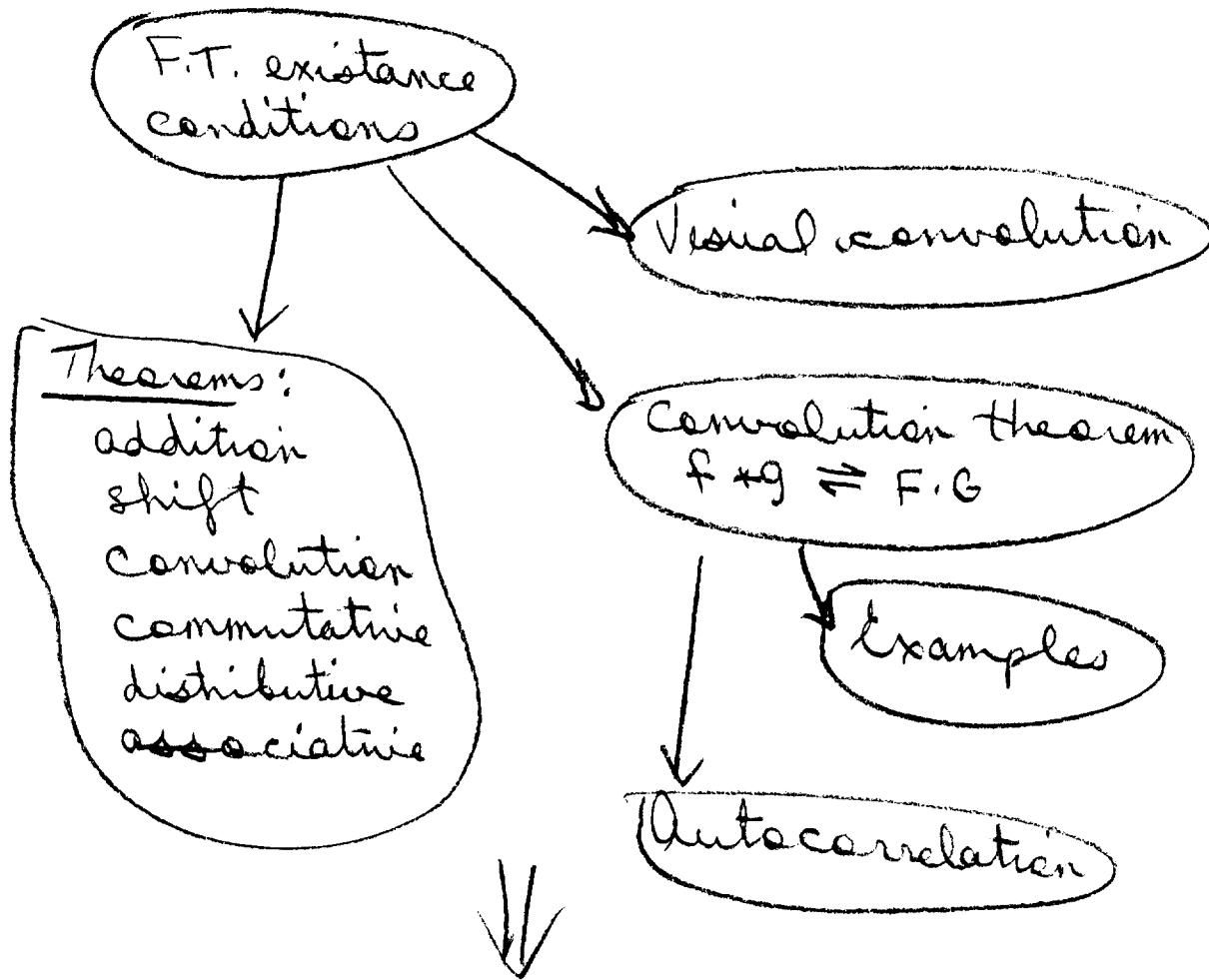


Chapter 6 - Useful Properties and Theorems

6.0 Overview



Algebra of convolution:

- Derivative Th. \rightarrow PDE sol'n
- Derivative of convolution
- Power Th.
- Sampling Th. \rightarrow Aliasing
Nyquist criteria
- Similarity Th.

6 Useful Properties and Theorems (Following James chapter 2)

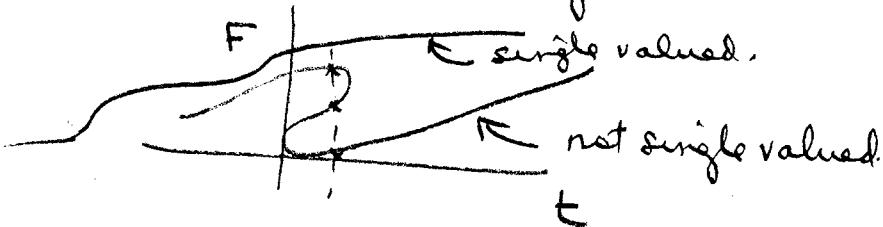
6.1 The Dirichlet conditions

Not all functions can be Fourier-transformed. They are if they fulfill the Dirichlet conditions, which are:

$$(1) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(t)|^2 dt < \infty$$

This implies $F(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$.

(2) $F(t) + \bar{F}(v)$ are single valued.



(3) $F(t) + \bar{F}(v)$ are 'piece-wise continuous'



(4) $F(t) + \bar{F}(v)$ should be bounded but this is not a practical engineering issue.

All natural systems obey the Dirichlet conditions.

6.2 Theorems

A bit of work here will give us tools to make the work of Fourier Transforms easier.

$$F_1(t) \geq \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) \quad \text{and} \quad F_2(t) \geq \underline{\Phi}_2(\nu)$$

The Addition Theorem

$$F_1(t) + F_2(t) \geq \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) + \underline{\Phi}_2(\nu)$$

(the proof is trivial - $\int(a+b)dx = \int adx + \int bdx$)

The Shift Theorems:

$$F_1(t+a) \geq \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) e^{2\pi i \nu a}$$

Proof:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(t+a) e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(z) e^{-2\pi i \nu (z-a)} dz$$

$$\text{where } z=t+a$$

$$= \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) e^{2\pi i \nu a}$$

Q.E.D.

$$\text{Similarly, } F_1(t-a) \geq \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) e^{-2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } F_1(t+a) + F_1(t-a) &= \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) (e^{2\pi i \nu a} - e^{-2\pi i \nu a}) \\ &= 2\underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) \cos 2\pi \nu a \end{aligned}$$

Note: If F_1 is the δ -function, we have (since $\delta(t) \geq 1$)

$$\delta(t+a) \geq e^{2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$\delta(t-a) \geq e^{-2\pi i \nu a} \quad (\text{consistent with what we showed before in 5.4, 5})$$

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

6.3 Convolutions and the Convolution Theorem

We talked about linear systems at the beginning of the course and saw how system output, $y(t)$ is related to input, $x(t)$ by:

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) L[S(t-\tau)] d\tau \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) h(t-\tau) d\tau \end{aligned}$$

where $L[S(t-\tau)] = h(t-\tau)$ is the system response to an input at time τ .

One specific example of this would be when the 'system' is a measuring instrument and, instead of measuring a time signal, we measure a spectrometer signal, ie:

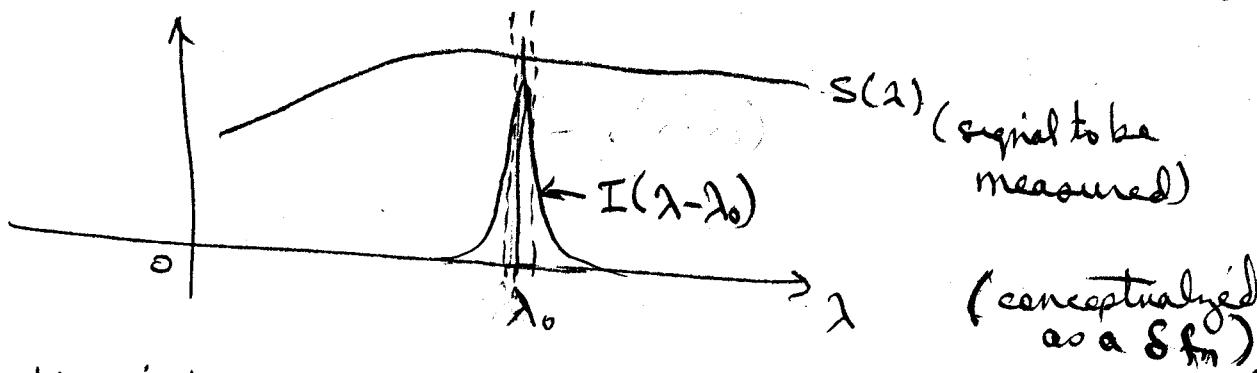
$$O(\lambda) = k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} S(\lambda_1) I(\lambda - \lambda_1) d\lambda,$$

where $O(\lambda)$ is the measured output

$I(\lambda - \lambda_1)$ is the instrument response ^{at λ} to an impulse at λ_1 ,

$S(\lambda_1)$ is the spectrum source

k = geometry factor for the instrument
(which could be included with I but here we normalize I via $\int I(\lambda) d\lambda = 1$)



So the instrument will respond to that bit of signal at λ_0 , with an output that is spread out a bit. So a sharp line looks like a less distinct shape.

In general the convolution of 2 functions is

$$C(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(\tau) F_2(t-\tau) d\tau$$

$$\text{or } C(t) = F_1(t) * F_2(t) \leftarrow \text{short hand notation}$$

It is handy to know the rules of manipulation of this short hand notation.

Commutative rule :

$$C(t) = F_1(t) * F_2(t) = F_2(t) * F_1(t)$$

$$\text{ie } C(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(\tau) F_2(t-\tau) d\tau$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(t-\xi) F_2(\xi) d(-\xi) \quad (\text{let } \xi = t-\tau)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_2(z) F_1(t-z) dz$$

$$= F_2(t) * F_1(t) \quad QED$$

Distributive rule:

$$F_1(t) * [F_2(t) + F_3(t)] = F_1(t) * F_2(t) + F_1(t) * F_3(t)$$

(Follows directly from $\int a(b+c) dt = \int ab dt + \int ac dt$)

Associative rule:

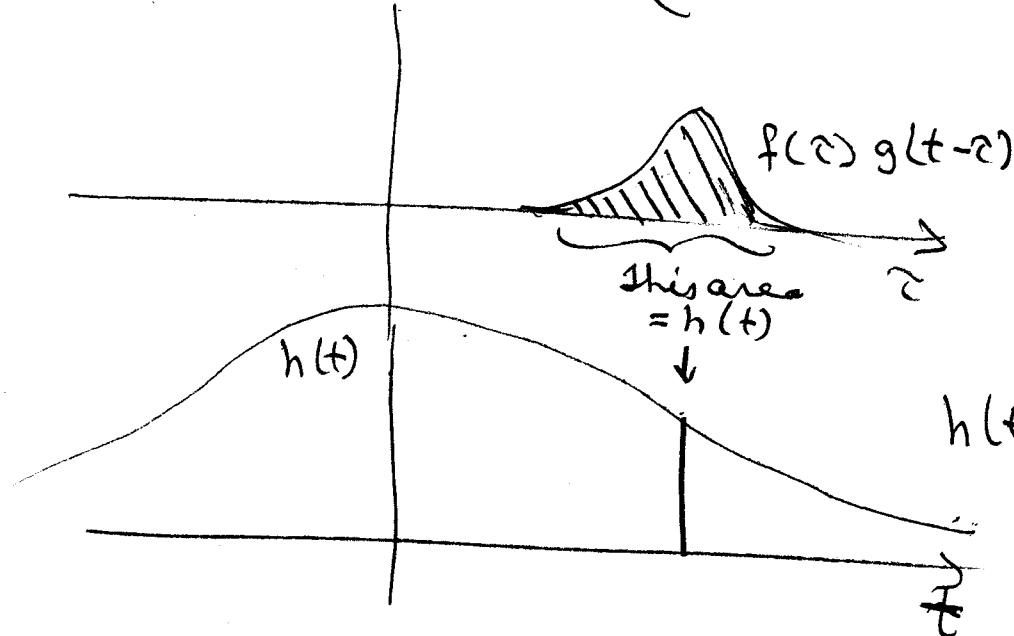
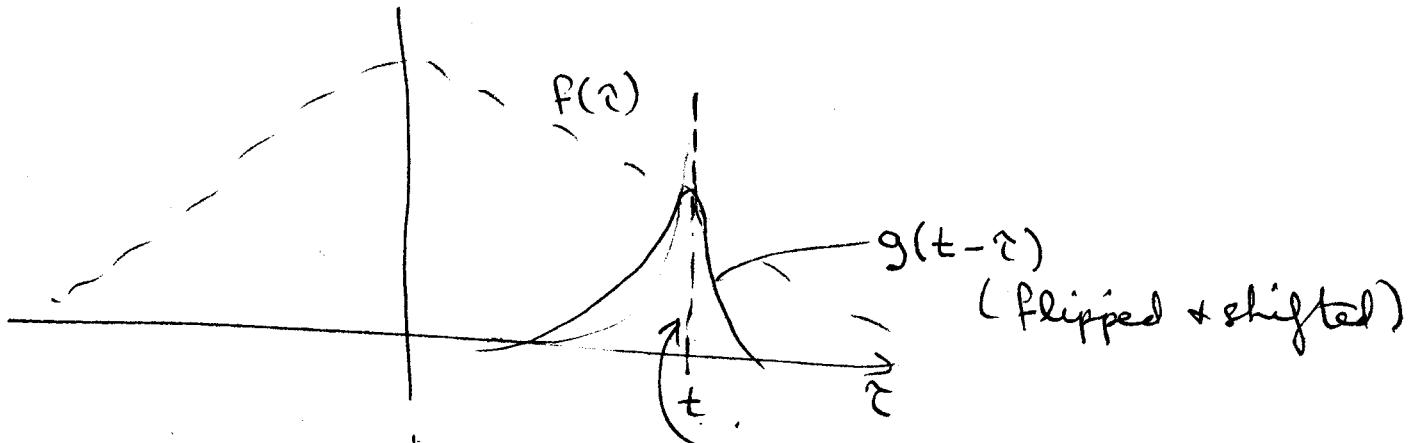
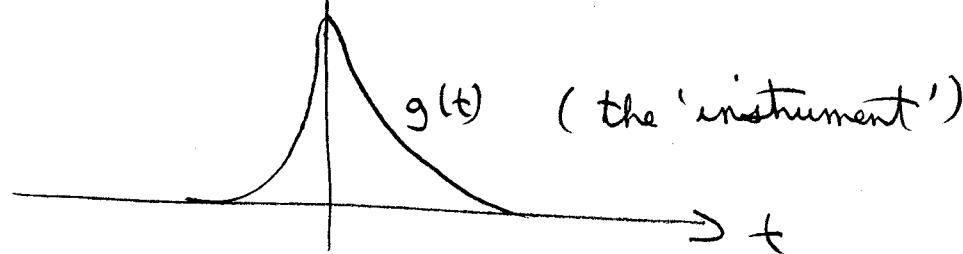
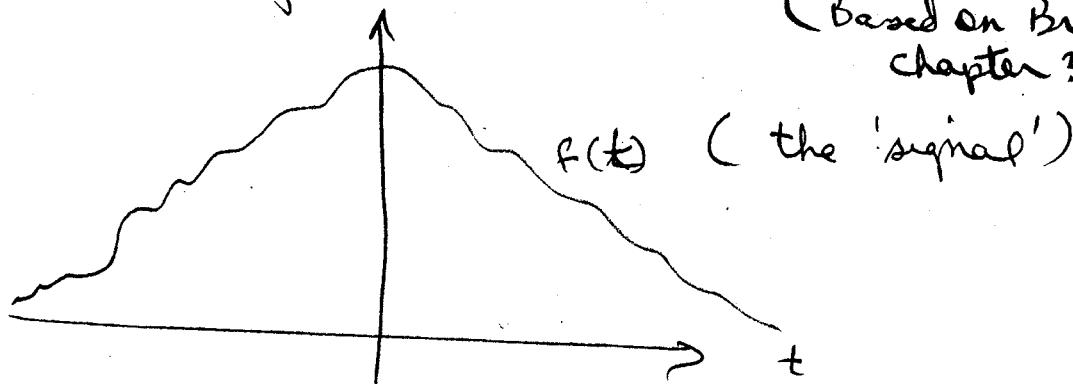
$$F_1(t) * [F_2(t) * F_3(t)] = [F_1(t) * F_2(t)] * F_3(t)$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_1(t) * [F_2(t) * F_3(t)] &\xrightarrow{\text{Fourier Transform}} \phi_1(\nu) [\mathcal{F}(F_2(t) * F_3(t))] \\
 &= \phi_1(\nu) [\phi_2(\nu) \cdot \phi_3(\nu)] \\
 &= [\phi_1(\nu) \cdot \phi_2(\nu)] \cdot \phi_3(\nu) \\
 [F_1(t) * F_2(t)] * F_3(t) &\xleftarrow{\quad} = \mathcal{F}[F_1(t) * F_2(t)] \cdot \phi_3(\nu)
 \end{aligned}$$

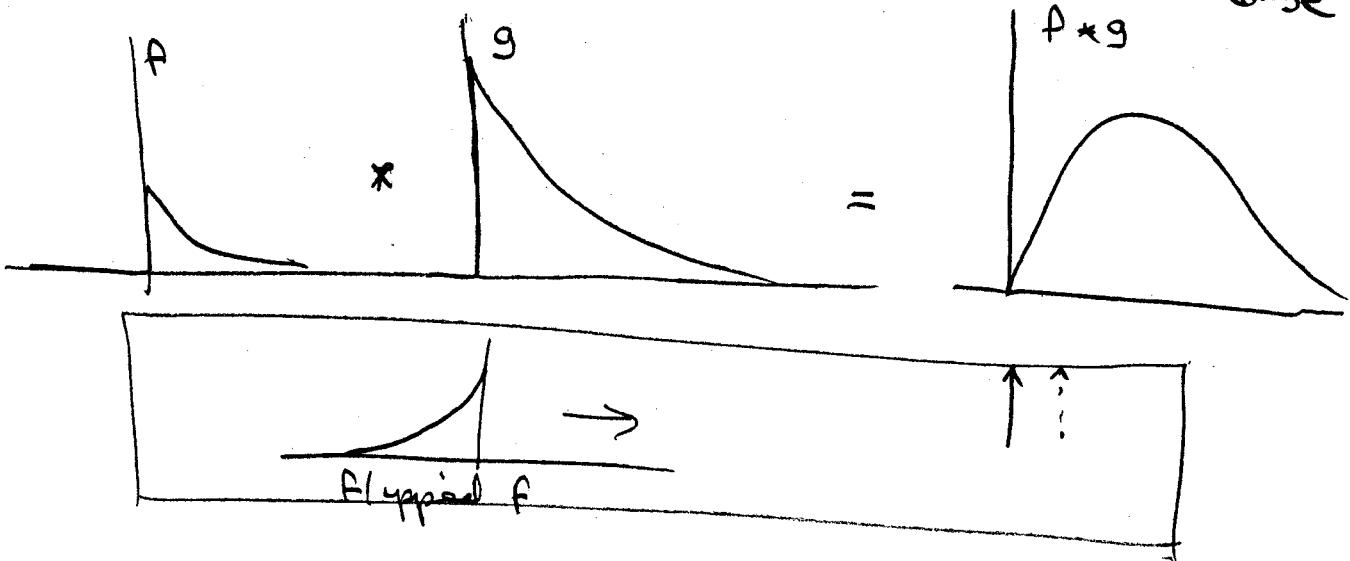
Visualizing a Convolution

(Based on Bracewell
Chapter 3)

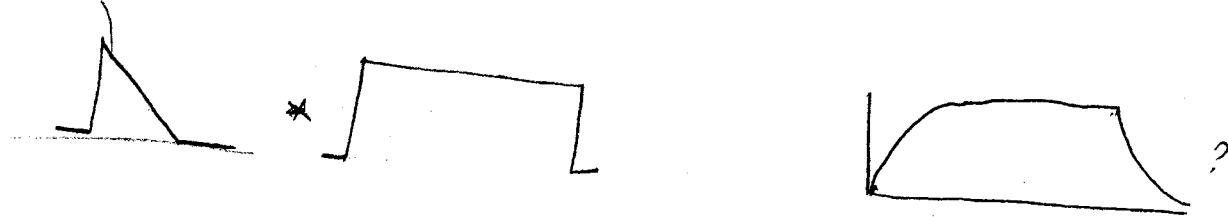


$$\begin{aligned} h(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau) g(t-\tau) d\tau \\ &= f * g \end{aligned}$$

Note: $h(t)$ is smoother & more spread out than $f(t)$.



Practice on:



6.3.1 The Convolution Theorem

We met this one at the very beginning. It is the reason why we are so interested in Fourier Transforms.

The Convolution Theorem states :

$$F_1(t) * F_2(t) \rightleftharpoons \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) \underline{\Phi}_2(\nu)$$

In words: The F.T. of the convolution of two functions is just the product of the F.T. of the two functions.

$$\underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(\tau) F_2(t-\tau) d\tau \right] e^{-2\pi i \nu t} dt}_{\text{a convolution}}$$

The transform of a convolution

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(\tau) \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_2(t-\tau) e^{-2\pi i \nu (t-\tau)} dt \right] e^{-2\pi i \nu \tau} d\tau \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\underline{\Phi}_2(\nu)} \qquad \underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\text{replace } t-\tau \text{ with } z} \qquad dt = dz \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F_1(\tau) e^{-2\pi i \nu \tau} d\tau \cdot \underline{\Phi}_2(\nu) \\
 &= \underline{\Phi}_1(\nu) \underline{\Phi}_2(\nu) \qquad \text{Q.E.D.}
 \end{aligned}$$

6.3.2. Examples of Convolutions

Let's see how we can manipulate functions using the Convolution Theorem to generate new transforms.

The S-function

From the properties of the S function

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\tau) S(t-\tau) d\tau = f(t)$$

$$\text{Hence } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t-\tau) S(\tau-a) d\tau = F(t-a)$$

$$\text{which is just } F(t) * \delta(t-a) = F(t-a)$$

$$\text{Now, if } F(t) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{F}(v) + S(t-a) \geq e^{-2\pi i a}$$

(we showed this twice before)

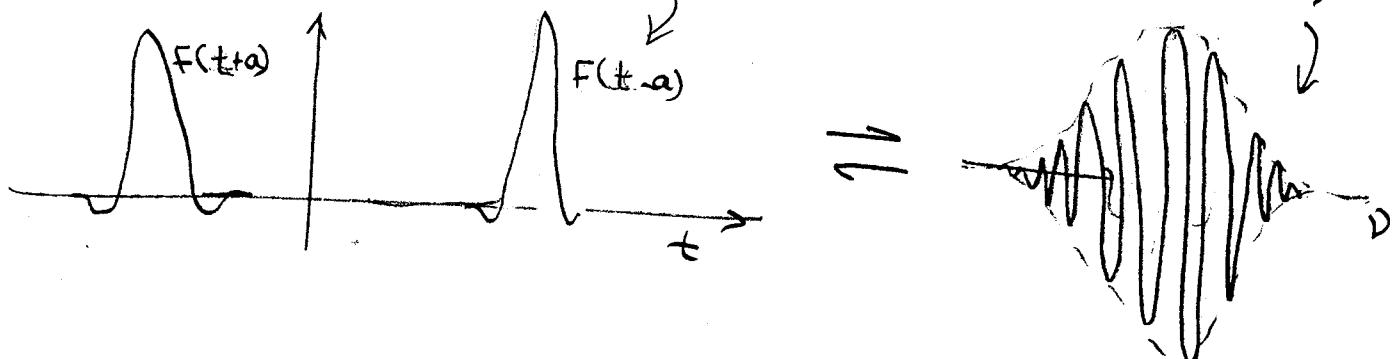
Then we immediately have:

$$F(t-a) \geq \mathcal{F}(v)e^{-2\pi i a} \text{ from the convolution theorem.}$$

Another example:

$$\text{We already had } S(t-a) + S(t+a) \geq 2 \cos \pi v a$$

$$\text{Thus } [S(t-a) + S(t+a)] * F(t) \geq 2 \cos \pi v a \mathcal{F}(v)$$



Gaussian example

We had already shown:

$$e^{-t^2/a^2} \Rightarrow a\sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2 v^2 a^2}$$

$$\therefore e^{-t^2/a^2} * e^{-t^2/b^2} \Rightarrow ab\pi e^{-\pi^2 v^2(a^2+b^2)}$$

This is certainly a lot easier than grinding through the calculus.

The R.H.S. is just another Gaussian, which we can transform back to t -space by noting:

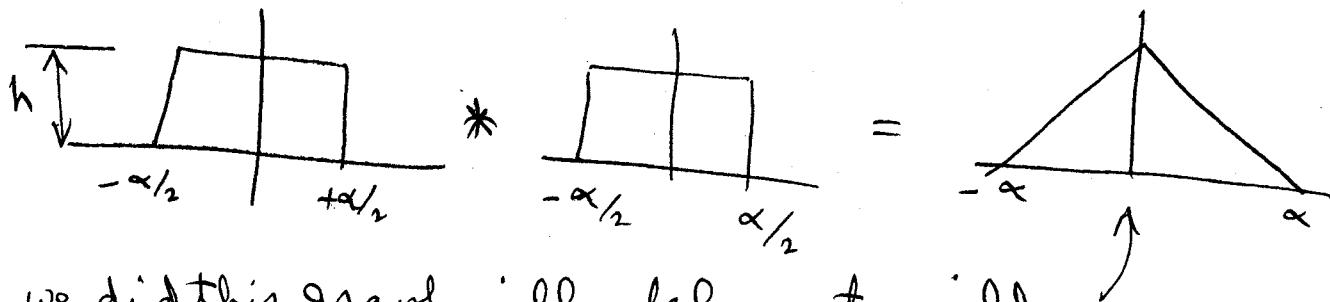
$$ab\pi e^{-\pi^2 v^2(a^2+b^2)} = \frac{ab\sqrt{\pi}}{c} e^{-\pi^2 v^2 c^2}$$

$$+ \text{since } e^{-t^2/c^2} \Rightarrow c\sqrt{\pi} e^{-\pi^2 v^2 c^2} \quad \text{where } c = \sqrt{a^2+b^2}$$

$$\text{we have } e^{-t^2/a^2} * e^{-t^2/b^2} = \frac{ab\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{a^2+b^2}} e^{-t^2/(a^2+b^2)}$$

is the convolution of two Gaussians of width parameter $a+b$
 is another Gaussian of width parameter $\sqrt{a^2+b^2}$

Convolution of 2 'top-hat' functions



we did this graphically before to yield

The 'triangular-function' is denoted $\Lambda_a(t)$ with base $2a$

$$\text{So } h \Pi_a(t) * h \Pi_a(t) = h^2 \Lambda_a(t)$$

We can use this to get the F.T. of $\Lambda_a(t)$:

$$h \Pi_a(t) \Rightarrow ah \operatorname{sinc}(\pi \nu a)$$

$$\therefore h \Pi_a(t) * h \Pi_a(t) \Rightarrow a^2 h^2 \operatorname{sinc}^2(\pi \nu a)$$

$$\therefore h^2 \Lambda_a(t) \Rightarrow a^2 h^2 \operatorname{sinc}^2(\pi \nu a)$$

This is surely quicker and easier than direct integration.

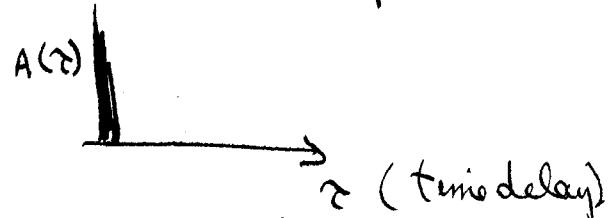
The Autocorrelation Theorem

The autocorrelation function is defined as :

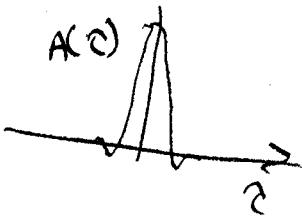
$$A(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t) F(t+\tau) dt$$

It is like a convolution but it, physically, is a measure of how much a given point of F , $F(t)$, is correlated to F at another time, $t + \tau$. τ is like a time delay.

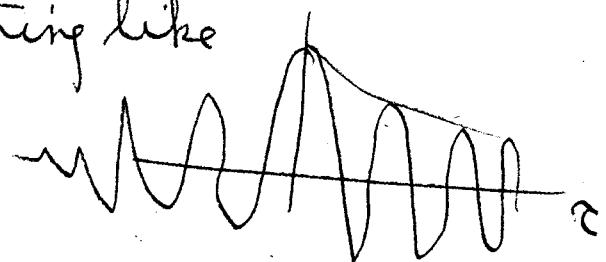
If there is no correlation ('ie a random signal'), you'd get a S-function



More likely, you'd get a bit of a spread for a real signal



If F was a 'narrow band' signal ('ie contained frequencies that fell within a narrow band'), you'd expect something like



(Just imagine how $F(t)$ relates to $F(t+\tau)$ if the signal were a pure sine wave).

If we take the Fourier Transform of $A(z)$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Gamma(v) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A(z) e^{-2\pi i v z} dz \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t) F(t+z) e^{-2\pi i v t} dt \right] dz \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t) e^{+2\pi i v t} dt \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(t+z) e^{-2\pi i v (t+z)} dz}_{\downarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(y) e^{-2\pi i v y} dy} \\
 &\quad \text{where } t+z=y \\
 &= |\underline{\Phi}(v)|^2 \quad \text{(we showed that early on in our discussion of complex numbers)}
 \end{aligned}$$

↑
Spectral Power Density

Thus the autocorrelation is (apart from a constant of proportionality) the F.T. of its power spectrum, $|\underline{\Phi}(v)|^2$

6.4 The algebra of convolutions

$$[a(t) * b(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) \cdot B(\nu)]$$

(we've shown this already)

But since the only difference in Fourier Transforms forward and back is a -ve sign in the exponent, we expect

$$[a(t) \cdot b(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) * B(\nu)]$$

Thus

$$[a(t) * b(t)] \cdot [c(t) * d(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) * B(\nu)] * [C(\nu) * D(\nu)]$$

Also, addition works in the traditional way :

$$[a(t) + b(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) + B(\nu)]$$

$$\text{So } [a(t) + b(t)] * [c(t) + d(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) + B(\nu)] * [C(\nu) + D(\nu)]$$

Example

$$[a(t) * b(t) + c(t) * d(t)] * e(t) \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) * B(\nu) + C(\nu) * D(\nu)] * E(\nu)$$

easy!

6.5 Other theorems

6.5.1 The Derivative Theorem

If $f(t) \Leftrightarrow \underline{F}(\nu)$ then $\frac{df}{dt} \Leftrightarrow +2\pi i\nu \underline{F}(\nu)$

Proof: $F.T. \int \frac{df}{dt} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{df(t)}{dt} e^{-2\pi i\nu t} dt$ (Ref?)

(I prefer this
to the treatment
in James)

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{F(t+\Delta t) - F(t)}{\Delta t} e^{-2\pi i\nu t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{F(t+\Delta t)}{\Delta t} e^{-2\pi i\nu t} dt - \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{F(t)}{\Delta t} e^{-2\pi i\nu t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{F(t+\Delta t)}{\Delta t} e^{-2\pi i\nu(t+\Delta t)} e^{2\pi i\nu \Delta t} dt - \dots$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\underline{F}(\nu) e^{2\pi i\nu \Delta t} - \underline{F}(\nu)}{\Delta t} \right) = \underline{F}(\nu) \left[\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{e^{2\pi i\nu \Delta t} - 1}{\Delta t} \right) \right]$$

Now $e^{2\pi i\nu \Delta t} = 1 + 2\pi i\nu \Delta t + \frac{(2\pi i\nu \Delta t)^2}{2} + \dots$

$$\therefore \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{e^{2\pi i\nu \Delta t} - 1}{\Delta t} \right) = 2\pi i\nu$$

Thus $F.T. \int \frac{df}{dt}$ is $2\pi i\nu \underline{F}(\nu)$

Q.E.D.

By extension: $\frac{d^n F}{dt^n} \Leftrightarrow (2\pi i\nu)^n \underline{F}(\nu)$

This result is used in solving differential equations (a huge use of Fourier Transforms that we won't be exploring in this course).

Example : Simple harmonic motion :

$$m \frac{d^2 F(t)}{dt^2} + k F(t) = 0$$

Taking F.T. :

$$m (2\pi i\nu)^2 \underline{F}(\nu) + k \underline{F}(\nu) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{k}{m} - 4\pi^2 \nu^2 \right) \underline{F}(\nu) = 0$$

+ we see, without actually solving the equation that the frequency of the oscillator is $\nu = \pm 2\pi \sqrt{k/m}$,

6.5.2 The Convolution Derivative Theorem

$$\frac{d}{dt} [F_1(t) * f_2(t)] = F_1(t) * \frac{dF_2(t)}{dt} = \frac{dF_1(t)}{dt} * f_2(t)$$

Proof:

$$\text{If we let } F_1(t) \hat{=} \Phi_1(\nu)$$

$$f_2(t) \hat{=} \Phi_2(\nu)$$

$$\text{then } \frac{d}{dt} [F_1(t) * f_2(t)] \rightarrow (2\pi i\nu) \Phi_1(\nu) \cdot \Phi_2(\nu)$$

$$\left[\frac{d}{dt} F_1(t) \right] * f_2(t) \leftarrow (2\pi i\nu \Phi_1(\nu)) \cdot \Phi_2(\nu)$$

$$F_1(t) * \left[\frac{d}{dt} f_2(t) \right] \leftarrow I_1(\nu) \cdot (2\pi i\nu \Phi_2(\nu))$$

QED.

Here we have exploited the fact that convolutions transform to a product. So we do the transform to get rid of the messy convolution, do some simple algebra and then transform back to recover the convolutions.

Neat!

6.5.3 Parseval's / Rayleigh's / Power Theorem

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) g^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v) G^*(v) dv$$

* denotes the complex conjugate.

Proof:

$$\text{If } g(t) \rightleftharpoons G(v), \text{ ie } G(v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) e^{-2\pi i vt} dv$$

$$+ g^*(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(v) e^{+2\pi i vt} dt$$

$$\text{Then } G^*(v) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^*(t) e^{2\pi i vt} dt + g^*(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G^*(v) e^{2\pi i vt} dt$$

(where we just took the complex conjugate of everything,
ie $i \rightarrow -i$)

Thus

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) g^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v) e^{+2\pi i vt} dv \right] \cdot g^*(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v) \underbrace{\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g^*(t) e^{+2\pi i vt} dt \right)}_{G^*(v)} dv$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v) G^*(v) dv$$

QED

When $f = g$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) f^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v) F^*(v) dv$$

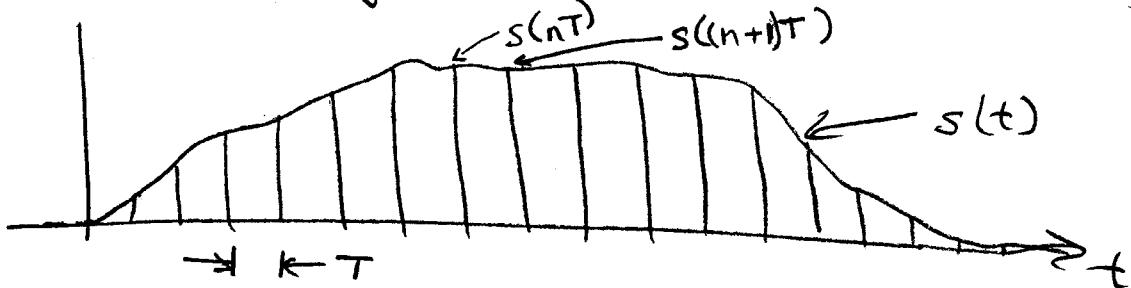
$$\text{ie } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(v)|^2 dv \quad (\text{Rayleigh's or Power Theorem})$$

Physically, we can interpret this as the total power in the time domain.

6.5.4 The Sampling Theorem

Fante does a better treatment of this topic than James so I'll follow Fante, Section 4.2, pp (28-13)

Let's take a signal $s(t)$ and sample it every T seconds



The sampled signal, $\hat{s}(t)$ is just $s(t)$ multiplied by a train of δ -functions:

$$\hat{s}(t) = s(t) \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - nT)$$

(We reflect the signal to $n < 0$ to make it symmetric, as usual).

The original signal, $s(t)$ has a Fourier Transform $S(v)$.

Let's take the F.T. of the sample, $\hat{s}(t)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{S}(v) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(t) \delta(t - nT) e^{-2\pi i v t} dt \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(nT) e^{-2\pi i v nT}\end{aligned}$$

We can show that this is periodic as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{s}(\nu + \frac{m}{T}) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(nT) e^{-2\pi i \nu nT - 2\pi i nm} \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(nT) e^{-2\pi i \nu nT} \\ &\quad \text{↑ a multiple of } 2\pi \\ &= \hat{s}(\nu).\end{aligned}$$

Now, how does $\hat{s}(\nu)$ relate to $s(\nu)$?

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Recall } s(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') e^{2\pi i \nu' t} d\nu' \quad (\text{defn of F.T.}) \\ \therefore s(nT) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') e^{2\pi i \nu' nT} d\nu' \\ \therefore \hat{s}(\nu) &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(nT) e^{-2\pi i \nu nT} \\ &= \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') e^{2\pi i \nu' nT} d\nu' e^{-2\pi i \nu nT} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\pi i (\nu - \nu') nT} d\nu'\end{aligned}$$

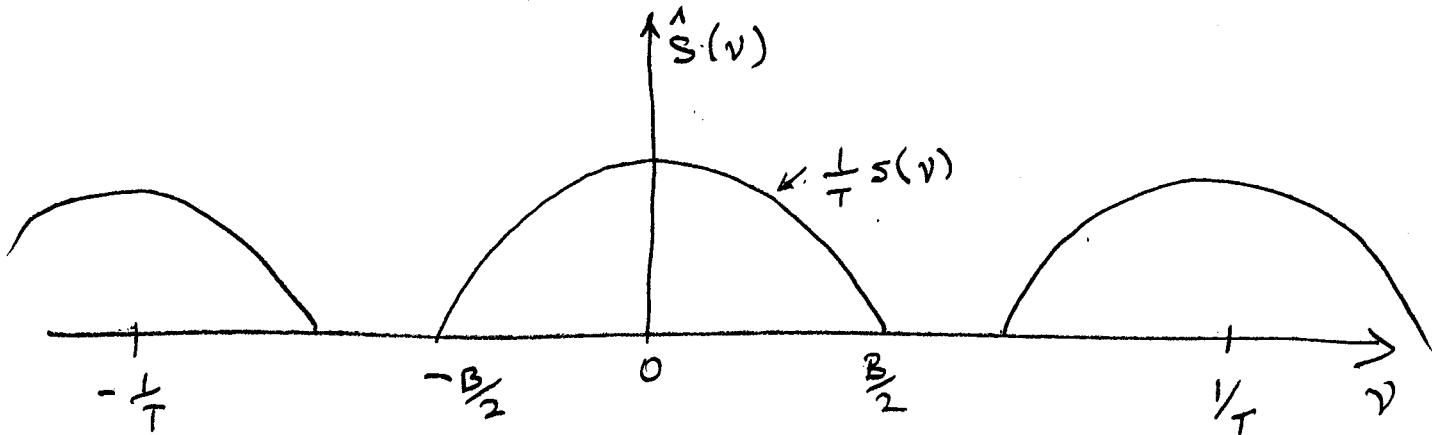
Now, it can be shown that: $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\nu - \frac{n}{T}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{2\pi i (n/T)\nu}$

So we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{s}(\nu) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(\nu' - \nu - \frac{n}{T}) d\nu' \\ &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu') \delta(\nu' - \nu - \frac{n}{T}) d\nu' \\ &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu + \frac{n}{T})\end{aligned}$$

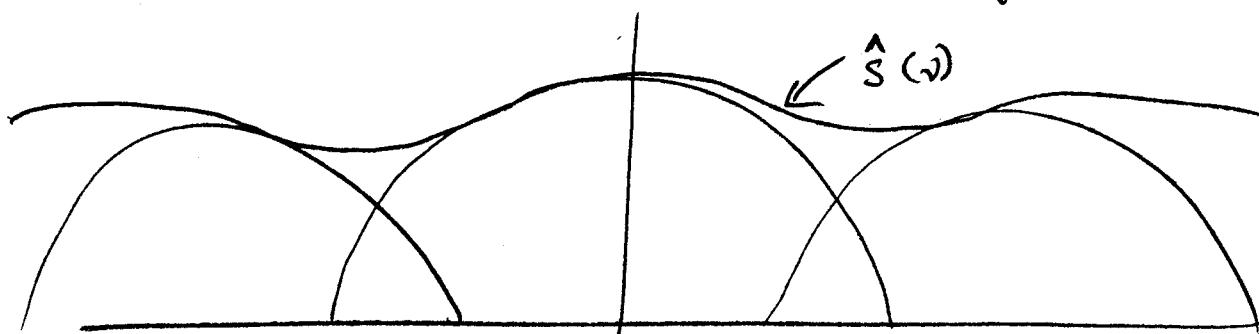
= $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} s(\nu - \frac{m}{T})$ if you prefer

so $\hat{s}(v)$ is just $s(v)$ scaled by $\frac{1}{T}$ and repeated with a frequency shift $\frac{m}{T}$ where $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$



In the above graph, the sampling rate, $1/T$, is chosen to be bigger than the bandwidth, B , of $s(v)$. This is called oversampling.

So you can see that as long as $\frac{1}{T} \geq B$, then we can reconstruct $s(v)$ from $\hat{s}(v)$, i.e. the periodic parts of $\hat{s}(v)$ don't overlap and distort $\hat{s}(v)$. If $\frac{1}{T} < B$, we'd get

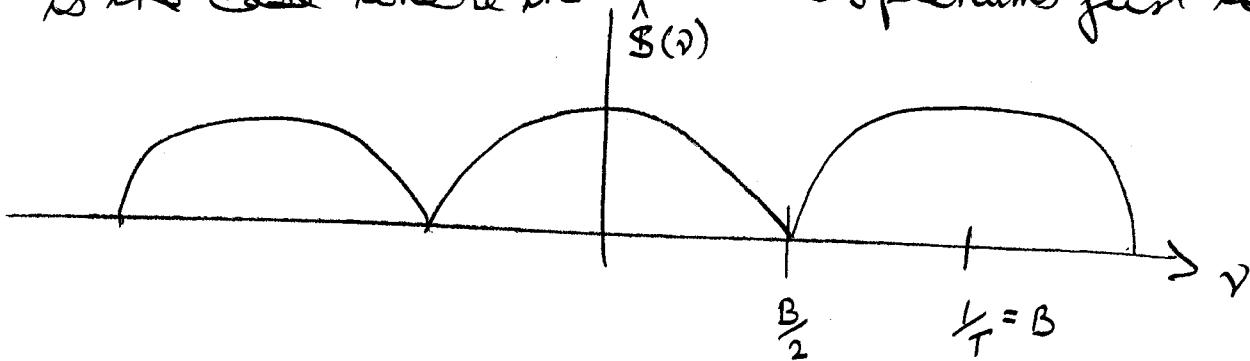


and we couldn't get $s(v)$ out of $\hat{s}(v)$.

This case is called undersampled and the signal "folds back" on itself.

The distortion of $\hat{S}(v)$ when $\frac{1}{T} < B$ is called aliasing.

The case of $\frac{1}{T} = B$ is called the critically sampled rate or the Nyquist sampling rate. It is the case where the periodic spectrums just touch.



We see that we must sample at twice the highest frequency in the signal ($\frac{B}{2}$).

To avoid aliasing we can either increase our sampling rate or filter S so that it contains no frequencies $> \frac{1}{2T}$, eg if we sample once per millisecond ($v = 1\text{ kHz}$), then the signal should not have any significant power in frequency components above 500 Hz .

6.6 The Similarity Theorem

(James
2.6 + 2.6.1
omitted)

$$\text{If } f(t) \rightleftharpoons F(v)$$

$$\text{then } f(at) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{|a|} F(v/a)$$

Proof:

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

if $a > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{F.T. of } f(at) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(at) e^{2\pi i v t} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t') e^{2\pi i v \frac{t'}{a}} dt' \quad (\text{where } t' = at) \\ &= \frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t') e^{2\pi i v' t'} dt' \quad (\text{where } v' = v/a) \\ &= \frac{1}{a} F(v') = \frac{1}{a} F(v/a) \end{aligned}$$

if $a < 0$, then $t' = at$ ($= -3t$, say, to illustrate)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{+ F.T. of } f(at) &= \int_{-\infty}^{-\infty} f(t') e^{-2\pi i v \frac{t'}{3}} dt' / (-3) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(-t') e^{+2\pi i v' t'} dt' \quad (\text{where } v' = -\frac{v}{3}) \\ &= \frac{1}{|a|} F(v/a) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore f(at) \rightleftharpoons \left| \frac{1}{a} \right| F(v/a)$$

Note: Stretching the time scale shortens the freq. scale

6.7 Recap

Addition: $f_1(t) + f_2(t) \rightleftharpoons F_1(\nu) + F_2(\nu)$

Shift: $f_1(t+a) \rightleftharpoons F_1(\nu) e^{2\pi i \nu a}$

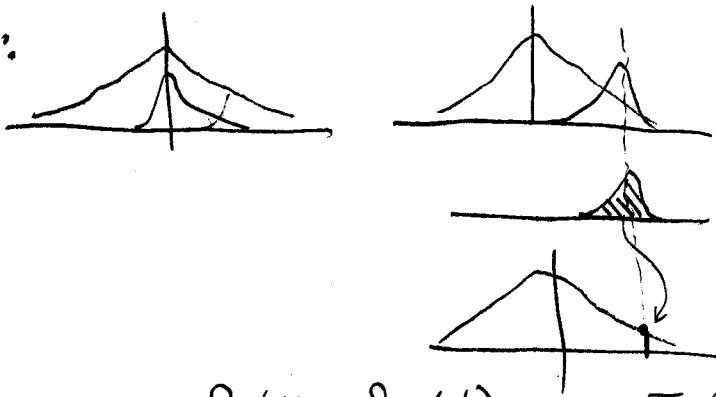
Convolution: $y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(\tau) h(t-\tau) d\tau = x * h$

Commutative: $f_1(t) * f_2(t) = f_2(t) * f_1(t)$

Distributive: $f_1(t) * [f_2(t) + f_3(t)] = f_1(t) * f_2(t) + f_1(t) * f_3(t)$

Associative: $f_1(t) * [f_2(t) * f_3(t)] = [f_1(t) * f_2(t)] * f_3(t)$

Visualization:



Convolution Theorem: $f_1(t) * f_2(t) \rightleftharpoons F_1(\nu) F_2(\nu)$

Examples:

$$f(t) * \delta(t-a) = f(t-a) \rightleftharpoons F(\nu) e^{-2\pi i \nu a}$$

$$[\delta(t-a) + \delta(t+a)] * f(t) \rightleftharpoons 2 \cos \pi \nu a F(\nu)$$

$$e^{-t^2/a^2} * e^{-t^2/b^2} \rightleftharpoons ab \pi e^{-\pi^2 \nu^2 (a^2+b^2)}$$

$$\Pi_a(t) * \Pi_a(t) = \Lambda_a(t) \rightleftharpoons a^2 \operatorname{sinc}^2(\pi \nu a)$$

Autocorrelation: $A(\tau) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) f(t+\tau) dt$

$$\text{F.T.}(A(\tau)) = F^*(\nu) F(\nu) = |F(\nu)|^2$$

$$a(t) * b(t) \rightleftharpoons A(\nu) B(\nu) + a(t) b(t) \rightleftharpoons A(\nu) * B(\nu)$$

$$[a(t) * b(t)] * [c(t) * d(t)] \rightleftharpoons [A(\nu) * B(\nu)] * [C(\nu) * D(\nu)]$$

$$\frac{d^n f}{dt^n} \rightleftharpoons (2\pi\nu)^n F(\nu)$$

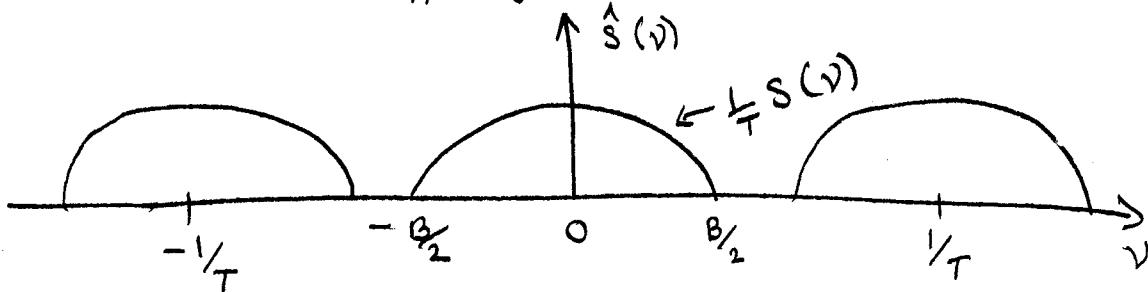
$$\frac{d}{dt} [f_1(t) * f_2(t)] = f_1(t) * \frac{d f_2(t)}{dt} = \frac{d f_1(t)}{dt} * f_2(t)$$

Power Theorem: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) g^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(v)^* G(v) dv$

$$+ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) f^*(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |F(v)|^2 dv$$

Sampling:

$$\hat{s}(v) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} s(v + n/T)$$



$1/T > B$ oversampled

$= B$ critically sampled

$< B$ undersampled \rightarrow aliasing

(distortion)

Need to sample at $2 \times$ highest frequency ($B/2$).

Similarity: $f(at) \Rightarrow 1/a F(v/a)$