

**Solution Set for Homework #2 on Fourier Series**

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1. **Prologue:** This problem reviews concepts introduced in the last homework, and shows how you can find the spectra for simple signals without calculating the full Fourier transform.

**Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{a) } x(t) &= 10 + 20 \cos(2\pi(100)t + \pi/4) + 10 \cos(2\pi(250)t) \\ &= 10 + 20(e^{j(200\pi t + \pi/4)} + e^{-j(200\pi t + \pi/4)})/2 + 10(e^{j2\pi 250t} + e^{-j2\pi 250t})/2 \\ &= 10 + 10e^{j\pi/4} e^{j200\pi t} + 10e^{-j\pi/4} e^{-j200\pi t} + 5e^{j2\pi 250t} + 5e^{-j2\pi 250t} \end{aligned}$$

Now, the fundamental frequency of the signal is  $\text{gcd}(100,250) = 50\text{Hz}$ .

$$f_0 = 50 \text{ Hz.}$$

$$N = f_{\text{max}}/f_0 = 250 \text{ Hz} / 50 \text{ Hz} = 5$$

As we can see above, the non-zero spectral components occur at  $k = 0, k = \pm N$  and

$$k = \pm 100\text{Hz}/f_0 = \pm 2$$

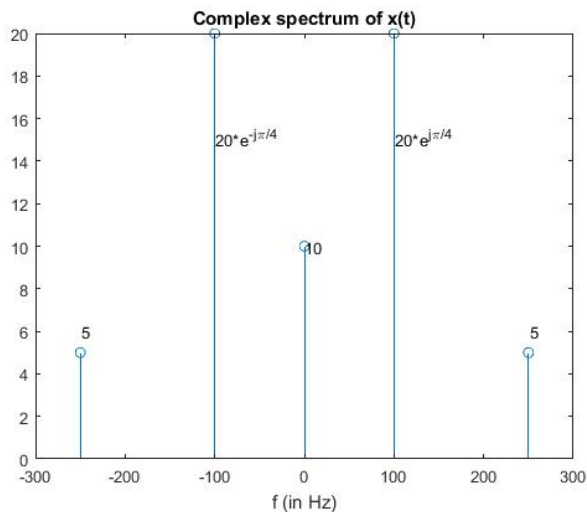
From the equation above, we can read off the values of the  $a_k$ 's (the values not specified below are all zero):

$$a_0 = 10, a_2 = 10e^{j\pi/4}, a_{-2} = 10e^{-j\pi/4}, a_5 = 5, a_{-5} = 5$$

b) As shown above, the signal is periodic, with a fundamental frequency of  $f_0 = 50\text{Hz}$ .

The fundamental period is thus  $1/f_0 = 0.02\text{s}$

c) Here's the plot of the spectrum



**Epilogue:** In part (a), the Fourier coefficient  $a_2$  is the conjugate of  $a_{-2}$ , and likewise for  $a_5$  and  $a_{-5}$ . Since each pair of Fourier coefficients for  $k \neq 0$  has conjugate symmetry, and since  $a_0$  is always real-valued, the signal  $x(t)$  must be real-valued, and it is.

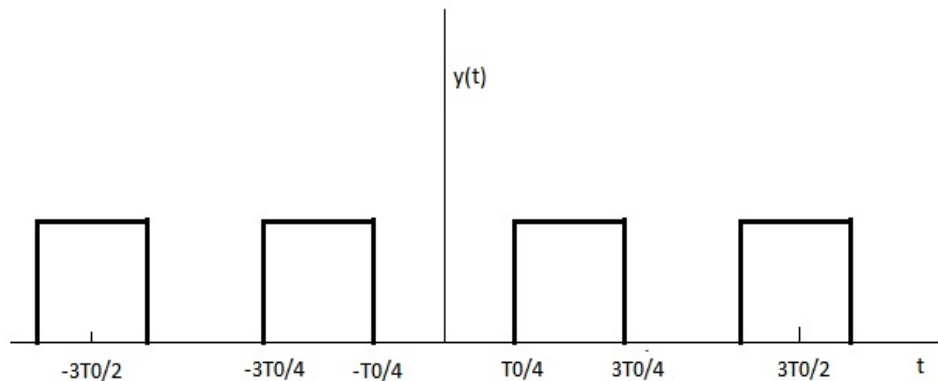
2. **Prologue:** This problem uses the Fourier analysis equation (Equation 3.26 in the book), and asks you to find the complex coefficients of the spectral lines for a square wave. A part of the question asks you to compute the coefficients of a time shifted version of a base signal, which uses some of the most important properties of the Fourier transform & series.

**Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{a) } a_k &= 1/T_0 \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x(t) e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt, \quad \omega_0 = 2\pi/T_0, k \neq 0 \\
 &= 1/T_0 \int_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} e^{-jk\omega_0 t} dt \\
 &= \frac{1}{T_0} \cdot \frac{-1}{jk\omega_0} \cdot e^{-jk\omega_0 t} \Big|_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} \\
 &= \frac{1}{T_0} \cdot \frac{-1}{jk\omega_0} \cdot (e^{-jk\omega_0 T_0/4} - e^{jk\omega_0 T_0/4}) \\
 &= \frac{1}{T_0} \cdot \frac{2}{k\omega_0} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{k\omega_0 T_0}{4}\right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{2\pi k}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right) \quad (\text{Substituting the value of } \omega_0)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_0 &= 1/T_0 \int_{-T_0/2}^{T_0/2} x(t) dt \\
 &= 1/T_0 \int_{-T_0/4}^{T_0/4} dt = \frac{1}{T_0} \cdot \frac{T_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \\
 \text{So, } a_0 &= \frac{1}{2}, a_k = \frac{1}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right), k \neq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

b) The amplitude of the rectangular pulses below is 2.



From P-3.14, we know that the Fourier coefficients scale as follows:

$$x(t) \rightarrow a_k \quad \Rightarrow M x(t) \rightarrow M a_k \quad (1)$$

$$x(t) \rightarrow a_k \quad \Rightarrow x(t-t_0) \rightarrow a_k e^{-jk\omega_0 t_0} \quad \text{hello} \quad (2)$$

Applying (1) and (2) to the coefficients derived in the previous part, we get the coefficients  $b_k$  for the Fourier series of  $y(t)$ :

$$b_0 = 1, b_k = \frac{2}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right) \cdot e^{-jk\left(\frac{2\pi}{T_0}\right)T_0/2} = \frac{2}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right) \cdot e^{-jk\pi} = (-1)^k \cdot \frac{2}{k\pi} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi k}{2}\right)$$

c) Solution #1: To plot  $x(t)$ , we can add up shifted rectangular pulses

In MATLAB, the `rectpuls(x)` command has value 1 for  $x$  in  $[-0.5, 0.5)$ . Pulse width is 1.

For  $t$  in  $[-T_0/4, 3T_0/4)$ , our pulse is one for  $t$  in  $[-T_0/4, T_0/4)$ . Pulse width is  $T_0/2$ .

The MATLAB command would be `rectpuls(t / (T0/2));`

For  $t$  in  $[3T_0/4, 7T_0/4)$ , our pulse is shifted right by  $T_0$ : `rectpuls((t-T0) / (T0/2));`

We can add up each shifted pulse to define our signal over a finite interval of time.

```

f0 = 440;
T0 = 1/f0;
fs = 44100;
tmax = 3;
t = -T0/4 : 1/fs : tmax-T0/4;
timeoffsets = 0 : T0 : tmax;
x = zeros(1,length(t));
for t0 = timeoffsets
    x = x + rectpuls((t - t0) / (T0/2));
end
sound(x, fs) % Plays x(t)
x1 = cos(2*pi*f0*t);
pause(tmax+1);
sound(x1, fs); % Plays cosine at frequency f0

```

**Solution #2:** To plot  $x(t)$ , we could convert a sine wave to a rectangular pulse.

The sine wave oscillates from -1 to 1 inclusive.

The MATLAB function `sign(x)` returns 1 if  $x > 0$ , 0 if  $x = 0$  and -1 if  $x < 0$ .

For the square wave, we'd like to have amplitude values in the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

We can take the output of the sign function, add 1, and divide by 2 to get the values in  $[0, 1]$ .

```

f0 = 440;
T0 = 1/f0;
fs = 44100;
tmax = 3;
t = -T0/4 : 1/fs : tmax-T0/4;
sineWave = sin(2*pi*f0*(t + T0/4));
sq_wave = sign(sineWave);
x2 = (1 + sq_wave)/2;
sound(x2, fs);
x1 = cos(2*pi*f0*t);
pause(tmax+1);
sound(x1, fs);

```

Compared to a cosine at a single frequency,  $x(t)$  has more harmonics, leading to a 'richer' sound, whereas the cosine has just one frequency, which sounds 'thinner'.

**Epilogue:** Here we see that even a "simple" signal in the time domain (square wave), has an infinite number of harmonics in it. This shows an instance of a general rule of thumb, signals are usually easier to manipulate mathematically in the time or frequency domain.

3. **Prologue:** This problem introduces the chirp signal (Section 3-8), and the concept of instantaneous frequency. Chirp signals are widely used in audio, sonar, cellular, and other systems. More about that in the epilogue.

**Solution:**

$$\psi(t) = \alpha t^2 + \beta t + \phi$$

$$\omega(t) = d\psi(t)/dt = 2\alpha t + \beta$$

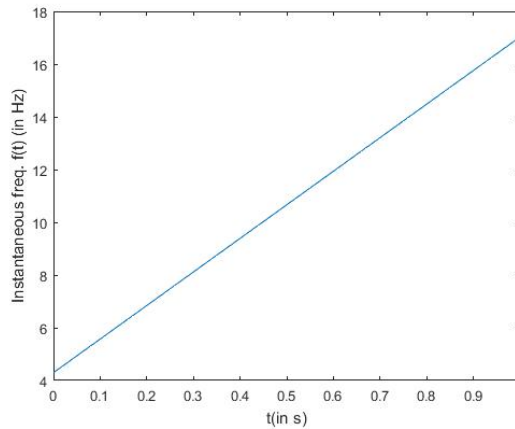
Starting frequency  $\omega_1 = \omega(0) = \beta$  rad/s.

Ending frequency  $\omega_2 = \omega(T_2) = 2\alpha T_2 + \beta$  rad/s.

b)  $\psi(t) = 40t^2 + 27t + 13$

$\omega(t) = d\psi(t)/dt = 80t + 27 \text{ rad/s.}$

c) The time-frequency plot over  $0s \leq t \leq 1s$  follows:



d) For  $\psi(t) = \alpha t^2 + \beta t + \phi$  over  $0 \leq t \leq T_2$ , instantaneous frequencies go from  $\beta$  rad/s to  $2\alpha T_2 + \beta$  rad/s from part (a). So, for  $\alpha = 800\pi$ ,  $\beta = 540\pi$ ,  $\phi = 260\pi$  and  $T_2 = 3s$ , the instantaneous frequencies go from  $540\pi$  to  $5340\pi$  rad/s, or from 270 to 2670 Hz. The maximum frequency  $f_{max}$  is 2670 Hz. The sampling rate  $f_s > 2 f_{max}$  and also needs to be a sampling rate supported by the audio playback system.

```
fs = 44100;
Ts = 1 / fs;
t = 0: Ts : 3;
y = real(exp(j.*(800.*pi.*t.^2+540.*pi.*t+260.*pi)));
sound(y, fs)
```

As expected, the signal shows linearly increasing frequency with time. Although one might be able to detect that the increase is linear, one should be able to hear an increase.

**Epilogue:** In audio systems, a chirp can be used to sweep through a range of audible frequencies to measure the sound quality. In active sonar systems, a chirp is transmitted over acoustic (sound) frequencies using an underwater speaker and the sonar receiver uses a microphone to listen for the return of the chirp signal to determine the location (angle, distance) of objects in the environment; in this context, the chirp is often called a ‘ping’. In cellular systems, a transmitter sends a complex-valued chirp signal, a.k.a. a Zadoff-Chu sequence, and a receiver can use the received signal to estimate and compensate for the distortion in the channel. A chirp signal can also be used to estimate Doppler shift.

The concept of instantaneous frequency of a sinusoid varying with time is used extensively to carry a message signal in the frequency content of a sinusoid instead of in the amplitude. Examples include frequency modulation and phase modulation for analog continuous-time message signals, and frequency-shift keying and phase-shift keying for digital discrete-time messages. Phase-shift keying has recently gained a lot of attention in low-power Internet of Things sensors because of its incredible power efficiency in transmitting bits over the air.

4. **Prologue:** This problem shows the effect of various mathematical operations on the frequency spectrum.

**Solution:**

a)

```
fs = 8000;
f0 = 440;
t = 0:1/fs:2;           % Generating vectors to play sound for 2s
x = cos(2*pi*f0*t);
y1 = x.*cos(2*pi*220*t);
y2 = x.^2;
y3 = x.^3;
sound(x, fs); pause(4);
sound(y1, fs); pause(4);
soundsc(y2, fs); pause(4);
sound(y3, fs);
```

$$y(t) = \cos(2\pi 440t) \cos(2\pi 220t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= (e^{j2\pi 440t} + e^{-j2\pi 440t})(e^{j2\pi 220t} + e^{-j2\pi 220t})/4 \\ &= (e^{j2\pi 660t} + e^{-j2\pi 220t} + e^{j2\pi 220t} + e^{-j2\pi 660t})/4 \\ &= (\cos(2\pi 660t) + \cos(2\pi 220t))/2 \end{aligned}$$

So,  $y(t)$  contains the frequencies  $\pm 660\text{Hz}$  and  $\pm 220\text{Hz}$ .

As expected, we can hear a higher frequency sound (which is provided by the 660Hz component). The sound feels as if more than one frequency is present (less 'thin' than a pure cosine). Please note that 660 Hz is a harmonic of 220 Hz, and each individual may have a different perception of a tone and its harmonic.

b)

$$y(t) = \cos^2(2\pi 440t)$$

$$y(t) = (\cos(2\pi 880t) + 1)/2$$

$$\text{(Using the trig. identity } \cos(2\theta) = 2\cos^2(\theta) - 1\text{)}$$

So,  $y(t)$  contains the frequencies  $\pm 880\text{Hz}$ .

Alternatively,

$$y(t) = \cos^2(2\pi 440t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= (e^{j2\pi 440t} + e^{-j2\pi 440t})^2/4 \\ &= \frac{e^{j2\pi 880t} + e^{-j2\pi 880t} + 2}{4} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\cos(2\pi 880t)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(Using the binomial expansion for } (a+b)^2 = a^2 + b^2 + 2ab\text{)}$$

We hear a higher frequency than what we got for part(a), which is provided by the 880Hz component. It sounds 'thin', which is because just one frequency is present in the waveform.

c)

$$y(t) = \cos^3(2\pi 440t)$$

$$y(t) = (\cos(2\pi 1320t) + 3\cos(2\pi 440t))/4$$

(Using the trig. identity  $\cos(3\theta) = 4\cos^3(\theta) - 3\cos(\theta)$ )

Alternatively, one can use phasors to work the problem with needing a trig identity:

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= (e^{j2\pi 440t} + e^{-j2\pi 440t})^3 / 8 \\ &= \frac{e^{j2\pi 1320t} + e^{-j2\pi 1320t} + 3e^{j2\pi 440t} + 3e^{-j2\pi 440t}}{8} \\ &= \frac{3\cos(2\pi 440t)}{4} + \frac{\cos(2\pi 1320t)}{4} \end{aligned}$$

(Using the binomial expansion for  $(a+b)^3 = a^3 + b^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2$ )

So,  $y(t)$  contains the frequencies  $\pm 1320\text{Hz}$  and  $\pm 440\text{Hz}$ .

This sounds as if it has a frequency between the signals in parts (a) & (b). This is probably because the component at 1320Hz has a relatively low power. This puts more of the signal power in the lower frequency (400Hz), making the sound seem low pitched.

**Epilogue:** The expansions above could also have been achieved by multiplying the terms by hand. The binomial expansion just provides a short-cut, and cuts down on algebraic mistakes. For reference, the binomial expansion formula is:

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k b^{n-k}, \quad \forall n \in W \text{ (:= set of whole numbers)}$$

The spectral effects of multiplying signals in time will be revisited later, in much more detail, while studying the properties of continuous-time Fourier transforms.