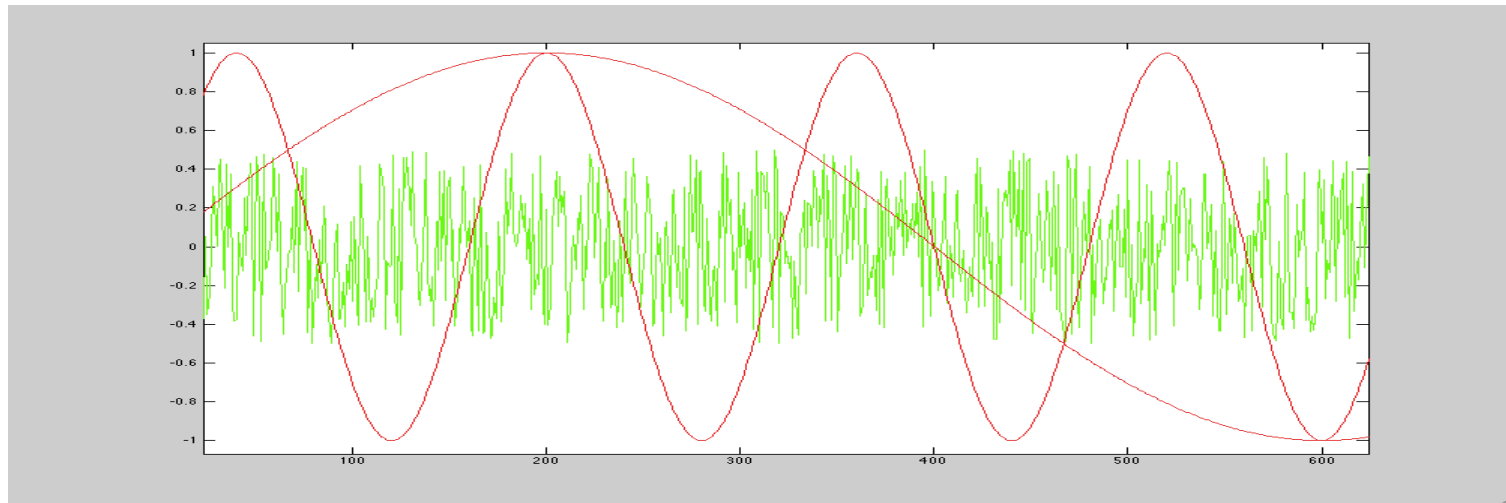
Frequency Analysis



Finding Frequency Components

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

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





Dot Product with a Sine

Dot product of a signal \mathbf{x} with sine wave of frequency \mathbf{f} ,
 $\mathbf{sf} := \sin(2\pi\mathbf{f}/F_s)$:

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

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



Which Frequencies to Try

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

$$f_1 = 1/p$$

$$f_n = n/p$$

$$s_1 = \sin(2\pi f_1 t)$$

$$s_2 = \sin(2\pi f_2 t)$$

$$s_3 = \sin(2\pi f_3 t)$$

$$s_4 = \sin(2\pi f_4 t)$$

...



Correlations of Sines

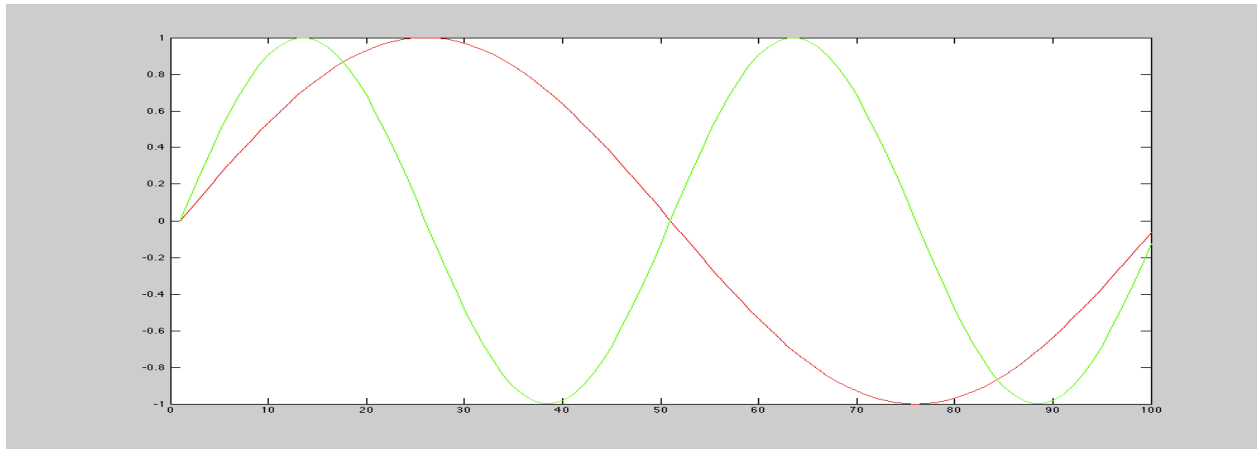
Different **sines** in our series have **zero correlation**

$$\text{dot}(sf_1, sf_2) = \sum_{t=0}^{N-1} sf_1[t] \cdot sf_2[t] = 0$$

$$\text{where } sf_1[t] = \sin[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f_1 / Fs \cdot t]$$

$$\text{and } sf_2[t] = \sin[2 \cdot \pi \cdot f_2 / Fs \cdot t] \text{ and } N = p \cdot Fs$$

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



Offsets on the Time Axis (2)

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

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

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:

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



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**:

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



Fourier Series (discrete)

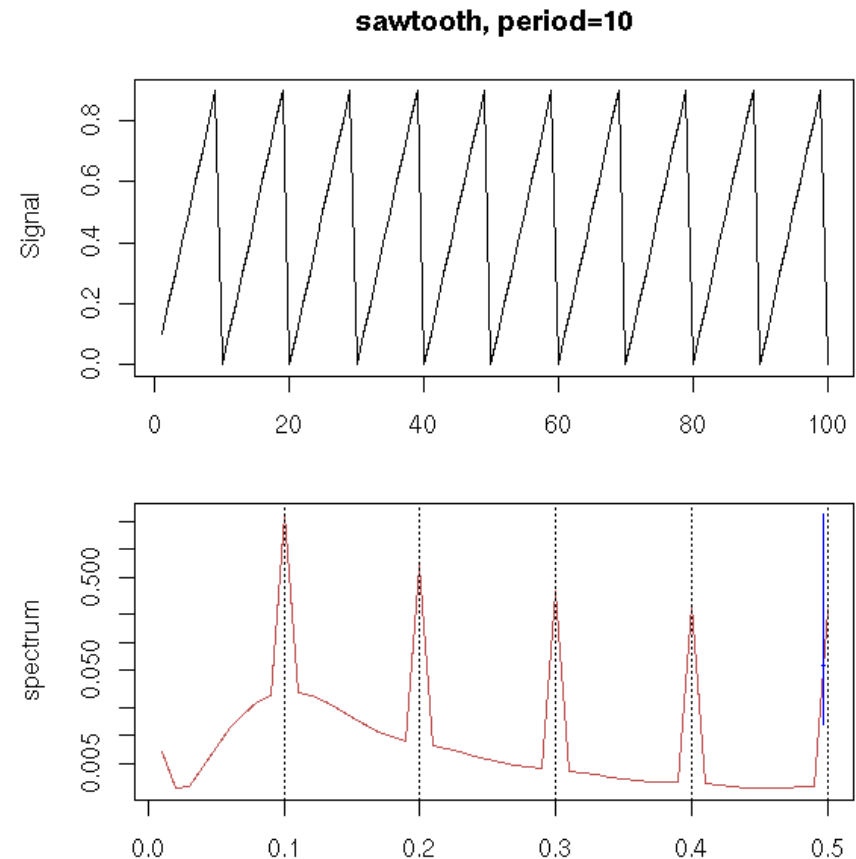
- A **sampled signal** of length N can be represented uniquely and unambiguously by a finite **series of sinusoids**:

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



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.





Frequency Units

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



Complex Numbers

- To calculate a_k and ϕ_k efficiently, we need complex numbers
- Complex numbers: \mathbb{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

$$e^{a + i\phi} = e^a (\cos \phi + i \sin \phi)$$



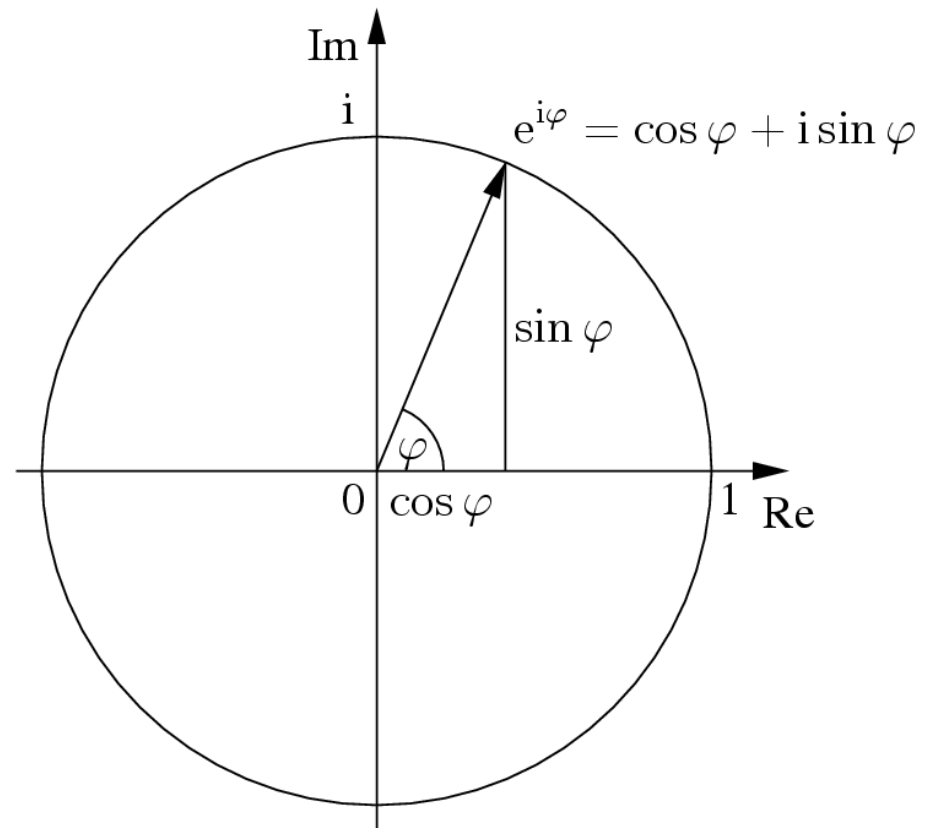
Trigonometric Functions and Complex Exponentials

*Any complex number c can be represented as **magnitude a** and **angle ϕ***

$$c = p + qi = a e^{i\phi}$$

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

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





Complex Fourier Series

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

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

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

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



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:

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



Fourier Transform for the Mathematically Inclined

- We can **generalise** to continuous periodic functions

(with period T):
$$c_k = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-\frac{T}{2}}^{\frac{T}{2}} x(t) e^{-ik2\pi ft} dt$$

- And even do this for **non-periodic** functions by

increasing T
$$X(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-i2\pi ft} dt$$

to infinity:

$$X : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

- **X** is called the **continuous Fourier Transform** of **x**
 X contains positive and **negative frequencies**



Inverse Fourier Transform (still for the math buffs)

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

Fourier Series

$$x(t) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} c_k e^{ik2\pi ft}$$

Inverse Fourier Transform

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(f) e^{i2\pi ft} df$$

- **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 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) $f_d = k/L$**
- **Multiplying** by the **sampling frequency F_s** gives the frequency **f in Hertz: $f = F_s \cdot k / L$**



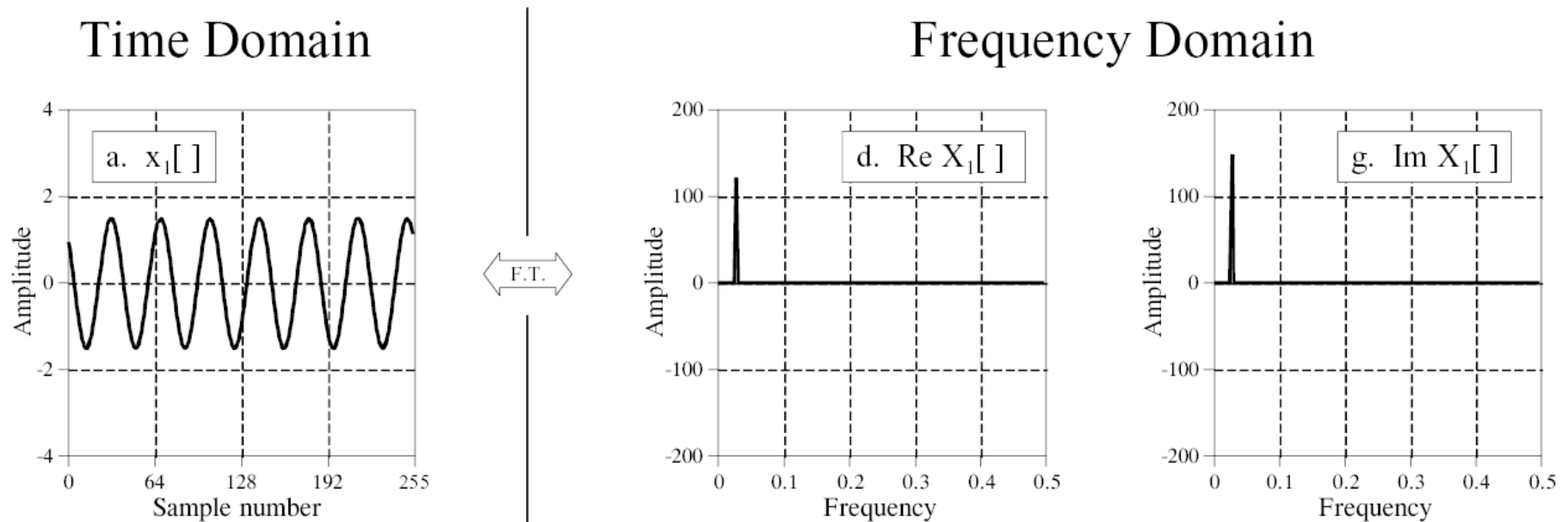
Real and Complex FT

- **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 ;-)



Example Spectra

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

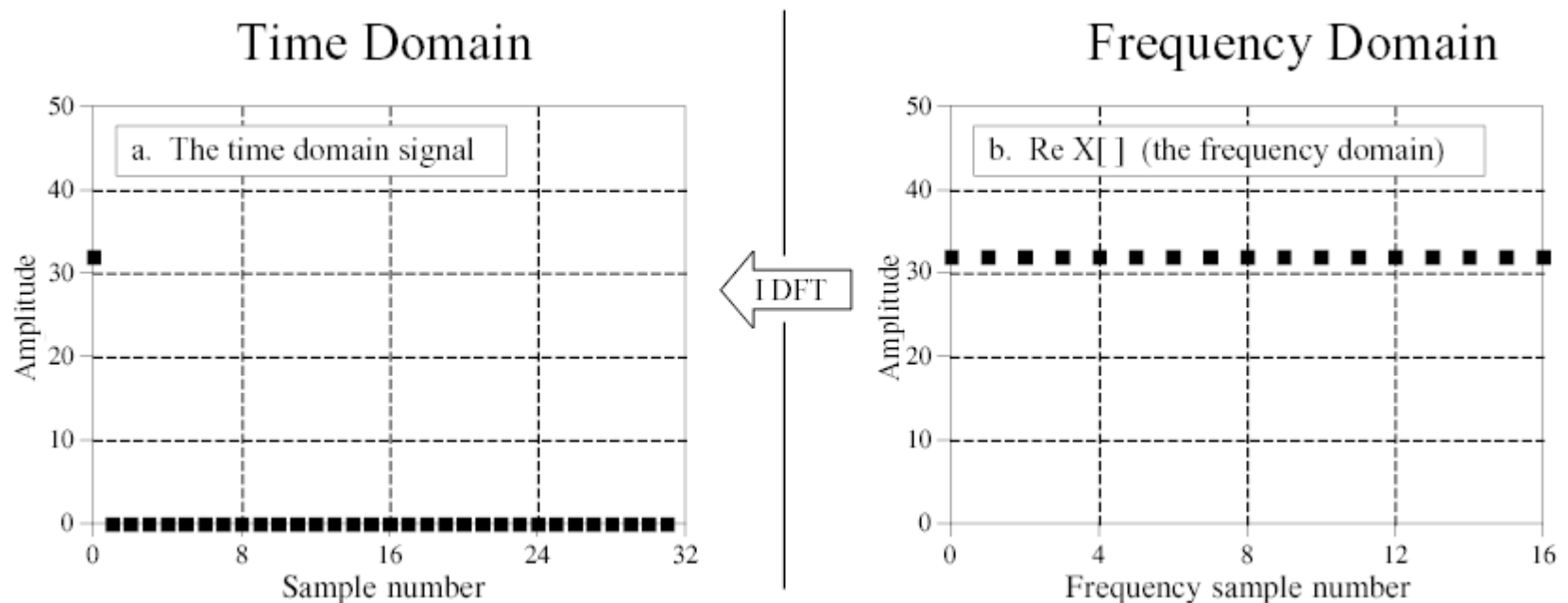


- Phase = balance of Re and Im**,
depends on time-axis **shift** of x



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 $x \leftrightarrow X$



Linearity of the FT

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

$$F(x_1 + c x_2)(f) = F(x_1) + c F(x_2)(f)$$

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

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



Parseval's Theorem

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

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

- or using the transformation symbol:

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

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



Symmetries of the FT

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

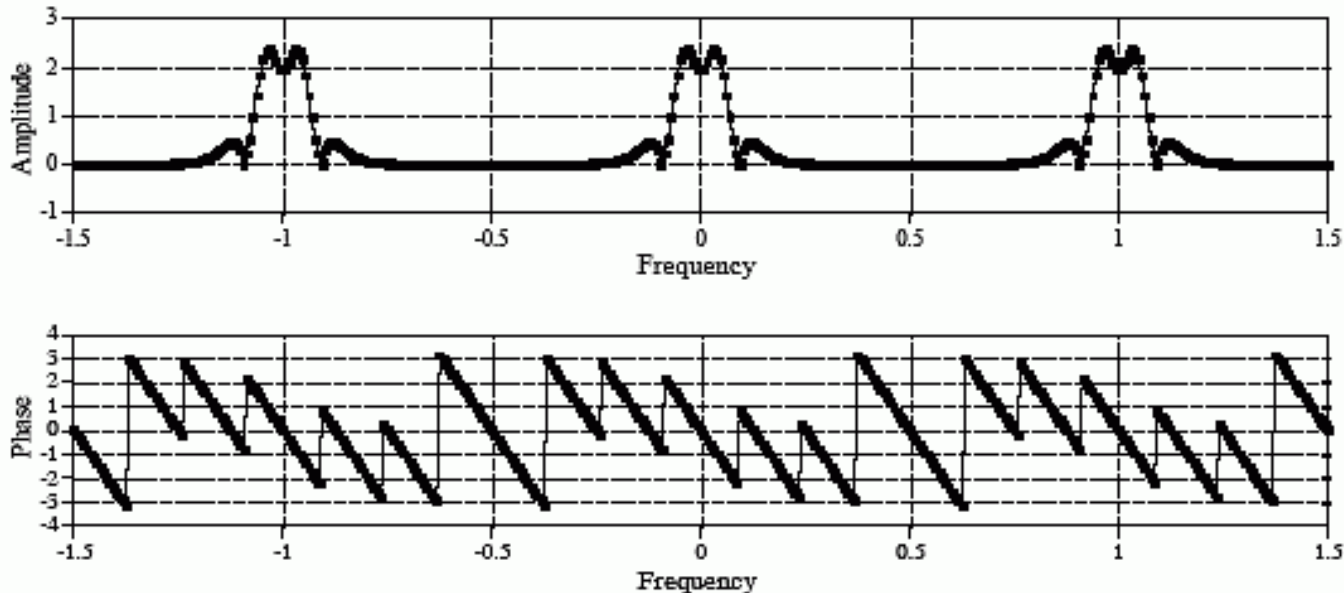
$$x(t): \text{real} \text{ then } \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} |X(f)|: \text{even} & \arg(X(f)): \text{odd} \\ \Re(X(f)): \text{even} & \Im(X(f)): \text{odd} \end{array} \right.$$

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.



Symmetries of the FT



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



Time and Frequency

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

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

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

$$x(t - t_0) \rightsquigarrow X(f) e^{i2\pi f t_0}$$



Fast Fourier Transform

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

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

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

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

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 **$O(n \log n)$**



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** (~amplitude), and
 - **phase** (~angle, time-shift, balance of sine/cosine)
- **Fast Fourier Transform (fft,ifft)** is **efficient $O(n \log n)$**



READING

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