# Are you getting the right signal?

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1 Introduction



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Vectors in a nutshell



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Vectors in a nutshell
- 3 Paradigm shift



4 Dot product

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Vectors in a nutshell
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- 1 Introduction
- 2 Vectors in a nutshell
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- 4 Dot product
- 5 Signal processing



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- 2 Vectors in a nutshell
- 3 Paradigm shift

- 4 Dot product
- 5 Signal processing
- 6 Fourier series





# Music to your ears

I used to wonder how an entire orchestra can fit into my head-set







# Music to your ears

Let us try to ...

Explain how this works and get to the mathematics of it.

# Music to your ears

What is perhaps surprising is that it has to do with ...



#### .....

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What is perhaps surprising is that it has to do with  $\dots$ 

#### **VECTORS**

### Part I

Vectorial background



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The zero vector behaves like 0 in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

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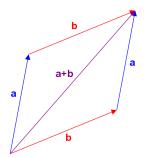
Negative vectors behave like negative numbers in  $\mathbb{R}$ .



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#### Vector addition, +



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#### Example

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Then, for any vector  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$ , we have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$



For any vector 
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So, the set

$$\{i, j, k\}$$

forms the basic building blocks - basis.



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$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} \coloneqq \frac{1}{|\mathbf{a}|} \mathbf{a} \text{ or } \frac{\mathbf{a}}{|\mathbf{a}|}.$$

Here, |a| is the magnitude or length of a.

Vectors in a nutshell

# **Vectors**

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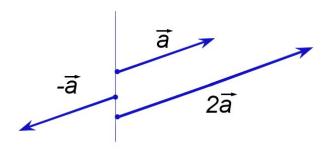


Figure:  $\alpha = -1, 2$ 



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Another timely example is in place:

#### Example

As  $\lambda$  varies, the point P with position vector

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

traces out the straight line through A(1,2,-1) parallel to  $\begin{pmatrix} -1\\-2\\3 \end{pmatrix}$ .





Figure: Who are these?

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#### Paradigm shift

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We make a new definition out of properties observed in a special case!



### Example

Let  $\mathcal C$  be the set of continuous real-valued functions

$$f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$$
.

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Define + on  $\mathcal{C}$  as follows:

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Define  $\cdot$  on  $\mathcal{C}$  as follows:

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Graphically, addition can be interpreted below:

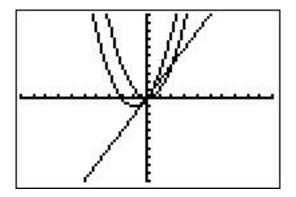


Figure: Pointwise addition

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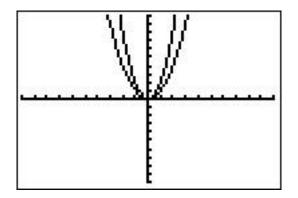


Figure: Pointwise scaling

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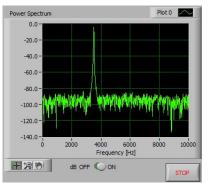
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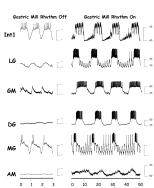
$$-f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, \ x \mapsto -f(x), \ x \in \mathbb{R}.$$



# Paradigm shift

Physical variations such as signals and seismic waves





are actually (continuous) functions of time and space.



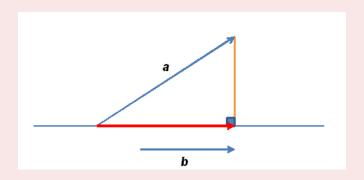
### Motivation

Because an arbitrary continuous signal is hard to code mathematically, it may perhaps be good to break it down into (several) basic components.

## Projection problem

### Question

Find the projection of the vector  $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  onto the vector  $\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k})$ .



## Projection problem

To tackle the projection problem, we need a piece of vector machinery called

**Dot Product.** 



### Definition (Dot product)

The dot product (a.k.a. scalar product or inner product) of two vectors  $\mathbf{a} = a_1 \mathbf{i} + a_2 \mathbf{j} + a_3 \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = b_1 \mathbf{i} + b_2 \mathbf{j} + b_3 \mathbf{k}$  is defined to be the real scalar

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It appears that the above definition of  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$  is dependent on the coordinate basis  $\{\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}\}$ .



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Writing 
$$\mathbf{a} = a_1 \mathbf{i} + a_2 \mathbf{j} + a_3 \mathbf{k}$$
 and  $\mathbf{b} = b_1 \mathbf{i} + b_2 \mathbf{j} + b_3 \mathbf{k}$ ,

$$\vec{AB} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a} = (b_1 - a_1)\mathbf{i} + (b_2 - a_2)\mathbf{j} + (b_3 - a_3)\mathbf{k}.$$



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Using the Pythagoras Theorem,

$$AB^2 = (b_1 - a_1)^2 + (b_2 - a_2)^2 + (b_3 - a_3)^2.$$



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This yields

$$AB^{2} = (a_{1}^{2} + a_{2}^{2} + a_{3}^{2}) + (b_{1}^{2} + b_{2}^{2} + b_{3}^{2})$$
$$-2\sqrt{a_{1}^{2} + a_{2}^{2} + a_{3}^{2}}\sqrt{b_{1}^{2} + b_{2}^{2} + b_{3}^{2}}\cos\theta$$



Equating the two expressions for  $AB^2$ , we have

$$(b_1 - a_1)^2 + (b_2 - a_2)^2 + (b_3 - a_3)^2 = (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2) + (b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2)$$

$$-2\sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}\sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2}\cos\theta .$$



Expanding the left hand side and cancelling the squares, we have

$$-2(a_1b_1+a_2b_2+a_3b_3)=-2\sqrt{a_1^2+a_2^2+a_3^2}\sqrt{b_1^2+b_2^2+b_3^2}\cos\theta,$$

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Thus,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta$$
.



Given any points O, A and B, all the three quantities

- **■** *OA*,
- OB, and
- ∠AOB

are fixed and thus independent of any coordinated basis.

This then gives rise to a coordinates-independent definition of the dot product.

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### Definition (Dot product)

The dot product of two vectors **a** and **b** is defined to be the real scalar

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#### Theorem

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Let **a** and **b** be given vectors, and the angle between them  $\theta$ . Then we have the following:

**1** 
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} > 0 \iff 0 \le \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$
.

**2** 
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0 \iff \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
.

#### Theorem

Let **a** and **b** be given vectors, and the angle between them  $\theta$ . Then we have the following:

**1** 
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} > 0 \iff 0 \le \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$
.

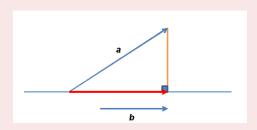
**2** 
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0 \iff \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
.

**3** 
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} < 0 \iff \frac{\pi}{2} < \theta \le \pi$$
.

We are now ready to solve the original projection problem:

#### Question

Find the projection of the vector  $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  onto the vector  $\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k})$ .



### Solution.

By the definition of dot product, we have:

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos \theta,$$

where  $\theta = \angle AOB$ .

#### Solution.

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But we can work out **a** · **b** using their coordinates, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [(2)(1) + (-3)(0) + (1)(-1)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

From the fact that

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}||\mathbf{b}|\cos\theta,$$

the positive value of  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$  implies that

$$\cos \theta > 0$$

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$$\cos \theta > 0 \implies 0 \le \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

So the diagram we drew is correct.

#### Solution.

The length of the projection of a unto b is

$$||\mathbf{a}|\cos\theta| = \left|\mathbf{a}\cdot\frac{\mathbf{b}}{|\mathbf{b}|}\right| = \frac{|\mathbf{a}\cdot\mathbf{b}|}{|\mathbf{b}|} = \frac{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}{1} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2},$$

since **b** is a unit vector.

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since **b** is a unit vector. So, the required projection (vector) is

$$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{k}).$$



#### Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{v_1}, \mathbf{v_2}, \mathbf{v_3}$  be three mutually perpendicular unit vectors. Then any 3D vector  $\mathbf{v}$  can be decomposed into

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{v}_3,$$

where

$$\alpha_k = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}_k, \ k = 1, 2, 3.$$



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#### Proof.

Easy: Just dot the vector equation by  $\mathbf{v}_k$  (k = 1, 2, 3).



### Part II

Applications of vectors

To tell you the truth, we shall be using:

Functions

- Functions
- Graphing techniques



- Functions
- Graphing techniques
- Trigonometry

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- Integration

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which you have learnt or will be learning in H2 Mathematics.



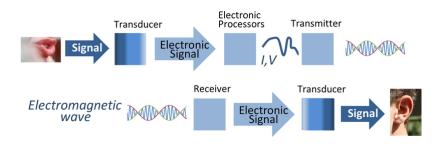


Figure: A diagrammatic summary of signal processing

In this lecture, we only have time to take a glimpse at

Signal → Simpler sine/cosine signals

via Fourier series.

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Signal → Simpler sine/cosine signals

via Fourier series.

But the motivation comes from the reverse direction.

We start with a simple Graphing Calculator activity.

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### GC activity



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■ Y1: 
$$y = -2\sin(t)$$

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- Y4:  $y = -2\sin(t) + \sin(2t) \frac{2}{3}\sin(3t) + \frac{1}{2}\sin(4t)$



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### GC activity

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- Y5:  $y = -2\sin(t) + \sin(2t) \frac{2}{3}\sin(3t) + \frac{1}{2}\sin(4t) \frac{2}{5}\sin(5t)$



## GC Activity

### Exercise

Write down, in summation notation, the Nth function.

## GC Activity

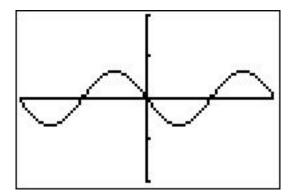
#### Exercise

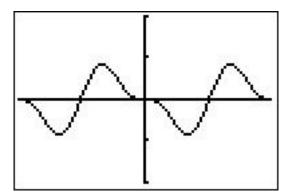
Write down, in summation notation, the Nth function.

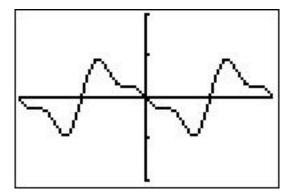
### Solution.

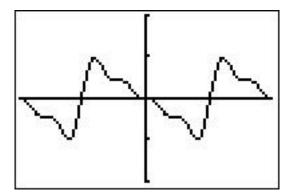
$$f_N(t) = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{2(-1)^n}{n} \sin(nt).$$

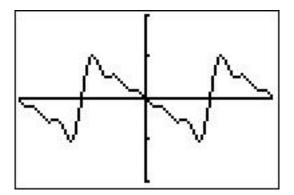


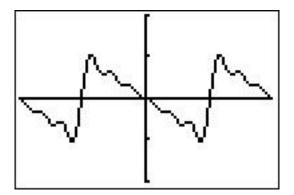












### Question

Where is this sequence of functions limiting to?

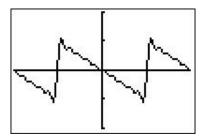


Figure: Graph of  $f_{10}(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{10} \frac{2(-1)^n}{n} \sin(nt)$ 

GC suggests that on the interval  $-\pi \le t \le \pi$  the sequence  $f_n(t)$  tends to

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2(-1)^n}{n} \sin(nt) = -t := f(t),$$

and

$$f(t+2\pi)=f(t).$$



# Problem solving

In order to prove that on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2(-1)^n}{n} \sin(nt) = -t,$$

one may proceed in this way.

### Problem solving

We generalize to the following problem:

#### Problem

Given a function f defined on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , find coefficients  $a_n$ 's and b<sub>n</sub>'s such that

$$f(t) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt).$$

If we treat continuous functions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  as vectors, then looking for  $a_n$ 's and  $b_n$ 's amounts to a projection problem!

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$$f(t) = a_0 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt),$$

where the infinite basis is given by  $\{1, \cos(nt), \sin(nt)\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ .

But recall the solution to the projection problem:

#### Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3$  be three mutually perpendicular unit vectors. Then any 3D vector  $\mathbf{v}$  can be decomposed into

$$\mathbf{v} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \alpha_3 \mathbf{v}_3,$$

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What do the following terms mean in our present context of the vector space of functions?

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- 1 3D
- 2 mutually perpendicular vectors
- 3 unit vectors

The above terms make sense only if we have a sensible way of defining the dot product for the vector space

$$\mathcal{C}[-\pi,\pi] \coloneqq \{f \mid f : [-\pi,\pi] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ is continuous}\}.$$

To do so, one must define the dot product abstractly from its properties.

#### Theorem



#### Theorem

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- 1  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$ .
- $(\alpha \mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = \alpha (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}).$
- 4  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} \ge 0$  with equality if and only if  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$ .



We generalize this to invent a new definition:

### Definition (Dot product space)

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For 3D vectors, the usual dot product has been defined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{u}(1) \\ \mathbf{u}(2) \\ \mathbf{u}(3) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{v}(1) \\ \mathbf{v}(2) \\ \mathbf{v}(3) \end{pmatrix} := \mathbf{u}(1)\mathbf{v}(1) + \mathbf{u}(2)\mathbf{v}(2) + \mathbf{u}(3)\mathbf{v}(3)$$

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Rewriting the above as

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \coloneqq \sum_{i \in \{1,2,3\}} \mathbf{u}(i)\mathbf{v}(i).$$



For functions, the dot product should therefore involve some kind of infinite summation over real numbers, i.e., it should look like:

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$$f \cdot g \coloneqq \sum_{x \in [-\pi,\pi]} f(x)g(x).$$

Big idea is ...

Infinite summation over real numbers is



Big idea is ...

Infinite summation over real numbers is INTEGRATION.



#### Definition (Dot product of functions)

Define the dot product of two functions f and  $g \in C[-\pi, \pi]$  as follows:

$$f \cdot g \coloneqq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) \ dx.$$



With this definition, one can check that all the conditions of a (generalized) dot product are satisfied, i.e.,

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For all functions f, g and h in  $C[-\pi, \pi]$ , and for all real number  $\alpha$ , the following conditions hold:

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#### $\mathsf{Theorem}$

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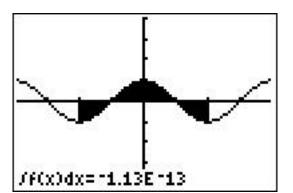
- $\mathbf{3} \ f \cdot (g+h) = f \cdot g + f \cdot h.$
- 4  $f \cdot f \ge 0$  with equality holding if and only if f = 0.

There is something natural about the choice of the functions

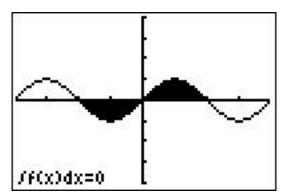
$$1, \cos(nx), \sin(nx), \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

with regards to this dot product of functions.

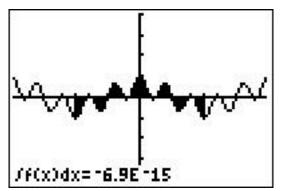
$$1 \cdot \cos(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nx) dx = 0.$$



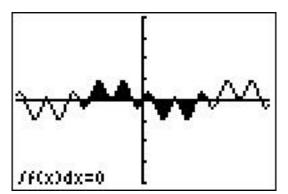
$$1 \cdot \sin(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nx) dx = 0.$$



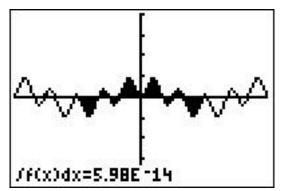
$$\cos(mx)\cdot\cos(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\cos(mx)\cos(nx)dx = 0.$$



$$\cos(mx)\cdot\sin(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\cos(mx)\sin(nx)dx = 0.$$



$$\sin(mx)\cdot\sin(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\sin(mx)\sin(nx)dx = 0.$$



Now we have to check that each of the waves are of unit magnitude.

For the first flat wave, we have:

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$$1 \cdot 1 = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1)(1) dx$$
$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 1 dx$$
$$= 2\pi.$$

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Thus,

$$|1| = \sqrt{1 \cdot 1} = \sqrt{2\pi}.$$



So we obtain the first unit wave:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

For the cosine waves, we have:

For the cosine waves, we have:

$$\cos(nx) \cdot \cos(nx) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(nx) dx$$
$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1 + \cos(2nx)}{2} dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ x + \frac{\sin(2nx)}{2n} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (2\pi)$$
$$= \pi.$$

For the cosine waves, we have:

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$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ x + \frac{\sin(2nx)}{2n} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (2\pi)$$
$$= \pi.$$

Thus,

$$|\cos(nx)| = \sqrt{\pi}$$
.



So we obtain the second class of unit (cosine) waves:

$$\frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \quad n=1,2,3,\cdots$$

Similarly, we obtain the third class of unit (sine) waves:

$$\frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}$$
,  $n=1,2,3,\cdots$ 

We thus obtain the following basis for  $\mathcal{C}[-\pi, \pi]$ :

$$\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty},$$

which are mutually perpendicular unit vectors.

The projection problem of obtain  $a_n$ 's and  $b_n$ 's is easy to solve now.

This is equivalent to solving for  $A_n$ 's and  $B_n$ 's such that

$$f(x) = A_0 \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \left( \frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}} \right) + B_n \left( \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}} \right).$$



To find  $A_0$ , we project f along the flat wave  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ :

$$A_0 = f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx.$$



To find  $A_n$ , we project f along the class of cosine waves  $\frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ :

$$A_n = f \cdot \frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx.$$



To find  $B_n$ , we project f along the class of cosine waves  $\frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ :

$$B_n = f \cdot \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx.$$



#### Definition (Fourier series)

Let f be a continuous function on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

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The Fourier series of f is given by

$$f(x) = A_0 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(A_n \frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}} + B_n \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{\pi}}\right),$$

where

$$A_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx, \ A_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx,$$

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The *Fourier series* of *f* is given by

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)),$$

where

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx, \ a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx,$$

and

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx.$$



#### Example

Consider the function *f* defined by

$$f(t) = -t, \quad -\pi \le t \le \pi.$$

We calculate  $a_n$ 's and  $b_n$ 's as follows.

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} -t dt$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ -\frac{t^2}{2} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= 0.$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} -t \cos(nt) dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} -t \cos(nt) dt$$
$$= 0$$

since the function  $-t\cos(nt)$  is odd, i.e., has rotational symmetry about O (of order 2).

Making use of the result that

$$\frac{d}{dt}(t\cos(nt)) = -nt\sin(nt) + \sin(nt),$$

we evaluate

$$b_{n} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} -t \sin(nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left( [t \cos(nt)]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \left( 2\pi (-1)^{n} - \frac{1}{n} [\sin(nt)]_{-\pi}^{\pi} \right)$$

$$= \frac{2(-1)^{n}}{n}.$$

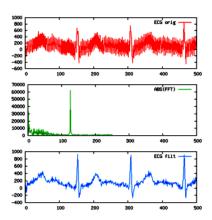


Consequently, we have shown that on  $[-\pi,\pi]$  it holds that

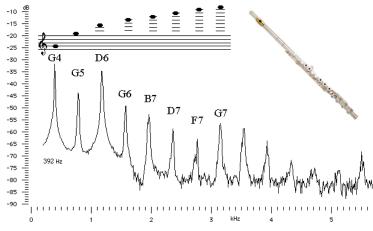
$$-t = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} = \frac{2(-1)^n}{n} \sin(nt),$$

as desired.

Physical signals are in general more irregular such as:



Music also comes in this form:



The theory developed so far guarantees that no matter how irregular the continuous (time dependent) signal is, it can be decomposed into its cosine and sine components of varying amplitudes  $a_n$  and  $b_n$ , depending on the frequency n.



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#### Fourier transform

Time domain → Frequency domain



There is a long way from the orchestra music to your head-set.

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```
Sound waves \longrightarrow Discrete sampling of signals (time domain) \longrightarrow
Discrete data in frequency domain → Transmission/Storage →
                       Decoded sound waves
```



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Sound waves  $\longrightarrow$  Discrete sampling of signals (time domain)  $\longrightarrow$ Discrete data in frequency domain → Transmission/Storage → Decoded sound waves

In practice, the second arrow involved DFT (Discrete Fourier Transform).



Let us see how experience how vectors make music:

http://falstad.com/fourier/



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