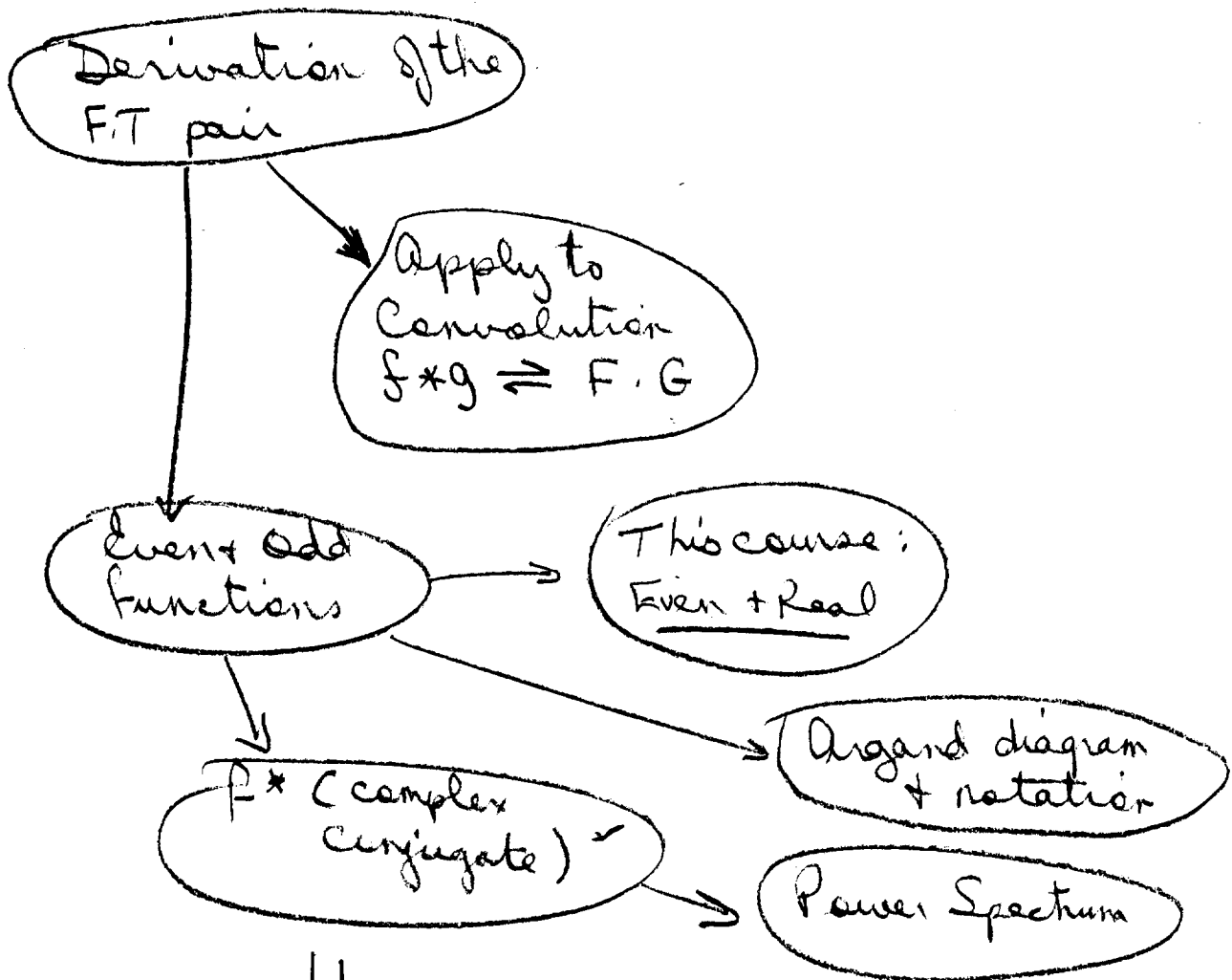


Chapter 5 - Fourier Transforms

5.0 Overview



Useful functions

$$\rightarrow \Pi_a(t) \Leftrightarrow a \operatorname{sinc}(\pi \nu a)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{gaussian} \Leftrightarrow \text{gaussian}$$

$$\rightarrow e^{-t/a} \Leftrightarrow \frac{a}{1 + 2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\rightarrow \delta \Leftrightarrow 1, \text{ shifted } \delta$$

$$\rightarrow \text{III} \Leftrightarrow \text{III}$$

Chapter 5 Fourier Transforms

- Derivation + Useful Functions

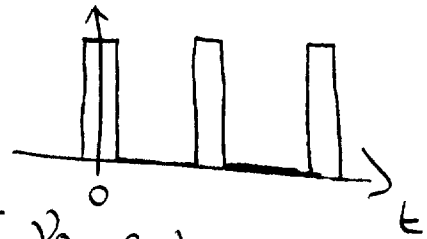
(Following James 1.4 \rightarrow 1.7, except as noted)

5.1 The Fourier Transform (see also Broch 2.4 or Johnston 17.6)

Whether $f(t)$ is periodic or not, we can describe $f(t)$ using sin and cos. We have seen how the Fourier Series can be used for periodic functions. If we let the period go to ∞ , we essentially have a non-periodic function.

Consider the square wave where we found

$$f(t) = hb\nu_0 + 2hb\nu_0 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(\pi n \nu_0 b)}{\pi n \nu_0 b} \cos(2\pi n \nu_0 t)$$



We have components (harmonics) at $\nu_0, 2\nu_0, 3\nu_0, \dots$

If $T (= 1/\nu_0) \rightarrow \infty$, then $\nu_0 \rightarrow 0$, i.e. the harmonics get closer and closer together as $T \rightarrow \infty$. We have essentially a continuum of frequencies. Thus, we could write that instead of $f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n \cos(2\pi n \nu_0 t) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(2\pi n \nu_0 t)$

that we have

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} a(\nu) \cos(2\pi \nu t) d\nu + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} b(\nu) \sin(2\pi \nu t) d\nu$$

$$\text{or } f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\nu) e^{i2\pi \nu t} d\nu$$

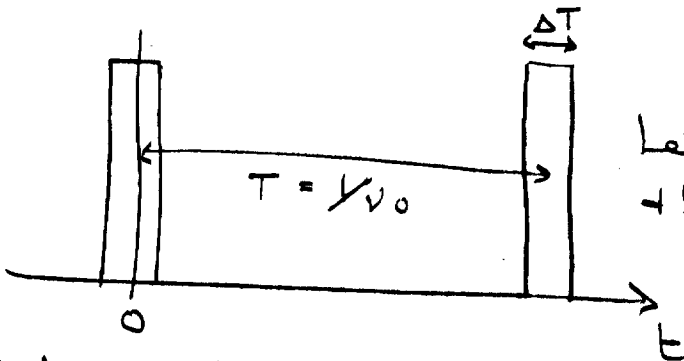
But what is $F(\nu)$?

We had $f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} D_n e^{2\pi i n \nu_0 t} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} D_n e^{2\pi i n t / T}$

where $D_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_T f(t) e^{-2\pi i n t / T} dt$
 ← over 1 cycle, i.e. $\int_{-T/2}^{+T/2}$

Recall: $T = \text{period} = 1/\nu_0$

We let $T \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. $\frac{1}{T} (= \nu_0) \rightarrow d\nu$ and $n d\nu = \nu = n/T$



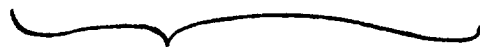
Let 'wave' get narrow
 + let period $\rightarrow \infty$
 \therefore wave \rightarrow impulse

Note: that we straddle the origin. Thus we must reflect $f(t)$ about $t=0$ and make it an even function. This will give negative frequencies, as we shall see.

Thus $f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(t) e^{-2\pi i n t / T} dt \right\} e^{2\pi i n t / T}$

\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ $d\nu$ $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ $e^{-2\pi i \nu t}$ $e^{2\pi i \nu t}$

$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt \right\} e^{2\pi i \nu t} d\nu$



$\equiv F(\nu) = \text{Fourier Transform of } f(t)$

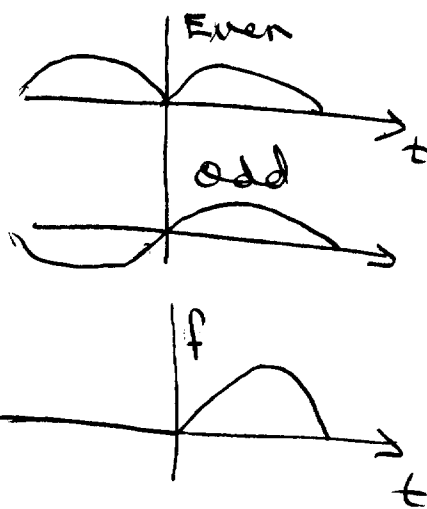
This is a good place to make some statements about even and odd functions and their relationship to real and imaginary numbers in the context of Fourier Transforms.

Any general function, $f(t)$, can be broken up into even, $E(t)$, and Odd, $O(t)$, parts, i.e.:

$$f(t) = E(t) + O(t)$$

$$\text{So } E(t) = \frac{f(t) + f(-t)}{2}$$

$$+ O(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(-t)}{2}$$



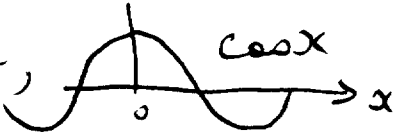
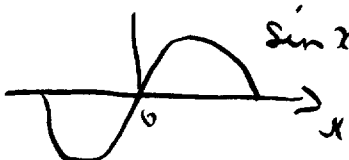
So what do we get when we take the Fourier Transform of $f(t)$?

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

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \cos(2\pi \nu t) dt + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \sin(2\pi \nu t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(t) \cos(2\pi \nu t) dt + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(t) \sin(2\pi \nu t) dt$$

$$+ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} O(t) \cos(2\pi \nu t) dt + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} O(t) \sin 2\pi \nu t dt$$

Now, \cos is an even function, ie,  and \sin is an odd function, ie, 

$$\text{Thus } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt = 2 \int_0^{\infty} E(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt.$$

(ie $\int_{-\infty}^0 = \int_0^{\infty}$)

$$\text{But } i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(t) \sin(2\pi\nu t) dt = 0 \text{ because } \int_{-\infty}^0 = -\int_0^{\infty}$$

$$\text{Likewise } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} O(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt = 0$$

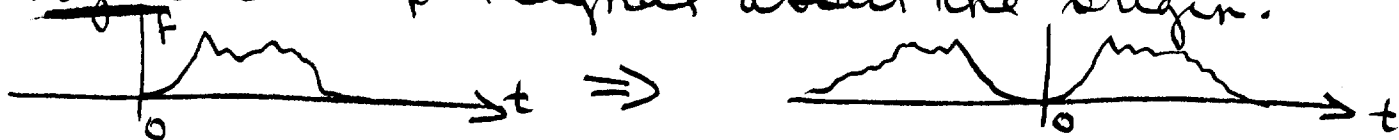
$$\text{and } i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} O(t) \sin(2\pi\nu t) dt = 2i \int_0^{\infty} O(t) \sin(2\pi\nu t) dt$$

Thus,

$$F(\nu) = 2 \int_0^{\infty} E(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt + 2i \int_0^{\infty} O(t) \sin(2\pi\nu t) dt.$$

So we will get an imaginary component in the Fourier Transform iff there is an odd component in the input signal, $f(t)$.

Thus, to keep things real, we simply reflect our input signal about the origin.

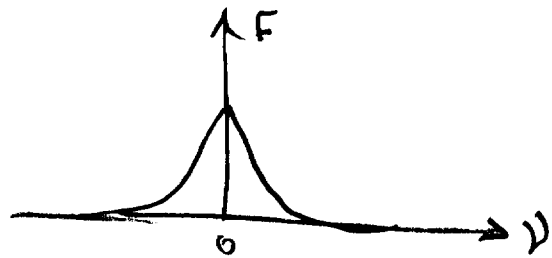
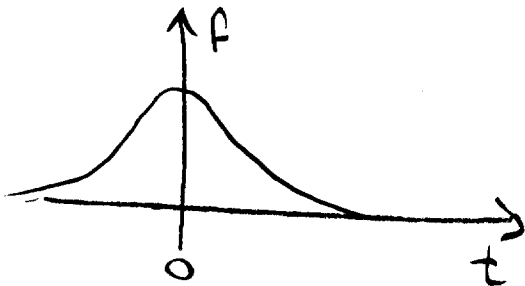


Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} F(\nu) &= 2 \int_0^{\infty} E(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\infty} f(t) \cos(2\pi\nu t) dt \\ &= \text{real.} \end{aligned}$$

$F(\nu)$ is also even since \cos is even,
hence $F(\nu) = F(-\nu)$.

So in this course we will only deal
with $f(t) + F(\nu)$ that are real and even.



5.2 Conjugate variables (following James 1.5)

We have been using t and ν as our variables. In general, the literature may use x & p as the transform pairs. Whatever, the units of the products are always dimensionless.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \text{ & } p \\ t \text{ & } \nu \end{array} \right\}$ are called 'conjugate variables'

Power Spectrum

If we had a voltage, $V(t)$, then for a unit resistor (1Ω), the power is

$$V^2 R = V^2.$$

In general V may be complex so we write the power density as $V(t) V^*(t) = |V(t)|^2$.

In the transformed domain we have

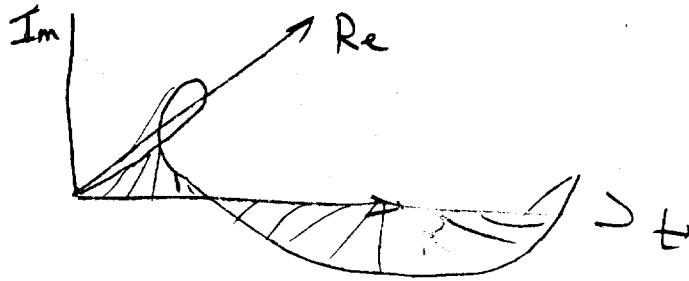
$$S(\nu) \equiv \Phi(\nu) \Phi^*(\nu) = |\Phi(\nu)|^2 \text{ as the } \underline{\text{power per unit frequency}}.$$

This is often called the Power Spectrum or Spectral Power Density (SPD).

For example, optical spectrometers would measure SPD.

5.3 Graphical representation (Following James 1.6)

Generally, when a real fn is transformed, we get a complex fn. $\Phi(\nu)$. To plot $\Phi(\nu)$ we use an Argand diagram.



Note: at this point James switches to $x \leftrightarrow p$

$$\text{where } \Phi(p) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(x) e^{2\pi i p x} dx$$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(p) e^{-2\pi i p x} dx$$

Where the $+ \leftrightarrow -$ signs are switched from the $t \leftrightarrow \nu$ notation.

I'll stick with $t \leftrightarrow \nu$ and the form we derived;

$$\Phi(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t) e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt$$

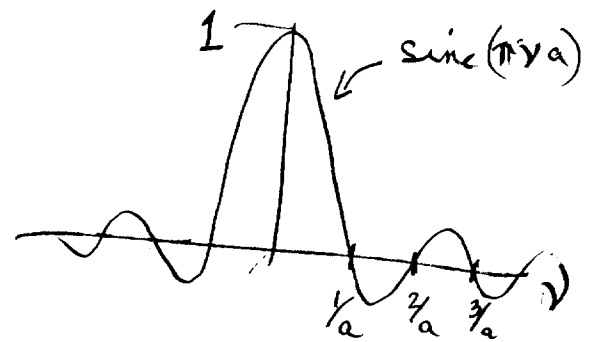
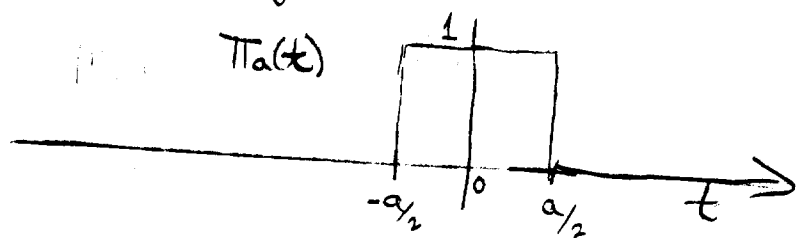
$$F(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(\nu) e^{2\pi i \nu t} d\nu$$

5.4 Useful functions (following James 1.7)

You will see some functions time and time again so, like the multiplication tables, you might as well take note. Don't despair; with a bit of practise, this will be old hat.

5.4.1 The 'top-hat' function $\Pi_a(t)$

Speaking of hats, let's define the 'top-hat' function (aka. a 'box-car' but more commonly as the 'rect' (for rectangular) function.



Thus,

$$\Phi(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Pi_a(t) e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt$$

$$= \int_{-a/2}^{a/2} e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt$$

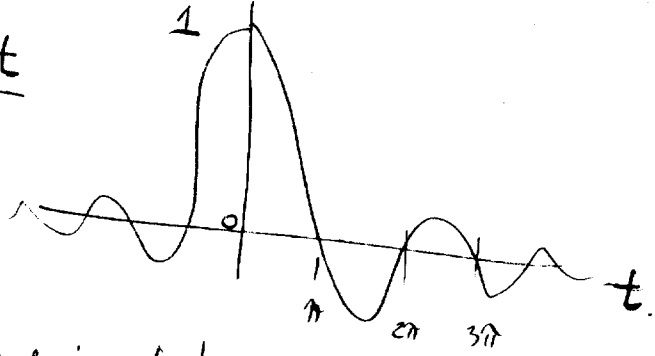
$$= \frac{e^{-2\pi i \nu t}}{-2\pi i \nu} \Big|_{-a/2}^{a/2} = \frac{e^{-\pi i \nu a} - e^{\pi i \nu a}}{-2\pi i \nu}$$

$$= a \frac{\sin(\pi \nu a)}{(\pi \nu a)} = a \text{sinc}(\pi \nu a)$$

$$\text{Thus } \Pi_a(t) \Leftrightarrow a \text{sinc}(\pi \nu a)$$

5.4.2. The sinc-function

$$\text{sinc}(t) \equiv \frac{\sin t}{t}$$



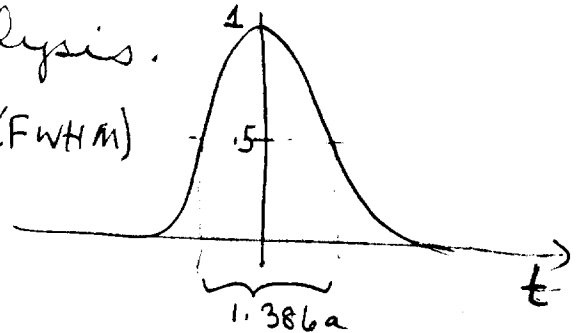
It has zeros where $\sin t$ has zeros - i.e. at $n\pi$.

De l'Hôpital's rule gives $\frac{\sin 0}{0} = 1$.

5.4.3 The Gaussian function

The Gaussian is defined as $g(t) = e^{-t^2/a^2}$,
you've seen it in statistical analysis.

It has a Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM)
of $1.386a$.



Furthermore,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/a^2} dt = a\sqrt{\pi}$$

Since a Gaussian is a common ensemble of input signals,
we'll need to know the transform.

$$G(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/a^2} e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt$$

Now,

$$\frac{t^2}{a^2} + 2\pi i \nu t = \left(\frac{t}{a} + \pi i \nu a\right)^2 - (\pi i \nu a)^2 + (\pi i \nu a)^2$$

$$\therefore G(\nu) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(t^2/a^2 + 2\pi i \nu t)} dt = e^{-(\pi \nu a)^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(t/a + \pi i \nu a)^2} dt$$

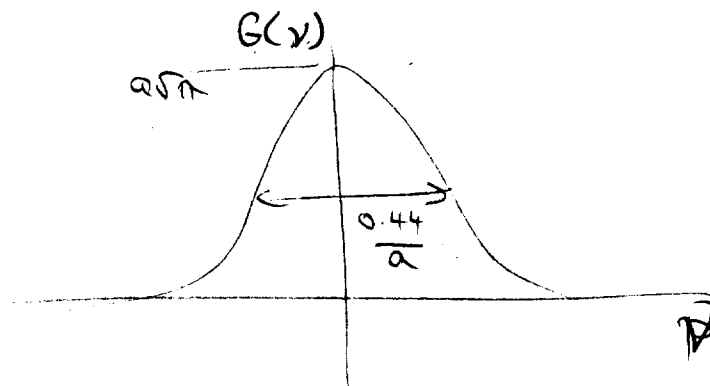
$$\text{Let } z = t/a + \pi i \nu a \Rightarrow a dz = dt$$

$$\therefore G(\nu) = a e^{-(\pi \nu a)^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-z^2} dz$$

$$\therefore \boxed{G(\nu) = a\sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2 \nu^2 a^2}} = \sqrt{\pi}$$

This is another Gaussian (of width $\frac{1}{\pi a} = \frac{0.44}{a}$)

Also note that $G(0) = a\sqrt{\pi}$ which is the area under $g(t)$.



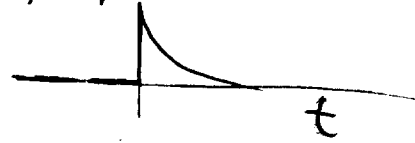
Note: The value of any Fourier Transform evaluated at $\nu=0$ is the area under the original signal, i.e.,

$$F(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-2\pi i 0 t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) dt$$

5.4.4 The exponential decay

Another common signal is a decaying one (electronic, radioactive ...)

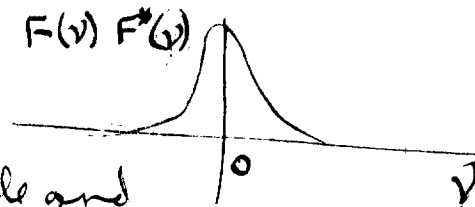
$$f(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-t/a}, & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \therefore F(\nu) &= \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t/a} e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt \\ &= \left. \frac{e^{-(t/a + 2\pi i \nu t)}}{-(1/a + 2\pi i \nu)} \right|_0^{\infty} = \frac{0 - 1}{-(1/a + 2\pi i \nu)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1/a + 2\pi i \nu} = \frac{a}{1 + 2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\therefore F(\nu) F^*(\nu) = \frac{a^2}{1 + 4\pi^2 \nu^2 a^2} \rightarrow$$



This is called a Lorentz Profile and is found in spectrum lines at very low pressure.

The FWHM (width, $\Delta\nu$), is $\frac{1}{\pi a}$ and is related to the excited state lifetime. Thus, the Lorentz profile is used to determine atomic transition times.

(Notice that $F(t)$ is not an ω function and the subsequent $F(\nu)$ is complex)

5.4.5 The Dirac 'delta-function'

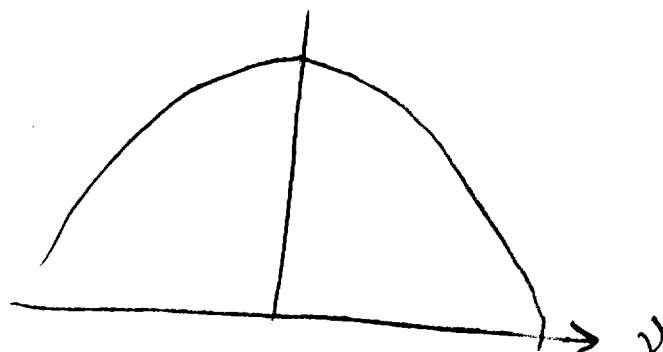
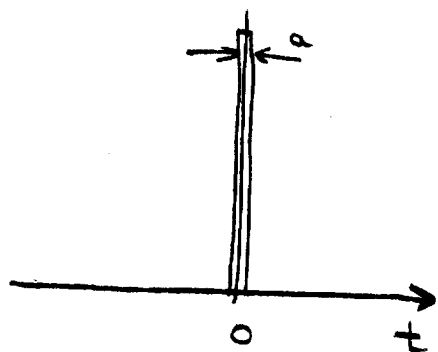
We have seen this before:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(t) &= 0 \text{ for } t \neq 0 \\ &= \infty \text{ for } t = 0 \end{aligned}$$

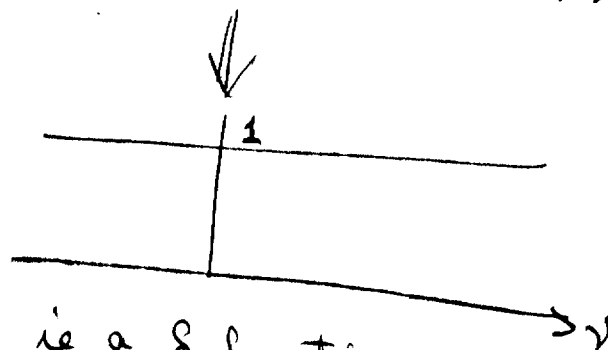
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t) dt = 1.$$

The δ function is not a well behaved function - it goes to ∞ at $t=0$ but its integral is well behaved.

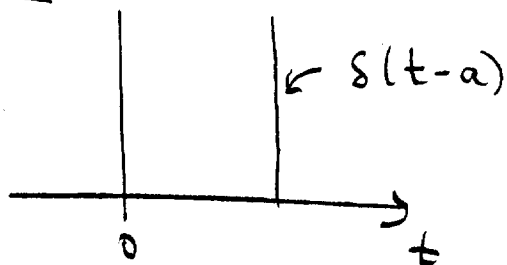
We can determine its transform by taking the limiting case of the Π function:



$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{a} \Pi_a(t) \iff \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \text{sinc}(\pi v a) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(\pi v a)}{\pi v a}$$



Hence $\delta(t) \iff 1$ is a δ function contains all frequencies

also

$$+ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t-a) dt = f(a)$$

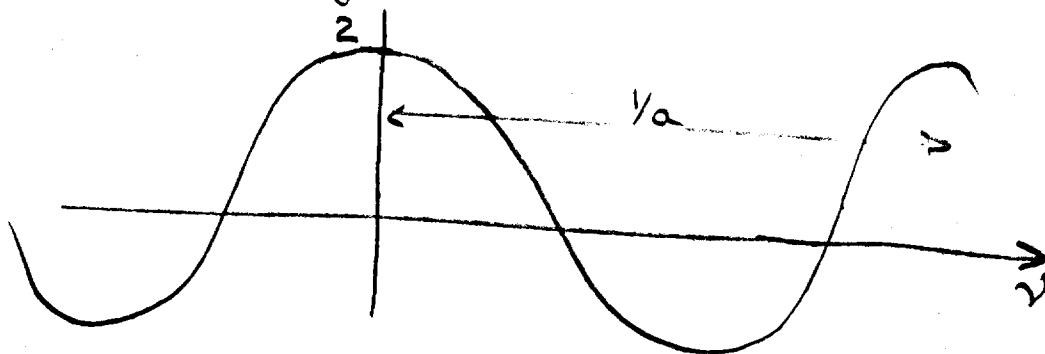
Thus:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\pi i \nu t} \delta(t-a) dt = e^{-2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\therefore \delta(t-a) \Rightarrow e^{-2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$+ \text{hence } \delta(t-a) + \delta(t+a) \Rightarrow e^{-2\pi i \nu a} + e^{2\pi i \nu a} \\ = 2 \cos(2\pi \nu a)$$

The 2 δ functions combined give constructive and destructive interference.



The Dirac Comb

For a large collection of equally spaced δ functions, we define the shah function:

$$\text{III}_a(t) \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - na)$$

It turns out that the ^{Fourier Transform of a} shah function is another shah function!

$$\text{III}_a(t) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{a} \text{III}_{\frac{1}{a}}(\nu)$$

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - na) \iff \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta\left(\nu - \frac{n}{a}\right)$$

When I find an understandable proof, I'll let you know.

This function will turn out to be useful as a replicating tool.

5.5 Recap

Fourier Transform Pair:

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

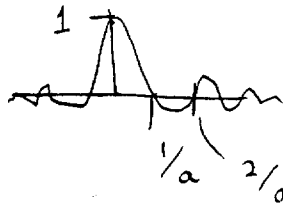
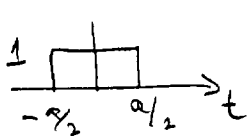
$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\nu) e^{2\pi i \nu t} d\nu$$

If $f(t)$ is even then $F(\nu)$ is real.

$\Phi(\nu) \Phi^*(\nu) = |\Phi(\nu)|^2$ is the power per unit frequency (Power Spectrum or Spectral Power Density (SPD)).

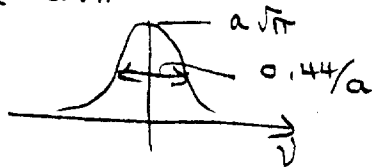
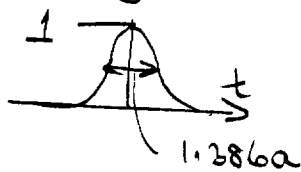
Rect

$$\Pi_a(t) \iff a \text{sinc}(\pi \nu a)$$



Gaussian: $g(t) = e^{-t^2/a^2}$, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t^2/a^2} dt = a\sqrt{\pi}$

$$g(t) \iff a\sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2 \nu^2 a^2}$$



Exponential decay

$$e^{-t/a} \iff \frac{a}{1+2\pi i \nu a}$$

Delta

$$\delta(t) \iff 1, \quad \delta(t-a) \iff e^{-2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\delta(t-a) + \delta(t+a) \iff 2 \cos(2\pi \nu a)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \delta(t-a) dt = f(a)$$

Dirac Comb:

$$\text{III}_a(t) \equiv \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t-na)$$

$$\text{III}_a(t) \iff \frac{1}{a} \text{III}_{1/a}(\nu)$$

