

Lecture Notes for PHYS 527 Fall 2007

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11 Lecture: Spectral Analysis

We take a quick return to data analysis using spectral methods.

11.1 Discrete Fourier Transform

- A Fourier transform is a mathematical formula that transform signals between time (or space) and frequency domain. It is reversible.

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

$$Y(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} y(t)e^{-2\pi itf} dt$$

or

$$F(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{F}(f)e^{+2\pi itf} df$$

$$y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} Y(f)e^{+2\pi itf} df$$

- For a periodic function over time, the Fourier transform is simplified to a calculation of discrete set of complex amplitudes (Fourier series coeffs).
- Periodic or oscillatory functions require different curve fitting than linear or polynomial, some kind of trigonometric fitting - spectral analysis
- Spectral analysis can easily be a semester course, usually called signal processing in Engineering.
- We shall only cover the basics, see Jenkins and Watts for complete study.
- Given a vector of N points, and data set $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_N]$ that is typically a time series.

- The data is evenly spaced in time so $t_{j+1} = \tau j$ and τ is the sampling interval and $j = 0, \dots, N-1$.
- The vector $\mathbf{Y}$ is the discrete Fourier transform of $\mathbf{y}$

$$Y_{k+1} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} y_{j+1} e^{-2\pi i j k / N}$$

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$ and $k = 0 \dots N-1$.

- The inverse transform is

$$y_{k+1} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} Y_{k+1} e^{2\pi i j k / N}.$$

- NOTE: different packages and libraries define this transformation differently, especially the normalization. Always check.
- Each point, Y_{k+1} , of the transform has an associated frequency

$$f_{k+1} = \frac{k}{\tau N}.$$

The lowest, non-zero, frequency is at $k = 1$, $f_2 = 1/(\tau N) = 1/T$ where T is the length of the time series.

- This implies that to measure very low frequencies, we need very long time series.
- The highest frequency is $f_N \approx 1/\tau$, so to measure very high frequencies we need to use a very short sampling rate. (Aliasing in a second)

11.1.1 Example

- Initialize a sine wave time series, $y_{j+1} = \sin(2\pi f_s j \tau + \phi_0)$
- Compute the transform using either Direct sum or fast Fourier transform
- Compute the power spectrum, $P_{k+1} = |Y_{k+1}|^2$
- Example 1: $\tau = 1$, $N = 50$, $f_s = 0.2$ and $\phi_0 = 0$. Use `ftdemo.m` to see this. The sine wave is jagged because of the slow sampling rate. The real part of the transform is 0 and the imaginary part has 2 spikes, one at $f=0.2$ and another at $f=0.8$ ($k = 10$ and $k = 40$).
- Example 2: If we change the phase to $\phi_0 = \pi/2$, we get a cosine wave and the imaginary part is zero and the real part now has two spikes at $f=0.2$ and 0.8 .

- Example 3: If we choose a frequency that does not fall on a grid point, $f_s \neq f_{k+1}$ such as $f_s = 0.2123$ the transform is not as simple. Now we have both real and imaginary parts in addition to a spread of the spikes. This is because the frequency of the signal is not equal to nor a multiple of $1/\tau N$.
- At this point, it is typical to plot the power spectrum instead

$$P_{k+1} = |Y_{k+1}|^2 = Y_{k+1} Y_{k+1}^*$$

where $*$ is the complex conjugate.

- Now we see two well defined spikes, one of which is between 0.2 and 0.22 as expected.
- Why two spikes?

11.1.2 Aliasing and Nyquist Frequency

- If we do a fourth example, and set $f_s = 0.8$, and keep everything else fixed, we will get the same result as $f_s = 0.2$ despite the fact that the frequencies are completely different. The only difference is a phase shift of π
- The Fourier transforms for the two sine waves, one at $f_s = 0.2$ and the one of $f_s = 0.8$ for $\tau = 1$ are the same for that phase shift.
- This is known as aliasing.
- Aliasing causes a limit to how high of a frequency we can actually resolve given a sample time, τ . This upper bound is called the Nyquist frequency

$$f_{Ny} = \frac{1}{2\tau}.$$

- For the example we just did, $\tau = 1$ and the Nyquist frequency is $1/2$.
- We basically are truncating our Fourier transform at this upper bound, and are discarding the upper half of the vector $\mathbf{Y}$.
- We can understand this through an “information” argument. The data, $\mathbf{y}$ is a real array containing N points. The Fourier transform is complex, containing N points real and N points imaginary. It contains a duplicate of the signal in the upper half of $\mathbf{Y}$.

11.2 Fast Fourier Transform

The FFT is an efficient computational tool. The physical process is that the same function can be represented in two ways

- a) time domain $h(t)$
- b) frequency domain $H(f)$.

The means of going from $h(t)$ to $H(f)$ is the Fourier Transform

$$H(f) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t)e^{2\pi i f t} dt \quad (1)$$

$$h(t) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(f)e^{-2\pi i f t} df \quad (2)$$

The convolution theorem states that convolution in one domain is just the point-wise multiplication in the other:

$$g * h \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\tau)h(t - \tau)d\tau = G(f)H(f)$$

and likewise the correlation theorem

$$corr(g, h) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\tau + t)h(\tau)d\tau = G(f)H^*(f)$$

where $H^*(f)$ is the complex conjugate of $H(f)$.

Here are some handy facts

If...	then ...
$h(t)$ is real	$H(-f) = H^*(f)$
$h(t)$ is imaginary	$H(-f) = -H^*(f)$
$h(t)$ is even	$H(-f) = H(f)$
$h(t)$ is odd	$H(-f) = -H(f)$
$h(t)$ is real and even	$H(f)$ is real and even
$h(t)$ is real and odd	$H(f)$ is imaginary and odd
$h(t)$ is imaginary and even	$H(f)$ is imaginary and even
$h(t)$ is imaginary and odd	$H(f)$ is real and odd

- “time-scaling”

$$h(at) = \frac{1}{|a|} H(f/a)$$

- “frequency-scaling”

$$\frac{1}{|b|}h(t/b) = H(bf)$$

- “time-shifting”

$$h(t - t_0) = H(f)e^{2\pi i f t_0}$$

- “frequency-shifting”

$$h(t)e^{-2\pi i f_0 t} = H(f - f_0)$$

Wiener-Khinchin Theorem

$$Corr(g, g) = |G(f)|^2$$

this is auto-correlation

Parseval’s theorem

$$\text{Total Power} \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |h(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |H(f)|^2 df$$

One-sided power spectral density

$$P_h(f) \equiv |H(f)|^2 + |H(-f)|^2 \text{ for } 0 \leq f < \infty$$

11.2.1 Fourier Transform of discretely sampled data

Nyquist frequency is

$$f_c \equiv \frac{1}{2\Delta}$$

Critical sampling = $\frac{2\text{points}}{\text{cycle}}$

SAMPLING THEOREM: If $h(t)$, sampled at an interval, Δ , is such that $H(f) = 0$ for all $|f| \geq f_c \equiv 1/2\Delta$ then $h(t)$ is completely determined by h_n

$$h(t) = \Delta \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} h_n \frac{\sin[2\pi f_c(t - n\Delta)]}{\pi(t - n\Delta)}$$

If $h(t)$ is not bandwidth limited, i.e. $H(f) \neq 0$ for all $|f| < f_c$, then **ALIASING**

11.3 Discrete Fourier Transform

$h_k \equiv h(t_k)$ where $t_k \equiv k\Delta$, and $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$ and N is even.

Goal is to estimate $H(f)$ at

$$f_n \equiv \frac{n}{N\Delta}$$

where $n = -\frac{N}{2}, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$ so $-f_c \leq f_n \leq f_c$

$$H(f_n) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(t) e^{2\pi i f_n t} dt \approx \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} h_k e^{2\pi i f_n t_k} \Delta = \Delta \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k e^{2\pi i k n / N}$$

Let

$$H_n \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k e^{2\pi i k n / N}$$

so $H(f_n) \approx \Delta H_n$ Since $H_{-n} = H_{N-n}$, we can have the discrete Parseval's theorem

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |h(k)|^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} |H_n|^2$$