

CT 203: Signals and Systems

Tutorial on Fourier Transform and Hilbert Transform

(Week of October 02, 2011)

1. Let $g(t) = Ae^{-bt}u(t)$. What are the range of frequencies that would contain $x\%$ of the total energy of $g(t)$?

Solution: We can first compute $E_g = \frac{A^2}{2b}$. To compute W that would contain $x\%$ of E_g we proceed as follows:

$$0.01xE_g = \int_{-W}^{+W} |G(f)|^2 df \text{ (by Rayleigh's energy theorem)}$$

$$0.01x \frac{A^2}{2b} = \int_{-W}^{+W} \frac{A^2}{(b^2 + 4\pi^2 f^2)} df \quad (\because G(f) = \frac{A}{(b + j2\pi f)}) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{0.01x}{2b} = \frac{1}{2\pi b} \int_{-W}^{+W} \frac{(b/2\pi)}{\left(f^2 + \left(\frac{b}{2\pi}\right)^2\right)} df \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{0.01x}{2b} = \frac{1}{2\pi b} \times \left[\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2\pi f}{b} \right) \right]_{-W}^{+W}$$

$$\frac{0.01x}{2} = \frac{1}{\pi} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2\pi W}{b} \right) \quad (\because \tan^{-1}(-x) = -\tan^{-1}(x)) \quad (3)$$

For $x = 50$, W can be found to be equal to $\frac{b}{2\pi}$. For $x = 99$, W can be found to be equal to $\frac{66.298b}{2\pi}$.

2. Using the duality theorem compute the FT of $z(t) = A\text{Sinc}(2Wt)$.

Solution: Recall that

$$F \left[A\Pi \left(\frac{t}{\tau} \right) \right] \leftrightarrow A\tau \text{Sinc}(f\tau) , \quad (4)$$

where $\Pi \left(\frac{t}{\tau} \right)$ denotes the rectangular pulse of duration τ seconds centered around zero. To apply duality theorem we arrange the given $z(t)$ as follows:

$$z(t) = A'(2W)\text{Sinc}(2Wt) \text{ where } A' = \frac{A}{2W} \quad (5)$$

The RHS of (5) is similar to the RHS of (4) with the following associations: $A' = A$ and $2W = \tau$.

Therefore, the FT of given $z(t)$ by duality theorem is $A' \Pi \left(\frac{-f}{2W} \right)$ which is equal to $A' \Pi \left(\frac{f}{2W} \right)$ (since the rectangle function $\Pi(\cdot)$ has even symmetry).

3. Denote $x(t)$ and $\hat{x}(t)$ as the signal and its Hilbert transform (HT). With this notation prove the following properties of HT: (a) $x(t)$ and $\hat{x}(t)$ have the same amplitude spectrum, (b) $-x(t)$ is the Hilbert transform of $\hat{x}(t)$ and (c) $x(t)$ and $\hat{x}(t)$ are orthogonal to each other.

Solution: (a) By definition

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{X}(f) &\triangleq F[\hat{x}(t)] = F\left[\frac{1}{\pi t} * x(t)\right] = -j \operatorname{sgn}(f) X(f) \\ |\hat{X}(f)| &= |-j \operatorname{sgn}(f)| X(f) \\ &= |-j \operatorname{sgn}(f)| |X(f)| \\ &= |X(f)| \quad (\because |-j \operatorname{sgn}(f)| = 1 \forall f)\end{aligned}\tag{6}$$

which completes the proof. An upshot of property 1 is that

$$E_x = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(f)|^2 df = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\hat{X}(f)|^2 df = E_{\hat{x}}$$

(b) By definition

$$\begin{aligned}H[\hat{x}(t)] &= \frac{1}{\pi t} * \hat{x}(t) \\ F[H[\hat{x}(t)]] &= -j \operatorname{sgn}(f) \underbrace{\hat{X}(f)}_{=-j \operatorname{sgn}(f) X(f)} \\ &= -X(f), \quad (\because (\operatorname{sgn}(f))^2 = 1)\end{aligned}$$

finally taking F^{-1} on both sides of the above equation we have the desired result.

(c) Recall $x(t)$ and $\hat{x}(t)$ are orthogonal if and only if $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)(\hat{x}(t))^* dt = 0$. Consider

$$\begin{aligned}&\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(t)(\hat{x}(t))^* dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} X(f) \underbrace{(\hat{X}(f))^*}_{=j \operatorname{sgn}(f) X^*(f)} df \\ &= j \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |X(f)|^2 \operatorname{sgn}(f) df \\ &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

where the last step follows because $|X(f)|^2 \operatorname{sgn}(f)$ is an odd function as $|X(f)|^2$ is an even function of f ($\because |X(-f)| = |X(f)|$ as $x(t)$ is real).

4. Compute the Hilbert transform of the causal rectangular pulse $x(t) = A \Pi \left(\frac{t - \frac{\tau}{2}}{\tau} \right)$ (where as before $\Pi \left(\frac{t}{\tau} \right)$ denotes the rectangular pulse of duration τ seconds centered around zero).

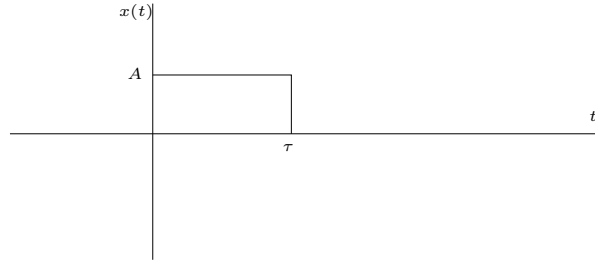


Figure 1: The Figure above shows a causal rectangular pulse of amplitude A and duration τ seconds, whose Hilbert transform needs to be computed.

Solution: Given $x(t) = A\Pi\left(\frac{t-\frac{\tau}{2}}{\tau}\right)$ (shown in Fig. 1). Therefore,

$$\hat{x}(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda} x(t-\lambda) d\lambda. \quad (7)$$

Case 1: For $\hat{x}(t)$ for $t < 0$ and $t > \tau$, $\hat{x}(t)$ can be computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}(t) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda} x(t-\lambda) d\lambda \\ &= \frac{A}{\pi} \int_{t-\tau}^t \frac{1}{\lambda} d\lambda \quad (\text{for } t > 0 \text{ and } t > \tau) \\ &= \frac{A}{\pi} \ln\left(\frac{t}{t-\tau}\right) \quad (\text{for } t > 0 \text{ and } t > \tau) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

(the limits of integration in the second equation above can be obtained by referring to Fig 2)

Case 2: For $0 < t < \frac{\tau}{2}$, $\hat{x}(t)$ can be computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}(t) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda} x(t-\lambda) d\lambda \\ &= \frac{A}{\pi} \int_{t-\tau}^{-t} \frac{1}{\lambda} d\lambda \quad (\text{for } 0 < t < \frac{\tau}{2}) \\ &= \frac{A}{\pi} \ln\left(\frac{t}{\tau-t}\right) \quad (\text{for } 0 < t < \frac{\tau}{2}) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

(the limits of integration in the second equation above can be obtained by referring to Fig 3)

Case 3: For $t = \frac{\tau}{2}$, $\hat{x}(t)$ can be seen from Fig. 4 to be equal to 0.

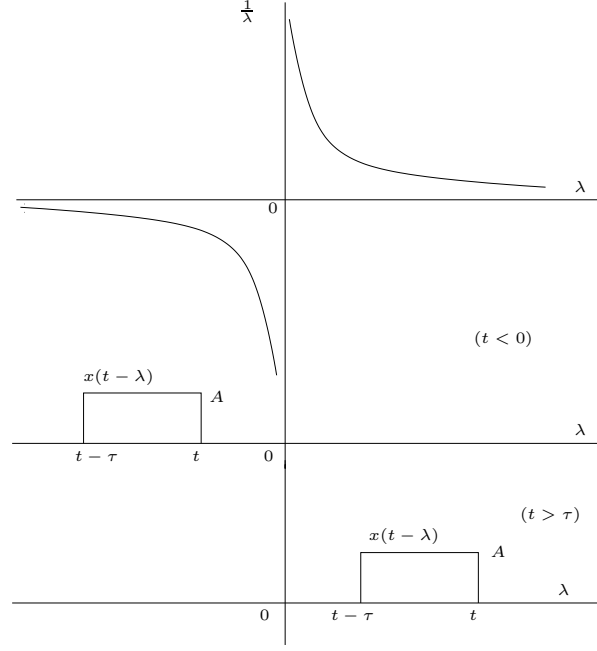


Figure 2: The Figure above shows the plots of $(1/\lambda)$ and $x(t - \lambda)$ for $t < 0$ and $t > \tau$.

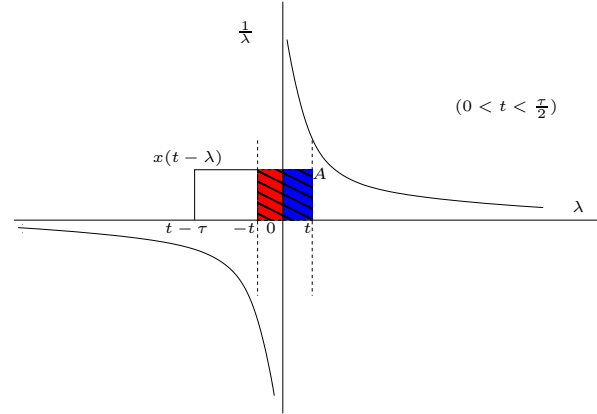


Figure 3: The Figure above shows the plots of $(1/\lambda)$ and $x(t - \lambda)$ for $0 < t < \frac{\tau}{2}$. As can be seen from the figure, the area of $\frac{1}{\lambda}x(t - \lambda)$ for $\lambda \in (-t, 0)$ (shown in red) and $\lambda \in (0, t)$ (shown in blue) are exactly same and therefore cancel out each other.

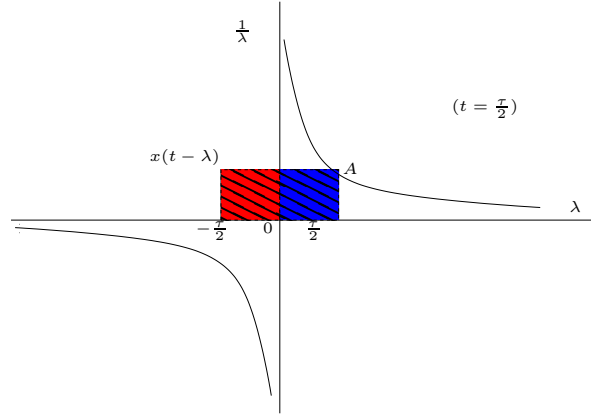


Figure 4: The Figure above shows the plots of $(1/\lambda)$ and $x(t - \lambda)$ for $t = \frac{\tau}{2}$. As can be seen from the figure, the area of $\frac{1}{\lambda}x(t - \lambda)$ for $\lambda \in (-\frac{\tau}{2}, 0)$ (shown in red) and $\lambda \in (0, +\frac{\tau}{2})$ (shown in blue) are exactly same and therefore cancel out each other.

Case 4: For $\frac{\tau}{2} < t < \tau$, $\hat{x}(t)$ can be computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{x}(t) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda} x(t - \lambda) d\lambda \\
 &= \frac{A}{\pi} \int_{-t+\tau}^t \frac{1}{\lambda} d\lambda \quad (\text{for } \frac{\tau}{2} < t < \tau) \\
 &= \frac{A}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{t}{\tau - t} \right) \quad (\text{for } \frac{\tau}{2} < t < \tau)
 \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

(the limits of integration in the second equation above can be obtained by referring to Fig 5)

Therefore combining all cases

$$\hat{x}(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{A}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{t}{t-\tau} \right) & t < 0 \\ \frac{A}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{t}{\tau-t} \right) & 0 < t < \tau \\ \frac{A}{\pi} \ln \left(\frac{t}{t-\tau} \right) & t > \tau \end{cases} \tag{11}$$

The (11) can be succinctly represented as $\hat{x}(t) = \frac{A}{\pi} \ln \left| \frac{t}{t-\tau} \right|$. The Hilbert transform of the causal rectangular pulse is shown in Fig. 6

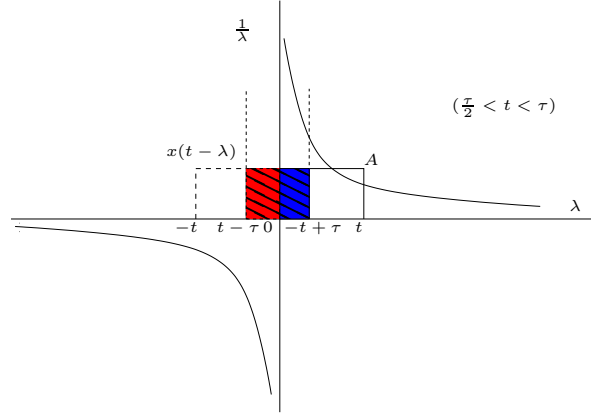


Figure 5: The Figure above shows the plots of $(1/\lambda)$ and $x(t-\lambda)$ for $\frac{\tau}{2} < t < \tau$. As can be seen from the figure, the area of $\frac{1}{\lambda}x(t-\lambda)$ for $\lambda \in (t-\tau, 0)$ (shown in red) and $\lambda \in (0, -t+\tau)$ (shown in blue) are exactly same and therefore cancel out each other.

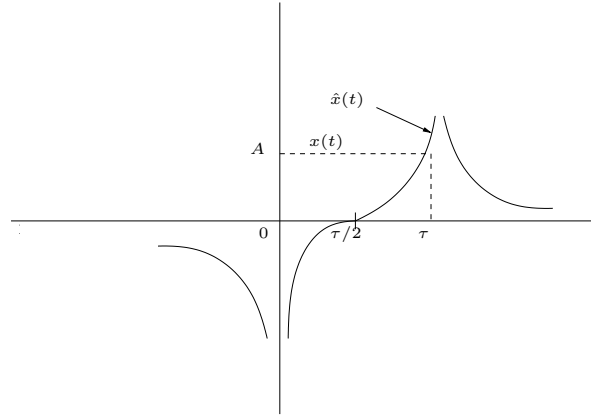


Figure 6: The Figure above shows the Hilbert transform of the given causal rectangular pulse of amplitude A and duration τ .