## **E1.10 Fourier Series and Transforms**

Mike Brookes

- Syllabus
- Optical Fourier Transform
- Organization

1: Sums and Averages

Main fact: Complicated time waveforms can be expressed as a sum of sine and cosine waves.



Joseph Fourier 1768-1830

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sine wave in  $\Rightarrow$  sine wave out (same frequency).



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Hard problem: Complicated waveform  $\rightarrow$  electronic circuit $\rightarrow$  output = ? Easier problem: Complicated waveform  $\rightarrow$  sum of sine waves  $\rightarrow \underline{linear}$  electronic circuit ( $\Rightarrow$  obeys superposition)  $\rightarrow$  add sine wave outputs  $\rightarrow$  output = ?

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Syllabus: Preliminary maths (1 lecture)

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# Syllabus:Preliminary maths (1 lecture)Fourier series for periodic waveforms (4 lectures)

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Syllabus:Preliminary maths (1 lecture)Fourier series for periodic waveforms (4 lectures)Fourier transform for aperiodic waveforms (3 lectures)

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- 1: Sums and Averages

A pair of prisms can split light up into its component frequencies (colours).

Fourier Analysis

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1: Sums and Averages

A pair of prisms can split light up into its component frequencies (colours). This is called Fourier Analysis.

E1.10 Fourier Series and Transforms (2014-5509)

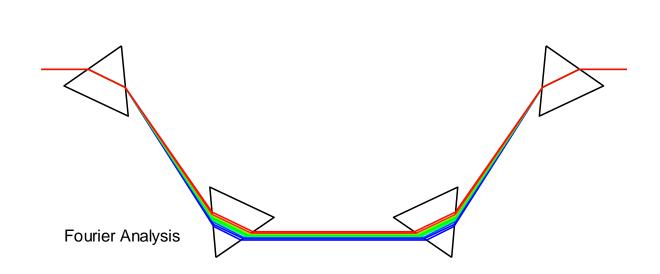
• Syllabus

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1: Sums and Averages

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A second pair can re-combine the frequencies.



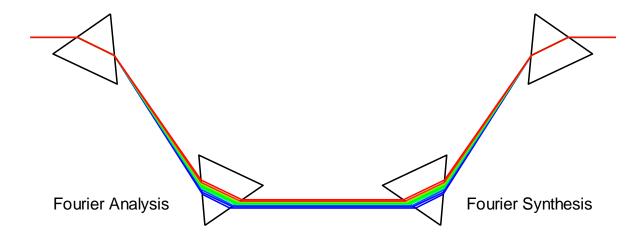
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A pair of prisms can split light up into its component frequencies (colours). This is called Fourier Analysis. A second pair can re-combine the frequencies.

This is called Fourier Synthesis.



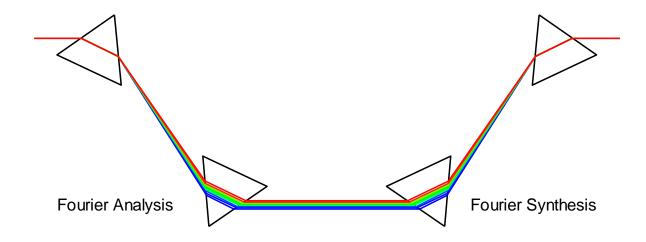
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We want to do the same thing with mathematical signals instead of light.

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• 8 lectures: feel free to ask questions

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- Textbook: Riley, Hobson & Bence "Mathematical Methods for Physics and Engineering", ISBN:978052167971-8, Chapters [4], 12 & 13

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## 1: Sums and Averages

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A geometric series is a sum of terms that increase or decrease by a constant factor, *x*:

$$S = a + ax + ax^2 + \ldots + ax^n$$

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We use a trick to get rid of most of the terms:

 $S = a + ax + ax^2 + \ldots + ax^{n-1} + ax^n$ 

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$$S = a + ax + ax^{2} + \ldots + ax^{n-1} + ax^{n}$$
  
$$xS = ax + ax^{2} + ax^{3} + \ldots + ax^{n} + ax^{n+1}$$

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Now subtract the lines to get:  $S - xS = (1 - x) S = a - ax^{n+1}$ 

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Divide by 1 - x to get:

$$S = a \times \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

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Divide by 
$$1 - x$$
 to get:  $a =$ first term  $S = a \times \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$ 

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Divide by 1 - x to get: a =first term n + 1 = number of terms  $S = a \times \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$ 

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Divide by 1 - x to get: a =first term n + 1 = number of terms  $S = a \times \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$ 

Example:

$$S = 3 + 6 + 12 + 24$$

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Example:

S = 3 + 6 + 12 + 24 [a = 3, x = 2, n + 1 = 4]

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Example:

$$S = 3 + 6 + 12 + 24$$

$$= 3 \times \frac{1 - 2^4}{1 - 2}$$
[a = 3, x = 2, n + 1 = 4]

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A geometric series is a sum of terms that increase or decrease by a constant factor, x:

$$S = a + ax + ax^2 + \ldots + ax^n$$

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The sequence of terms themselves is called a geometric progression.

We use a trick to get rid of most of the terms:

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$$xS = ax + ax^{2} + ax^{3} + \ldots + ax^{n} + ax^{n+1}$$

-1

Now subtract the lines to get:  $S - xS = (1 - x) S = a - ax^{n+1}$ 

Divide by 
$$1 - x$$
 to get:  $a =$ first term  $n + 1 =$  number of terms  $S = a \times \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$ 

Example:

$$S = 3 + 6 + 12 + 24$$

$$= 3 \times \frac{1 - 2^4}{1 - 2} = 3 \times \frac{-15}{-1} = 45$$
[a = 3, x = 2, n + 1 = 4]

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A finite geometric series:  $S_n = a + ax + ax^2 + \dots + ax^n = a \frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x}$ 

What is the limit as  $n \to \infty$ ?

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If 
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 then  $x^{n+1} \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} 0$ 

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What is the limit as  $n \to \infty$ ?

If 
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 then  $x^{n+1} \underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0 \,$  which gives

$$S_{\infty} = a + ax + ax^2 + \dots = a\frac{1}{1-x}$$

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$$0.4 + 0.04 + 0.004 + \dots$$
 [a = 0.4, x = 0.1]

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$$S_{\infty} = a + ax + ax^2 + \dots = a \frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{a}{1-x} \longrightarrow x = \text{factor}$$

Example 1:

$$0.4 + 0.04 + 0.004 + \ldots = \frac{0.4}{1 - 0.1} = 0.\dot{4}$$
 [a = 0.4, x = 0.1]

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Example 2: (alternating signs) 2 - 1.2 + 0.72 - 0.432 + ...

[a = 2, x = -0.6]

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Example 2: (alternating signs)  $2 - 1.2 + 0.72 - 0.432 + \ldots = \frac{2}{1 - (-0.6)} = 1.25$  [a = 2, x = -0.6]

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#### Example 3:

 $1 + 2 + 4 + \dots$  [a = 1, x = 2]

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#### Example 3:

$$1 + 2 + 4 + \ldots \neq \frac{1}{1-2} = \frac{1}{-1} = -1$$
 [a = 1, x = 2]

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A finite geometric series:  $S_n = a + ax + ax^2 + \dots + ax^n = a\frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x}$ What is the limit as  $n \to \infty$ ? If |x| < 1 then  $x^{n+1} \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} 0$  which gives  $S_{\infty} = a + ax + ax^2 + \dots = a\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{a}{1-x}$ , x = factor

Example 1:

$$0.4 + 0.04 + 0.004 + \ldots = \frac{0.4}{1 - 0.1} = 0.\dot{4}$$
 [a = 0.4, x = 0.1]

Example 2: (alternating signs)  $2 - 1.2 + 0.72 - 0.432 + \ldots = \frac{2}{1 - (-0.6)} = 1.25$  [a = 2, x = -0.6]

Example 3:

$$1 + 2 + 4 + \ldots \neq \frac{1}{1-2} = \frac{1}{-1} = -1$$
 [a = 1, x = 2]

The formula  $S = a + ax + ax^2 + \ldots = \frac{a}{1-x}$  is only valid for |x| < 1

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Using a  $\sum$  sign, we can write the geometric series more compactly:

$$S_n = a + ax + ax^2 + \ldots + ax^n = \sum_{r=0}^n ax^r$$

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$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} ax^r$$

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 $\sum_{r=0}^{n} ax^{r} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} ax^{k} = \sum_{\alpha=0}^{n} ax^{\alpha}$ 

Dummy variables are undefined outside the summation so they sometimes get re-used elsewhere in an expression:

 $\sum_{r=0}^{3} 2^r + \sum_{r=1}^{2} 3^r$ 

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$$\sum_{r=0}^{3} 2^{r} + \sum_{r=1}^{2} 3^{r} = \left(1 \times \frac{1-2^{4}}{1-2}\right) + \left(3 \times \frac{1-3^{2}}{1-3}\right)$$

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$$\sum_{r=0}^{3} 2^{r} + \sum_{r=1}^{2} 3^{r} = \left(1 \times \frac{1-2^{4}}{1-2}\right) + \left(3 \times \frac{1-3^{2}}{1-3}\right) = 15 + 12 = 27$$

The two dummy variables are both called r but they have no connection with each other at all (or with any other variable called r anywhere else).

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$$S_n = \sum_{r=0}^n ax^r$$
 and  $xS_n = \sum_{r=0}^n ax^{r+1}$ 

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We need to manipulate the second sum to involve  $x^r$ .

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Use the substitution s = r + 1

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$$s = r + 1 \Leftrightarrow r = s - 1$$
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Use the substitution  $s = r + 1 \Leftrightarrow r = s - 1$ . Substitute for *r* everywhere it occurs (including both limits)

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It is essential to sum over exactly the same set of values when substituting for dummy variables.

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Subtracting gives  $(1 - x)S_n = S_n - xS_n = \sum_{r=0}^n ax^r - \sum_{r=1}^{n+1} ax^r$ 

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 $r \in [1, n]$  is common to both sums, so extract the remaining terms:

$$(1-x)S_n = ax^0 - ax^{n+1} + \sum_{r=1}^n ax^r - \sum_{r=1}^n ax^r$$

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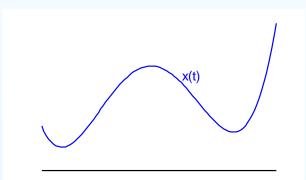
$$(1-x)S_n = ax^0 - ax^{n+1} + \sum_{r=1}^n ax^r - \sum_{r=1}^n ax^r = ax^0 - ax^{n+1} = a(1-x^{n+1})$$

Hence:

e: 
$$S_n = a \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

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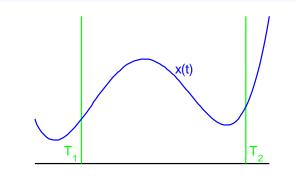
If a signal varies with time, we can plot its waveform, x(t).



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If a signal varies with time, we can plot its waveform, x(t).

The average value of x(t) in the range  $T_1 \leq t \leq T_2$ 

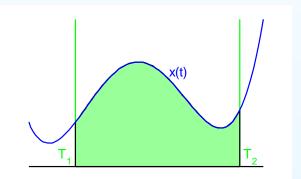


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If a signal varies with time, we can plot its waveform,  $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ .

The average value of x(t) in the range  $T_1 \leq t \leq T_2$  is

$$\langle x \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} = \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} x(t) dt$$

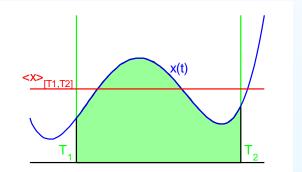


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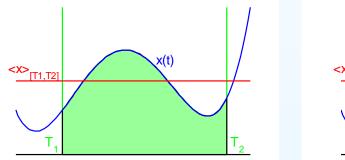


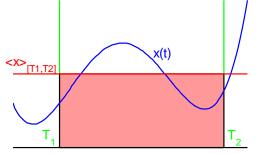
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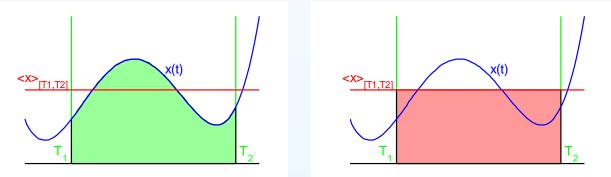
The area under the curve x(t) is equal to the area of the rectangle defined by 0 and  $\langle x \rangle_{[T_1,T_2]}$ .

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If a signal varies with time, we can plot its waveform,  $\boldsymbol{x}(t)$ .

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$$\langle x \rangle_{[T_1,T_2]} = \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} x(t) dt$$



The area under the curve x(t) is equal to the area of the rectangle defined by 0 and  $\langle x \rangle_{[T_1,T_2]}$ .

Angle brackets alone,  $\langle x \rangle$ , denotes the average value over all time  $\langle x(t) \rangle = \lim_{A,B\to\infty} \langle x(t) \rangle_{[-A,+B]}$ 

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The properties of averages follow from the properties of integrals:

Addition:

 $\langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle + \langle y(t) \rangle$ 

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The properties of averages follow from the properties of integrals:

Addition:

 $\langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle + \langle y(t) \rangle$ Add a constant:  $\langle x(t) + c \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle + c$ 

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The properties of averages follow from the properties of integrals:

Addition: Add a constant: Constant multiple:

 $\langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle + \langle y(t) \rangle$   $\langle x(t) + c \rangle = \langle x(t) \rangle + c$  $\langle a \times x(t) \rangle = a \times \langle x(t) \rangle$ 

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where the constants a and c do not depend on time.

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For example:

$$\langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} = \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} (x(t) + y(t)) dt$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} &= \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} \left( x(t) + y(t) \right) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} x(t) dt + \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t=T_1}^{T_2} y(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

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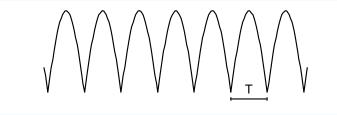
For example:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x(t) + y(t) \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} &= \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t = T_1}^{T_2} \left( x(t) + y(t) \right) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t = T_1}^{T_2} x(t) dt + \frac{1}{T_2 - T_1} \int_{t = T_1}^{T_2} y(t) dt \\ &= \langle x(t) \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} + \langle y(t) \rangle_{[T_1, T_2]} \end{aligned}$$

But beware:  $\langle x(t) \times y(t) \rangle \neq \langle x(t) \rangle \times \langle y(t) \rangle$ .

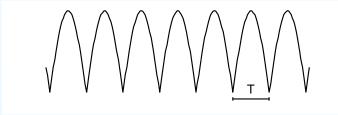
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A periodic waveform with period T repeats itself at intervals of T: x(t+T) = x(t)



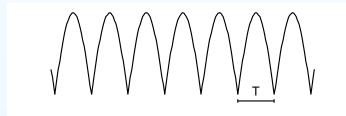
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A periodic waveform with period T repeats itself at intervals of T:  $x(t+T) = x(t) \implies x(t \pm kT) = x(t)$  for any integer k.



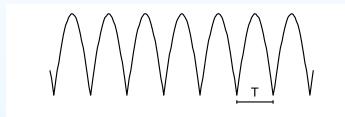
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A periodic waveform with period T repeats itself at intervals of T:  $x(t+T) = x(t) \Rightarrow x(t \pm kT) = x(t)$  for any integer k. The smallest T > 0 for which  $x(t+T) = x(t) \ \forall t$  is the fundamental period.



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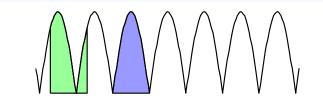
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For a periodic waveform,  $\langle x(t) \rangle$  equals the average over one period.

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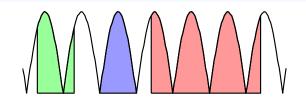
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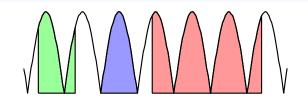
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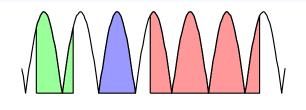
For a periodic waveform,  $\langle x(t) \rangle$  equals the average over one period. It doesn't make any difference where in a period you start or how many whole periods you take the average over.

Example:

 $x(t) = |\sin t|$ 

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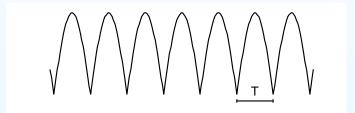
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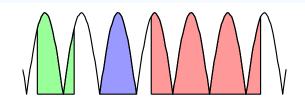
Example:

 $\begin{aligned} x(t) &= |\sin t| \\ \langle x \rangle &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{t=0}^{\pi} |\sin t| \ dt \end{aligned}$ 

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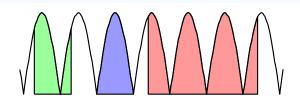
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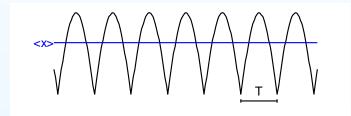
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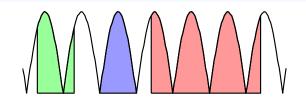
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$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= |\sin t| \\ \langle x \rangle &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{t=0}^{\pi} |\sin t| \ dt = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{t=0}^{\pi} \sin t \ dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ -\cos t \right]_{0}^{\pi} \end{aligned}$$

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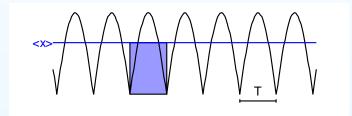
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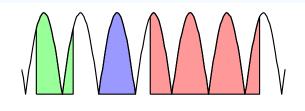
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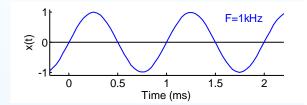
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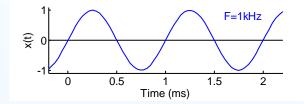
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A sine wave,  $x(t) = \sin 2\pi F t$ , has a frequency F and a period  $T = \frac{1}{F}$ 



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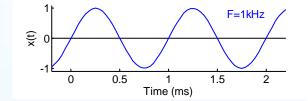
A sine wave,  $x(t) = \sin 2\pi F t$ , has a frequency F and a period  $T = \frac{1}{F}$ so that,  $\sin \left(2\pi F \left(t + \frac{1}{F}\right)\right) = \sin \left(2\pi F t + 2\pi\right) = \sin 2\pi F t$ .



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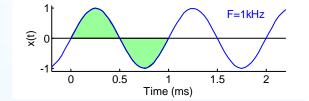
$$\langle \sin 2\pi Ft \rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t=0}^{T} \sin (2\pi Ft) dt$$



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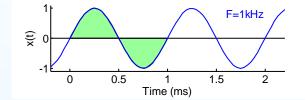
$$\langle \sin 2\pi Ft \rangle = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t=0}^{T} \sin \left( 2\pi Ft \right) dt$$
$$= 0$$



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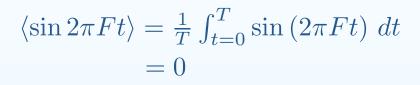
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$$= 0$$

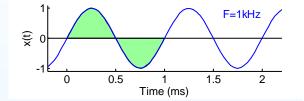


Also,  $\langle \cos 2\pi Ft \rangle = 0$ 

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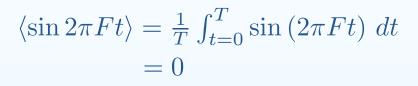
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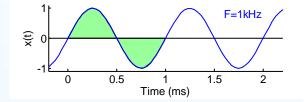




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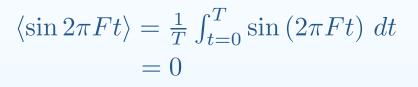
Also,  $\langle \cos 2\pi Ft \rangle = 0$  except for the case F = 0 since  $\cos 2\pi 0t \equiv 1$ .

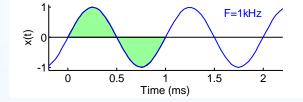
Hence:

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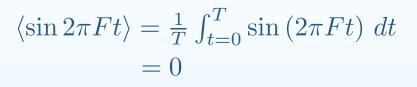


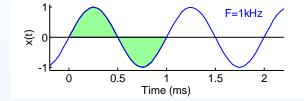


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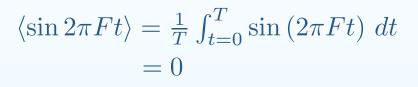


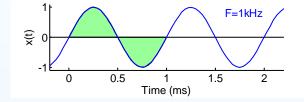
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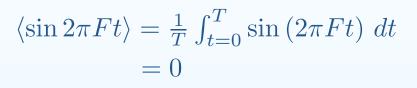


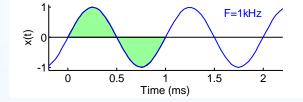
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- Periodic waveforms:  $x(t \pm kT) = x(t)$  for any integer k
  - $\circ$  Fundamental period is the smallest T
  - Fundamental frequency is  $F = \frac{1}{T}$
  - $\circ~$  For periodic waveforms,  $\langle x \rangle$  is the average over any integer number of periods
  - $\circ \quad \langle \sin 2\pi F t \rangle = 0$

$$\circ \quad \left\langle \cos 2\pi Ft \right\rangle = \left\langle e^{i2\pi Ft} \right\rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & F \neq 0\\ 1 & F = 0 \end{cases}$$