The Discrete Fourier Transform

٠

Moritz Diehl

Overview

The Frequency Response Function (FRF)

▲□▶ ▲圖▶ ▲臣▶ ▲臣▶ ―臣 … のへで

- Laplace and Fourier Transforms
- Discrete Fourier Transform
- Aliasing and Leakage Errors
- Multisine Excitation Signals

The Frequency Response Function (FRF)

- ▶ Our aim: get transfer function *G*(*s*) of LTI system
- the magnitudes and phases of G(jω) for different positive frequencies ω form the Bode Diagram
- fundamental fact of LTI systems: sinusoidal inputs $u(t) = \operatorname{Re}\{U \cdot e^{j\omega t}\}$ lead to sinusoidal outputs y(t) with a phase shift and a new magnitude described by $G(j\omega)$:

$$y(t) = \operatorname{Re}\{G(j\omega) \cdot U \cdot e^{j\omega t}\} = |G(j\omega)| \cdot \underbrace{U} \cdot \operatorname{Re}\{e^{j[\omega t + \arg G(j\omega)]}\}$$

• for this reason, $G(j\omega)$ is called the "Frequency Response Function (FRF)"

Sine Wave Testing (Frequency Sweep)

One way to obtain G(jω) for a specific frequency ω is to use a sine wave u(t) = U₀ sin(ωt) as input and record the magnitude Y₀ and phase shift φ of y(t) = Y₀ sin(ωt + φ) to form

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{Y_0}{U_0} e^{j\phi}$$

- a "frequency sweep" goes through all frequencies ω, waits until transients have died out, and records magnitude and phase for each frequency.
- The resulting estimate of the FRF might also be called "estimated transfer function (ETF)" (Robin) or "empirical transfer function estimate (ETFE)" (L. Ljung)
- note that for each new frequency, we have to wait until transients died out. Today, we want to find a more efficient way to estimate the FRF.

Laplace and Fourier Transforms

- Remember: $G(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)}$
- ► Laplace transform G(s) defined for any g(t) which is zero for t < 0:</p>

$$G(s) := \int_0^\infty g(t) e^{-st} \mathrm{d}t = \int_{-\infty}^\infty g(t) e^{-st} \mathrm{d}t$$

► for FRF $G(j\omega)$, we only need imaginary values $s = j\omega$

Here, we have

$$\mathcal{F} \{g\}(\omega) = \left[G(j\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(t) e^{-j\omega t} dt \right]$$

► This expression is identical to "Fourier Transform (FT)", defined for any function <u>f</u> : ℝ → ℝ by

$$\mathcal{F}{f}(\omega) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-j\omega t} \mathrm{d}t$$

Differences of Laplace and Fourier Transform

- both transformations basically contain the same information
- they transform a time signal f(t) from "time domain" into "frequency domain"
- both transformations have inverse transformations that give the original time signal back
- both transformations generate complex valued functions
- Laplace transform has complex input argument S∈ C, while Fourier transform has real ω
- For Laplace transform, all input signals are by definition zero for t < 0, while Fourier transform deals with functions defined for any t ∈ ℝ (i.e. functions with infinite support)
- Laplace transform often used by engineers, Fourier transform more often used by mathematicians and physicists

Inverse Fourier Transform

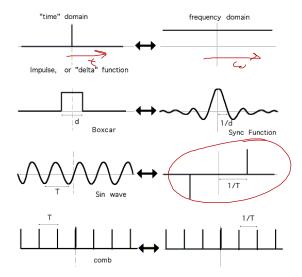
 if F(ω) = F{f}(ω), then f(t) can be recoverd by inverse Fourier transformation F⁻¹ given by:

$$f(t) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}\{F\}(t) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(\omega) \tilde{e}^{j\omega t} \mathrm{d}\omega$$

- Note the similarity of normal and inverse FT: just the sign in the exponent and the factor is different (some definitions even use twice the same factor, ¹/_{√2π}, to make it symmetric)
- inverse FT can be used to construct inverse Laplace transform
- interesting related fact: Dirac-delta function is superposition of all frequencies with equal weight:

$$\delta(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j\omega t} d\omega$$

Fourier Transform: some transformed functions



◆□ > ◆□ > ◆豆 > ◆豆 > ̄豆 = のへで

Estimating the FRF with Fourier Transform

▶ if we have recorded two arbitrary time signals u(t) and y(t), we can use their Fourier transforms to estimate the frequency response function (FRF) by

$$G(j\omega) = rac{\mathcal{F}\{y\}(\omega)}{\mathcal{F}\{u\}(\omega)}$$

 \blacktriangleright this fact is implicitly used in sine wave testing with frequency ω_0

• note: if
$$f_1(t) = \frac{e^{j\omega_0 t}}{2\pi}$$
 then

$$\mathcal{F}{f_1}(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j(\omega_0 - \omega)t} \mathrm{d}t = \delta(\omega - \omega_0)_{\mathcal{C} \neq t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j(\omega_0 - \omega)t} \mathrm{d}t = \delta(\omega - \omega_0)_{\mathcal{C} \neq t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j(\omega_0 - \omega)t} \mathrm{d}t$$

• thus, we have for a real sine: if $f_2(t) = \frac{e^{j\omega_0 t} e^{-j\omega_0 t}}{2\pi j}$ then

$$\mathcal{F}{f_2}(\omega) = \delta(\omega - \omega_0) - \delta(\omega + \omega_0)$$

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆ □▶ ◆ □▶ ○ □ ○ ○ ○ ○

Estimating the FRF with Fourier Transform (cont.)

• in reality, even for sine waves of frequency ω_0 , the signals u(t) and y(t) will have finite duration, and thus the FT finite values $\mathcal{F}\{y\}(\omega_0)$ and $\mathcal{F}\{u\}(\omega_0)$. From these we can compute $G(j\omega_0)$ by

$$G(j\omega_0) = \frac{\mathcal{F}\{y\}(\omega_0)}{\mathcal{F}\{u\}(\omega_0)}$$

- Note: Fourier Transform works with continuous time signals on infinite horizons
- Two questions and answers:
 - 1. How to compute FT in practice? Answer: by the Discrete Fourier Transform.
 - Can we use an input with many frequencies to get many FRF values in a single experiment? Answer: yes, we should then use "multisines".

The Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

- ▶ FT works with continuous time signals on infinite horizons
- Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) works with discrete signals on finite horizons
- ▶ DFT takes any vector of N numbers u(0), u(1),..., u(N − 1) and generates a new vector U(0),..., U(N − 1)) (here we start with index zero for convenience)

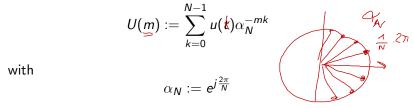
 DFT also has an inverse transformation that recovers the original vector

Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

- one efficient algorithm to compute the DFT is called "fast fourier transform (FFT)"
- the DFT is nearly always computed by the FFT algorithm, therefore many people (and MATLAB) use the word FFT synonymously with DFT
- MATLAB commands fft and ifft work with any vector of *N* complex numbers and compute another vector of *N* complex numbers.
- example: u=randn(10,1); U=fft(u); unew = ifft(U); plot(u,unew)

DFT definition

▶ Definition of the DFT U(0),..., U(N − 1) computed from a vector u(0),..., u(N − 1):



• note that α_N is an *N*-th complex root of 1, i.e.

$$\alpha_N^N = 1$$

▶ also note that $\alpha_N^{-mk} = e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}mk}$ and $\overline{\alpha_N^{-mk}} = \alpha_N^{mk}$

DFT properties

DFT of a real valued signal consists of N complex numbers, but second half of vector are complex conjugates of first half:

$$U(N-m) = \overline{U(m)}$$

Proof:

$$U(N-m) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} u(t) \alpha_N^{-(N-m)k} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} u(t) \alpha_N^{mk} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} u(t) \overline{\alpha_N^{-mk}}$$

example: u=sin(1:0.1:10.1); U=fft(u); subplot(2,1,1);plot(real(U)); subplot(2,1,2); plot(imag(U));

Overview

The Frequency Response Function (FRF)

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三三 のへぐ

- Laplace and Fourier Transforms
- Discrete Fourier Transform
- Aliasing and Leakage Errors
- Multisine Excitation Signals

Comparison of FT and DFT

- FT works on continuous time signals u_c(t) with infinite support
- DFT introduces two approximations:
 - 1. Sampling: DFT works on sampled (discrete time) signals

$$u_d(k) := u_c(k \cdot \Delta t)$$

with Δt the sampling time.

- 2. Windowing: DFT only uses only N samples, i.e. limits the signal to a finite window of horizon length $T = N\Delta t$
- both approximations lead to characteristic errors.

Sampling can lead to Aliasing Errors

- Sampling can introduce so called aliasing errors if the continuous time signal contained too high frequencies
- example: t=[0:0.1:10]'; u1=sin(6*t); u2=sin(20*t); u3=sin(60*t); subplot(3,1,1);plot(t,u1); subplot(3,1,2); plot(t,u2);subplot(3,1,3); plot(t,u3);
- ▶ if we introduce sampling rate f_s = ¹/_{∆t}, then any signal with frequencies higher than half the sampling rate will suffer from aliasing

▶ the limit is called the **Nyquist frequency**: $f_{Nyquist} = \frac{1}{2\Delta t}$ [Hz] or $\omega_{Nyquist} = \frac{2\pi}{2\Delta t}$ [rad / s]

Windowing can lead to "leakage"

- "leakage": DFT spectrum shows frequencies that were not present in original signal, but are close to the true frequencies
- example (leakage): t=[0:49]'; u=sin(2*pi/50*20.5*t); U=fft(u); plot(abs(U));
- example (no leakage): t=[0:49]'; u=sin(2*pi/50*20*t); U=fft(u); plot(abs(U));
- comparison of FT and DFT

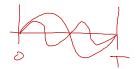
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_c(t) \cdot e^{-j\omega t} \, \mathrm{d}t \approx \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} u_d(k) \cdot \underbrace{e^{-j\omega(k \cdot \Delta t)}}_{=e^{-j\frac{2\pi}{N}km}} \cdot \Delta t$$

here, the FT and DFT expressions are only similar, if

$$-j\omega(k \cdot \Delta t) = -j\frac{2\pi}{N}km \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \omega = m\frac{2\pi}{\Delta t \cdot N} = m\frac{2\pi}{T}$$

The Base Frequency and its Harmonics

Let us define the "base frequency"



・ロト ・ 理 ・ ・ ヨ ・ ・

$$\omega_{\text{base}} := \frac{2\pi}{N \cdot \Delta t} = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

- corresponds to the slowest sine that fits exactly into the window
- ▶ a sine signal sin(ωt) with $\omega = m \cdot \omega_{\text{base}}$ is called the "m-th harmonic"
- ► the DFT contains only the first N/2 harmonics of the base signal
- the frequency resolution (difference of two frequencies that are distinguished by the DFT) is equal to the base frequency
- the finite length of the window limits the frequency resolution: the longer the window, the finer the frequencies can be resolved in the signal

Visualization of Harmonics

example in time domain: deltat=0.1; T=10; t=[0:deltat:T-deltat]';wbase=2*pi/T; u1=sin(wbase*t); subplot(4,1,1); plot(t,u1); u2=sin(2*wbase*t); subplot(4,1,2); plot(t,u2); u3=sin(3*wbase*t); subplot(4,1,3); plot(t,u3); u4=sin(3.5*wbase*t); subplot(4,1,4); plot(t,u4);

same example in frequency domain: U1=fft(u1); subplot(4,1,1); plot(abs(U1)); U2=fft(u2); subplot(4,1,2); plot(abs(U2)); U3=fft(u3); subplot(4,1,3); plot(abs(U3)); U4=fft(u4); subplot(4,1,4); plot(abs(U4));

Multisines: the perfect excitation signal?

- we can choose u(t) as a "multisine", i.e. a superposition of specially chosen sine waves
- we can avoid both aliasing and leakage if the following three conditions are met:
 - 1. we choose a DFT window length T that is an integer multiple of the sampling time Δt , i.e. $T = N \cdot \Delta t$
 - 2. the multisine contains only harmonics of the base frequency $\omega_{\text{base}} = \frac{2\pi}{T}$ i.e. it is periodic with period T (or an integer fraction of T)
 - 3. the multisine does not contain any frequency higher than the Nyquist frequency $\omega_{Nyquist} = \frac{\pi}{\Delta t}$
- in order to achieve optimal excitation without too large input amplitudes, one chooses the phases of the multisine carefully to avoid positive interference

٠

The Crest Factor

The "crest factor" is the ratio between the highest peak u_{max} and the root mean square u_{rms} of the input signal:

$$u_{\max} := \max_{t \in [0,T]} |u(t)|$$

and

$$u_{\rm rms} := \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T u(t)^2 \mathrm{d}t}$$

- example for bad crest factor: N=20; U= zeros(N, 1); U(2:N/2) = 1; U(end:-1:N/2+2) = conj(U(2:N/2)); u= ifft(U); plot([u;u;u]);
- example for better crest factor: N=20; U= zeros(N, 1); U(2:N/2) = exp(i*2*pi*rand(N/2-1,1)); U(end:-1:N/2+2) = conj(U(2:N/2)); u= ifft(U); plot([u;u;u]);