

Fourier Analysis and Signal Processing

John T. Whelan

School of Gravitational Waves, Warsaw, 2013 July 4

1 Continuous Fourier Transforms

You're probably familiar with the continuous Fourier transform

$$\tilde{x}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt x(t) e^{-i2\pi f(t-t_0)} \quad (1.1)$$

and its inverse

$$x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df \tilde{x}(f) e^{i2\pi f(t-t_0)} \quad (1.2)$$

Notes:

- Lots of conventions, but note using f instead of ω gets rid of annoying 2π normalizations.
- If $x(t)$ is really a function of time, the origin/epoch t_0 is arbitrary and has no physical meaning. If it's a function of time *difference*, then $t_0 = 0$ makes sense.

The identity

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df e^{i2\pi f(t-t')} = \delta(t-t') \quad (1.3)$$

is useful for proving properties of continuous Fourier transforms.

2 Discrete Fourier Transforms

Real data is neither continuous nor infinite in duration. Consider discretely-sampled time series data of duration $T = N\delta t$:

$$x_j = x(t_j) = x(t + j\delta t) \quad j = 0, 1, \dots, N-1 \quad (2.1)$$

Its discrete Fourier transform is

$$\hat{x}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j e^{-i2\pi f_k(t_j-t_0)} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} x_j e^{-i2\pi jk/N} \quad (2.2)$$

where $f_k = k\delta f$, and

$$\delta f \delta t = \frac{\delta t}{T} = \frac{1}{N} . \quad (2.3)$$

We can define \hat{x}_k for any integer k , but there are only N independent values, thanks to the identifications

$$\hat{x}_{N+k} = \hat{x}_k \quad \text{always} \quad (2.4a)$$

$$\hat{x}_{-k} = \hat{x}_k^* \quad \text{if } \{x_j\} \text{ real} \quad (2.4b)$$

This means, for a real time series $\{x_j\}$, the N real numbers in the Fourier domain are (assuming N even)

- 1 real value x_0
- $\frac{N}{2} - 2$ complex values $\{x_k | k = 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2} - 1\}$
- 1 real value $x_{-N/2} = x_{N/2}$

The identity

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^{i2\pi(j-\ell)k/N} = N \delta_{j,\ell \bmod N} \quad (2.5)$$

shows us the inverse transform

$$x_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{x}_k e^{i2\pi jk/N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2}^{N/2-1} \hat{x}_k e^{i2\pi jk/N} \quad (2.6)$$

If we consider (2.2) to be an approximation of the integral in (1.1), we'd identify

$$\delta t \hat{x}_k \sim \tilde{x}(f_k) \quad (2.7)$$

If we plug (1.2) into (2.2) we can get the actual formula

$$\delta t \hat{x}_k = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} df \delta_{N,\delta t}(f_k - f) \tilde{h}(f) \quad (2.8)$$

with a kernel

$$\delta_{N,\delta t}(x) = \delta t \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{-i2\pi j \delta t x} \quad (2.9)$$

this is not quite a Dirac delta function for two reasons:

1. It is periodic with period $\frac{1}{\delta t}$, so it's peaked at $x = 0$, $x = \frac{1}{\delta t}$, $x = -\frac{1}{\delta t}$, etc.
2. It has an oscillatory "ringing" behavior around its peaks.

The second point is related to an issue known as spectral leakage which we won't go into; the first is known as aliasing, and it means that actually $\delta t \hat{x}_k$ is a sum of not only $\tilde{h}(f_k)$ but also $\tilde{h}(f_k + \frac{1}{\delta t})$, $\tilde{h}(f_k - \frac{1}{\delta t}) = \tilde{h}^*(\frac{1}{\delta t} - f_k)$, etc. This means that to avoid confusion of different frequency components, the original time series $h(t)$ should have undergone some analog processing so that $\tilde{h}(f)$ is negligible unless

$$-\frac{1}{2\delta t} < f < \frac{1}{2\delta t} \quad (2.10)$$

which defines the Nyquist frequency $f_{\text{Ny}} = \frac{1}{2\delta t}$ which is half the sampling rate $\frac{1}{\delta t}$.

3 Random Data

We'll often be interested in cases where the data $\{x_i\}$ are random with some mean and variance defined by the expectation values

$$E[x_j] = \mu_j \quad (3.1)$$

$$E[x_j x_\ell] = \sigma_{j\ell}^2 \quad (3.2)$$

If the data are Gaussian, these are enough to define a probability density

$$P(\mathbf{x}) = (\det 2\pi\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{-2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right) \quad (3.3)$$

where \mathbf{x} and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ are column vectors made up out of $\{x_j\}$ and $\{\mu_j\}$, respectively, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$ is a matrix made of $\{\sigma_{j\ell}\}$ and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{-2}$ is its inverse. For simplicity we'll assume the data have zero mean. We'll also start in the continuous picture; the random process associated with $x(t)$ is stationary if

$$E[x(t), x(t')] = K_x(t - t') \quad (3.4)$$

which defines the autocorrelation function $K_x(t-t')$ (in general it would have to be written $K_x(t, t')$). The Fourier transform of the autocorrelation function is the two-sided power spectral density

$$S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tau K_x(\tau) e^{-i2\pi f\tau} \quad (3.5)$$

We can use (1.3) to show that, formally,

$$E [\tilde{x}(f')^* \tilde{x}(f)] = \delta(f - f') S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(f) \quad (3.6)$$

Since $S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(f) = S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(-f)$, for real $x(t)$, define one-sided PSD

$$S_x(f) = \begin{cases} S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(0) & f = 0 \\ S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(-f) + S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(f) & f > 0 \end{cases} \quad (3.7)$$

Unfortunately (?) this is what most GW observers mean by PSD, so formulas have an extra factor of two ($S_x(f) = 2S_x^{2\text{-sided}}(f)$), e.g.,

$$E [\tilde{x}(f)^* \tilde{x}(f)] = \delta(f - f') \frac{S_x(f)}{2} \quad (3.8)$$

We can translate this into a discrete Fourier transform; just as $\hat{x}_k \sim \tilde{x}(f_k)$, we can show

$$E [|\hat{x}_k|^2] \sim \frac{N}{2\delta t} S_x(f_k) \quad (3.9)$$

with the usual caveats about leakage and aliasing. Now consider the case of zero-mean Gaussian data: let $\hat{x}_k = \xi_k + i\eta_k$ and treat $\xi_0, \{\xi_k, \eta_k | k = 1 \dots \frac{N}{2} - 1\}, \xi_{N/2}$ as independent and Gaussian with

$$E [\xi_k^2] = E [\eta_k^2] = \sigma_k^2 = \frac{N}{4\delta t} S_x(f_k) \quad (3.10)$$

so probability density is

$$P(\{\xi_k, \eta_k | k = 1 \dots \frac{N}{2} - 1\}) = \prod_{k=1}^{N/2-1} \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_k^2} \exp\left(-\frac{\xi_k^2}{2\sigma_k^2} - \frac{\eta_k^2}{2\sigma_k^2}\right) \propto \exp(\Lambda) \quad (3.11)$$

with log-likelihood

$$\Lambda \sim - \sum_{k=1}^{N/2-1} \frac{2\delta t}{N} \frac{|\hat{x}_k|^2}{S_x(f_k)} \sim - \sum_{k=1}^{N/2-1} 2\delta f \frac{|\tilde{x}(f_k)|^2}{S_x(f_k)} \sim -2 \int_0^\infty df \frac{|\tilde{x}(f)|^2}{S_x(f)} \quad (3.12)$$

This means

$$P(x) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2}\langle x|x \rangle} \quad (3.13)$$

where the inner product is

$$\langle y|z \rangle = 4 \operatorname{Re} \int_0^\infty df \frac{\tilde{y}^*(f) \tilde{z}(f)}{S_x(f)} \quad (3.14)$$

The unfamiliar factor of 4 is one factor of 2 because the integral is only over positive frequencies and one because of the use of the one-sided power spectral density.

If the data vary slowly over the observation time, it may be useful to divide it into pieces of length T and Fourier transform each of them

$$\tilde{x}_I(f) = \int_{t_{I0}}^{t_{I0}+T} dt x(t) e^{-i2\pi f(t-t_{I0})} \quad (3.15)$$

In principle, the statistical properties of different segments will be related because of the autocorrelation function $K(t-t')$. But if the correlation length—the time over which $K(\tau)$ is non-negligible—is small compared to T , we can neglect this, and the log likelihood function would become $P(x) \propto e^{\Lambda(x)}$ with

$$\Lambda = -2 \operatorname{Re} \sum_I \int_0^{f_{\text{Ny}}} df \frac{|\tilde{x}_I(f)|^2}{S_I(f)} \quad (3.16)$$