

# Numerical Methods for Computational Science and Engineering

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FFT continued:

Divide-and-conquer approach

Recall  $c_k := (F_n y)_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} y_j \omega_n^{kj} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} y_j \underline{\omega_n^{kj}} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} y_j e^{-2\pi i kj/n}$

note:  $c_{k+n\ell} = c_k \quad \ell \in \mathbb{Z}$

Example:  $n = 2^\alpha \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{N}$

$n = 2m$

Split the DFT:

$$c_k = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_{2j} \omega_n^{2kj} + \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_{2j+1} \omega_n^{k(2j+1)}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_{2j} \omega_n^{2kj} + \omega_n^k \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_{2j+1} \omega_n^{2kj}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \underbrace{y_{2j}}_{y_j^1} \underbrace{e^{-2\pi i (kj)/m}}_{\omega_m^{kj}} + \omega_n^k \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \underbrace{y_{2j+1}}_{y_j^2} \underbrace{e^{-2\pi i kj/m}}_{\omega_m^{kj}}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_j^1 \omega_m^{kj} + \omega_n^k \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} y_j^2 \omega_m^{kj}$$

$y^1 = [y_{01} y_{21} \dots y_{n-2}]^T$   
 $y^2 = [y_{11} y_{31} \dots y_{n-1}]^T$  } signals of length  $m = \frac{n}{2}$

$$= (c^1)_k + \omega_n^k (c^2)_k$$

↑  
 $c^1$  m-DFT of  $y^1$ ,  $c^2$  m-DFT of  $y^2$

Note:  $(c^1)_{k+ml} = (c^1)_k$   
 $(c^2)_{k+ml} = (c^2)_k$

$$(F_n Y)_k = C_k = (c^1)_k + \omega_n^k (c^2)_k \quad k=0, \dots, m-1$$

$$C_{k+m} = (c^1)_k + \omega_n^{m+k} (c^2)_k$$

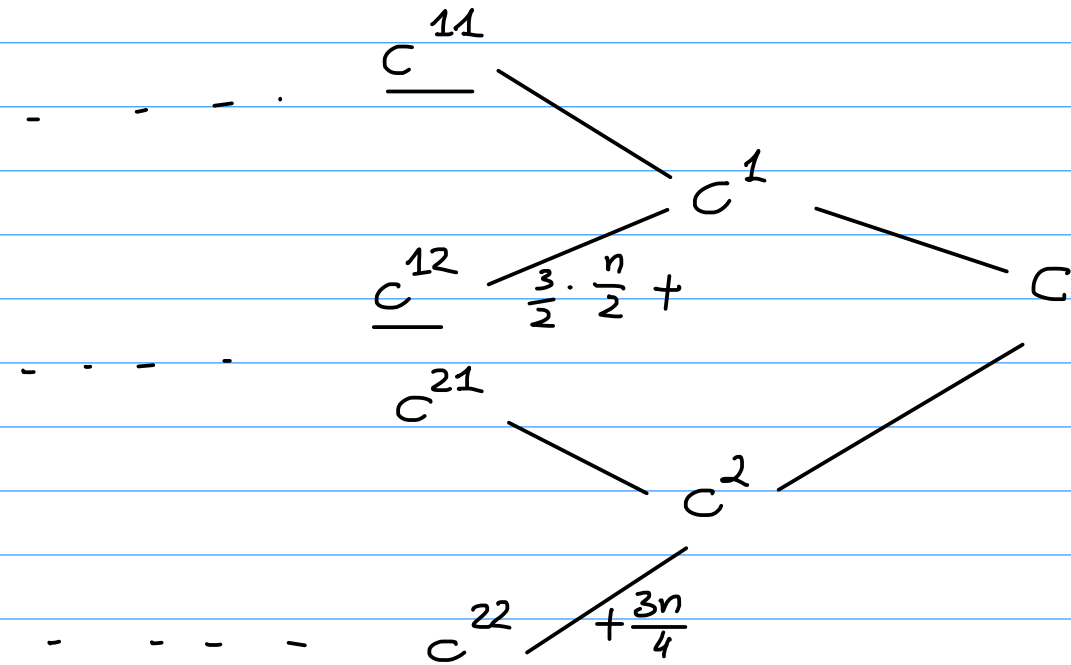
$= \omega_n^k$

Complexity:  $m = \frac{n}{2}$  multiplications,  $2m = n$  additions  
 $\Rightarrow \frac{3n}{2}$  number of basic operations  
to combine  $(c^1)$ ,  $(c^2)$  to  $C$

Proceed: break down  $y^1, y^2$  into shorter signals

How many steps possible?  
 $(n = 2^\alpha)$   $\log_2 n$  steps

1-point DFTs



At  $j$ -th step:  $\left(\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{n}{2^j}\right) \cdot 2^j = \frac{3n}{2}$  operations

Overall:  $\frac{3}{2} \cdot n \cdot \log_2 n = \Theta(n \log_2 n)$   
 complexity for FFT

### 4.2.2. Frequency filtering via DFT

Given a signal  $\underline{x} = [x_0, \dots, x_{n-1}]^T$

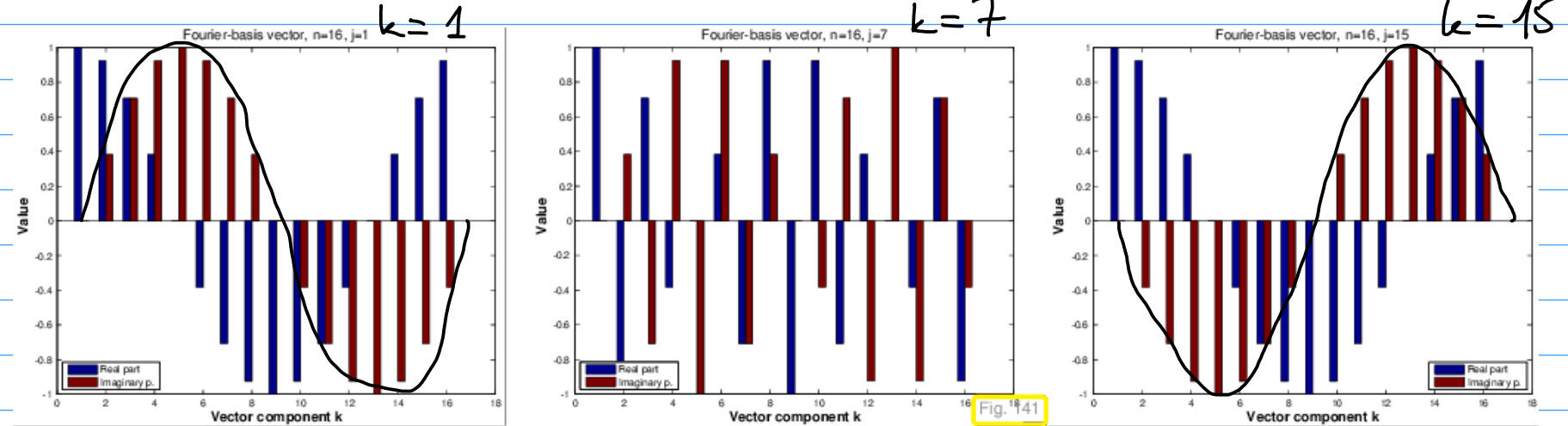
What is the information on  $\underline{x}$  carried in  $F_n \underline{x}$ ?

$k$ -th row of  $F_n$  equal to column  $\underline{v}_k$

$$\Rightarrow (F_n \underline{x})_k = \underline{v}_k^T \underline{x}$$

trigonometric basis  $\{v_0, \dots, v_{n-1}\}$  harmonic oscillations

Example  $n=16$ :



"slow oscillation/low frequency"

"fast oscillation/high frequency"

"slow oscillation/low frequency"

blue:  $\text{Re}(\underline{v}_k)$

red:  $\text{Im}(\underline{v}_k)$

$$C_k = (F_n \underline{x})_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x_j \omega_n^{kj}$$

$$\text{Inverse DFT: } x_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_k \omega_n^{-kj}$$

for  $n = 2m+1$ :

$$n x_j = \sum_{k=0}^m C_k \omega_n^{-kj} + \sum_{k=m+1}^{2m} C_k \omega_n^{-kj}$$

$$= C_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m C_k \omega_n^{-kj} + \sum_{k=1}^m C_{n-k} \omega_n^{-(n-k)j}$$

$$= C_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m (C_k \omega_n^{-kj} + C_{n-k} \omega_n^{-(n-k)j})$$

Note:  $C_{n-k} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x_j \omega_n^{(n-k)j} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x_j \underbrace{\omega_n^{-kj}}_{\overline{\omega_n^{kj}}} = \overline{C_k}$

and  $\omega_n^{-(n-k)j} = \omega_n^{kj} = \overline{\omega_n^{-kj}}$

$$\Rightarrow n x_j = C_0 + \sum_{k=1}^m (C_k \omega_n^{-kj} + \overline{C_k} \overline{\omega_n^{-kj}})$$

$$= C_0 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^m \operatorname{Re}(C_k \omega_n^{-kj})$$

$$= C_0 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^m \left[ \operatorname{Re}(C_k) \cos(2\pi k j / n) \right. \\ \left. + \operatorname{Im}(C_k) \sin(2\pi k j / n) \right]$$

$|C_k|, |C_{n-k}|$  measures how much oscillation with frequency  $k$  is present in signal  $x$ .  
 $k \in \{0, \dots, \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor\}$

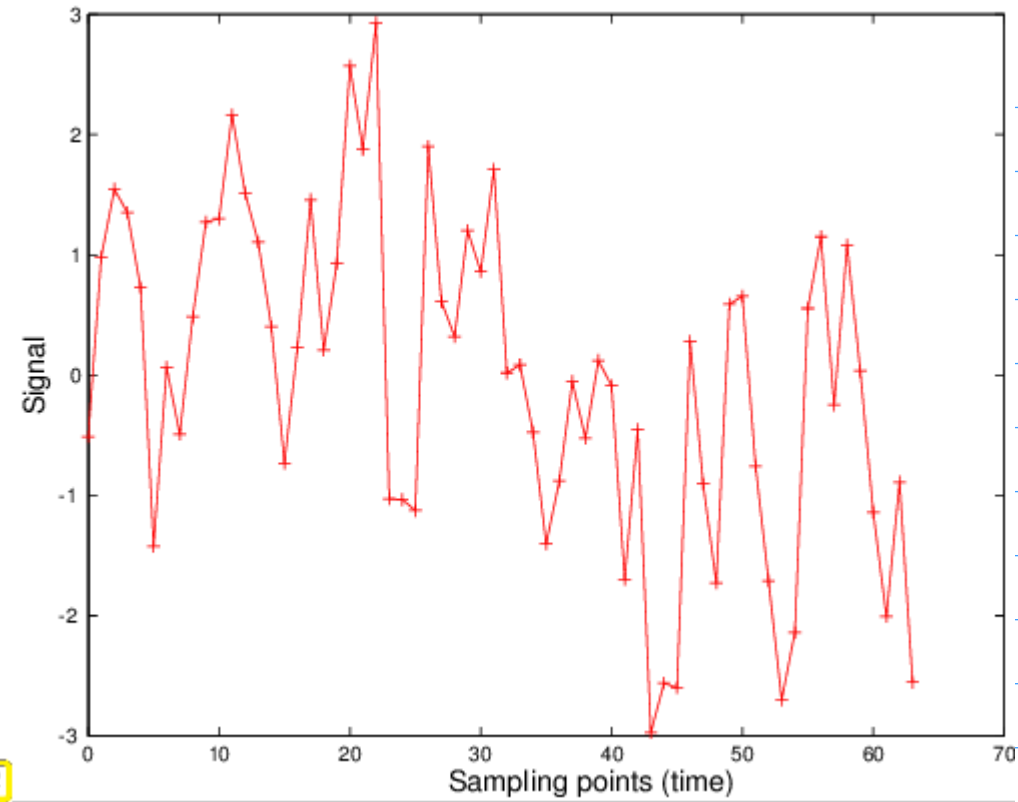


Fig. 142

### Google: 'Vorlesungsverzeichnis'

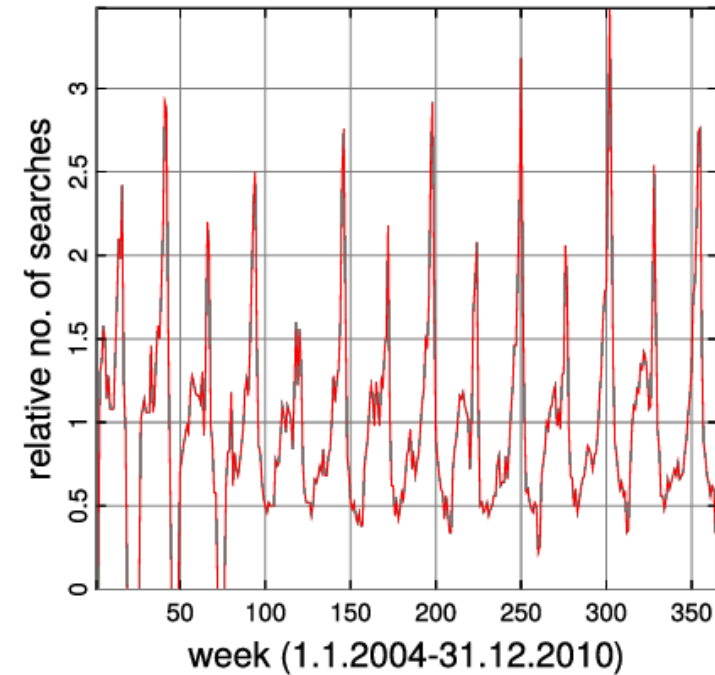


Fig. 144

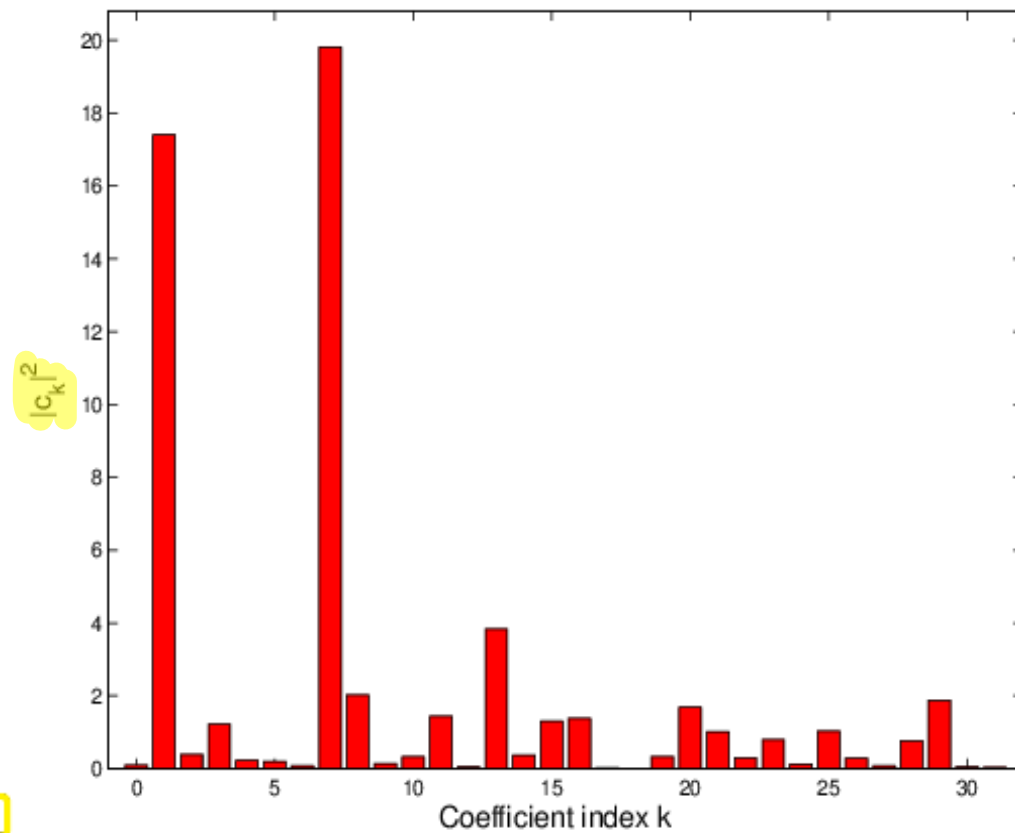


Fig. 143

magnitude squared of the signal's DFT locates which frequencies are present in signal & how much they're present

### Fourier spectrum

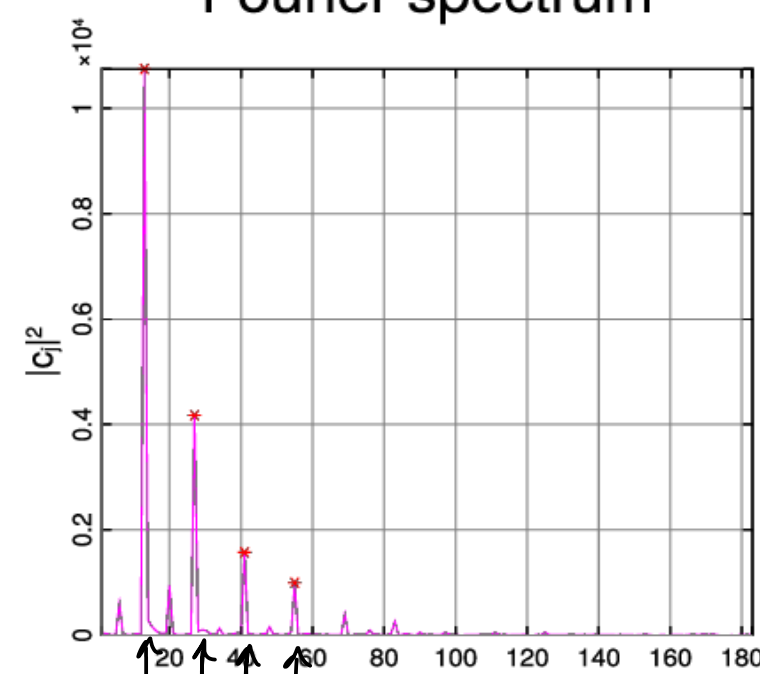


Fig. 145

pronounced peaks: structure of data is periodic

positions: information about length of periods

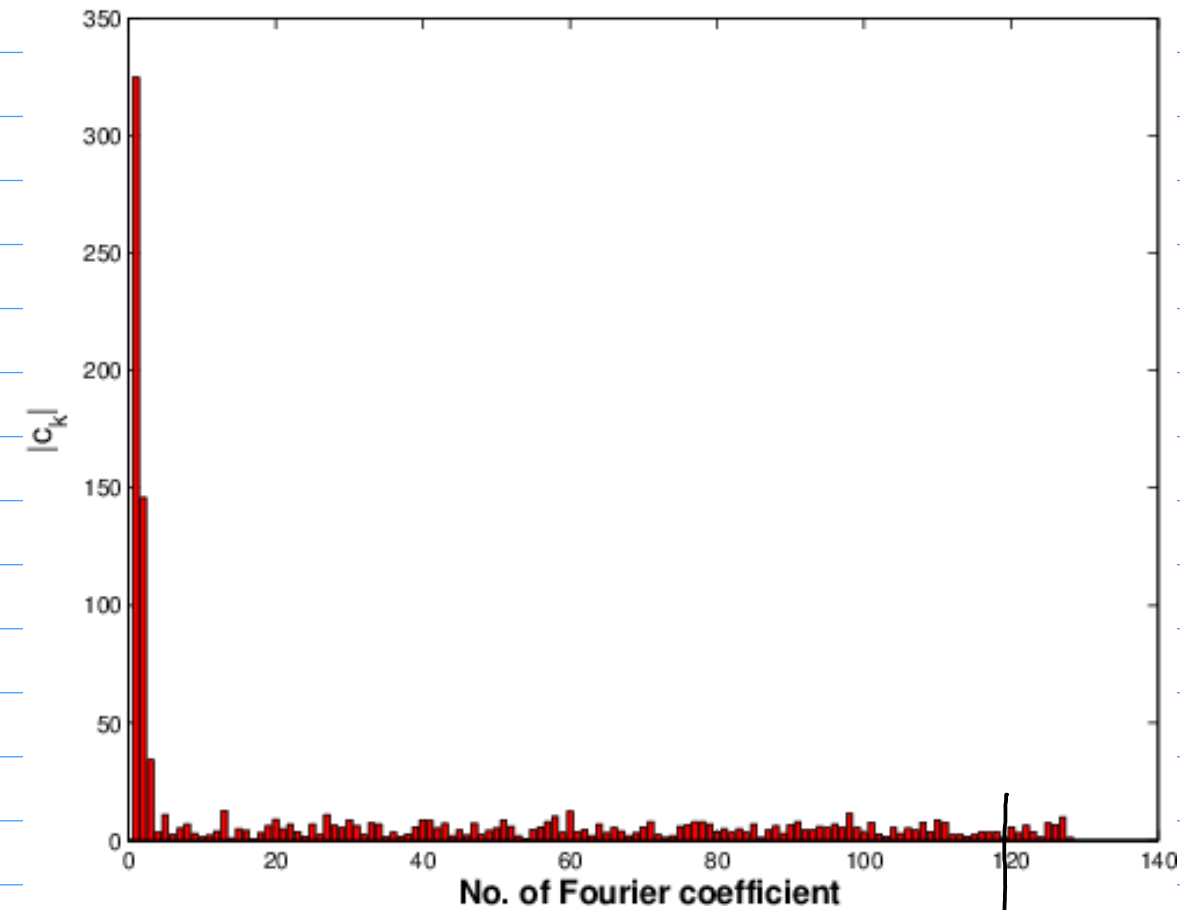
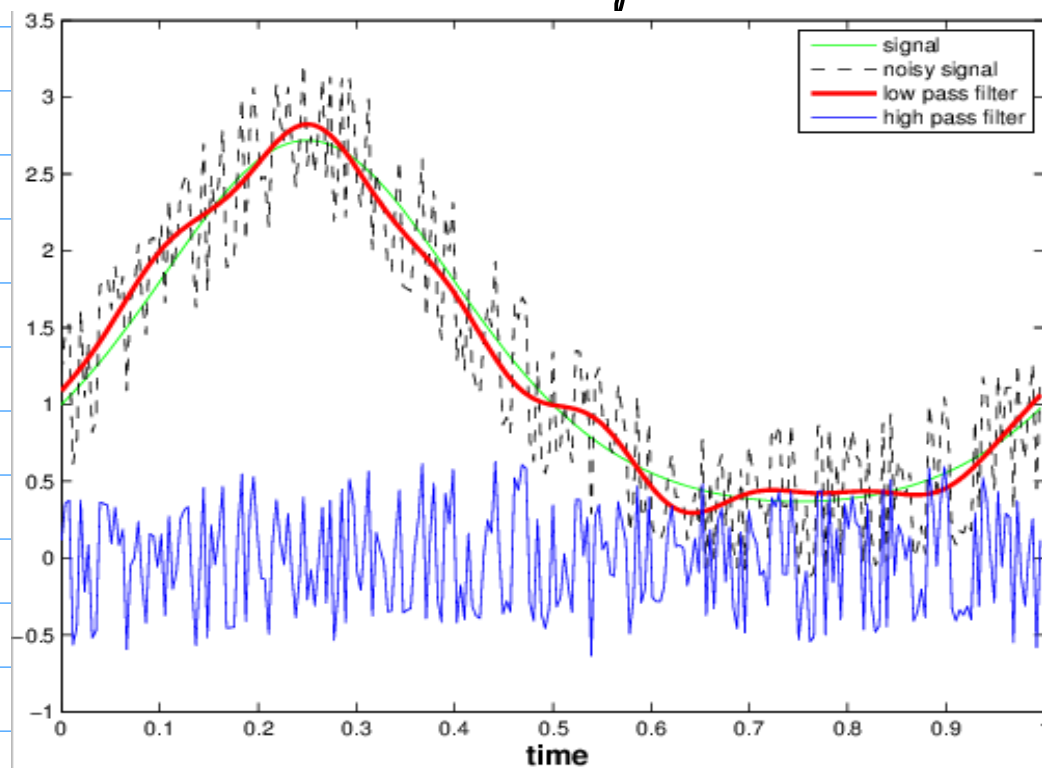
Low vs. high frequencies

typical model for noise: high-frequency

idea for denoising a signal (audio/image)

- transform to frequency domain
- "low-pass filter" (i.e. cut-off high frequencies)
- transform back to time/space domain to obtain a denoised signal.

Example:



cut-off at  
frequency  $k=120$

## 4.2.4. 2D DFT

Given a matrix  $Y \in \mathbb{C}^{m,n}$ , its 2D DFT is defined as 2 nested 1D DFTs:

$$(C)_{k_1, k_2} = \sum_{j_1=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j_2=0}^{n-1} y_{j_1, j_2} \omega_m^{j_1 k_1} \omega_n^{j_2 k_2} = \sum_{j_1=0}^{m-1} \omega_m^{j_1 k_1} \left( \sum_{j_2=0}^{n-1} \omega_n^{j_2 k_2} y_{j_1, j_2} \right), \quad 0 \leq k_1 < m, 0 \leq k_2 < n.$$

↑  
2D DFT(Y)

2D DFT of Y

$$(C)_{k_1, k_2} = \sum_{j_1=0}^{m-1} (F_n(Y)_{j_1, \cdot})_{k_2} \omega_m^{j_1 k_1} \quad \blacktriangleright \quad \boxed{C = F_m(F_n Y^T)^T = F_m Y F_n} \quad (4.2.46)$$

[Recall: 1D:  $C = F_n y$   $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ]

and 2D inverse DFTs

$$C = \sum_{j_1=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j_2=0}^{n-1} y_{j_1, j_2} (F_m)_{:, j_1} (F_n)_{:, j_2}^T \Rightarrow \boxed{Y = F_m^{-1} C F_n^{-1} = \frac{1}{mn} \bar{F}_m C \bar{F}_n} \quad (4.2.47)$$

$$F_m^{-1} = \frac{1}{m} \bar{F}_m^T$$

$$F_n^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} \bar{F}_n^T$$

### C++11 code 4.2.48: Two-dimensional discrete Fourier transform → GITLAB

```

2 template <typename Scalar>
3 void fft2(Eigen::MatrixXcd &C, const Eigen::MatrixBase<Scalar> &Y) {
4     using idx_t = Eigen::MatrixXcd::Index;
5     const idx_t m = Y.rows(), n = Y.cols();
6     C.resize(m, n);
7     Eigen::MatrixXcd tmp(m, n);
8
9     Eigen::FFT<double> fft; // Helper class for DFT
10    // Transform rows of matrix Y
11    for (idx_t k=0; k<m; k++) {
12        Eigen::VectorXcd tv(Y.row(k));
13        tmp.row(k) = fft.fwd(tv).transpose();
14    }
15
16    // Transform columns of temporary matrix
17    for (idx_t k=0; k<n; k++) {
18        Eigen::VectorXcd tv(tmp.col(k));
19        C.col(k) = fft.fwd(tv);
20    }
21 }

```

### C++11 code 4.2.49: Inverse two-dimensional discrete Fourier transform → GITLAB

```

2 template <typename Scalar>
3 void ifft2(Eigen::MatrixXcd &C, const Eigen::MatrixBase<Scalar> &Y) {
4     using idx_t = Eigen::MatrixXcd::Index;
5     const idx_t m = Y.rows(), n = Y.cols();
6     fft2(C, Y.conjugate()); C = C.conjugate() / (m*n);
7 }

```

### Filtering with 2D DFT:

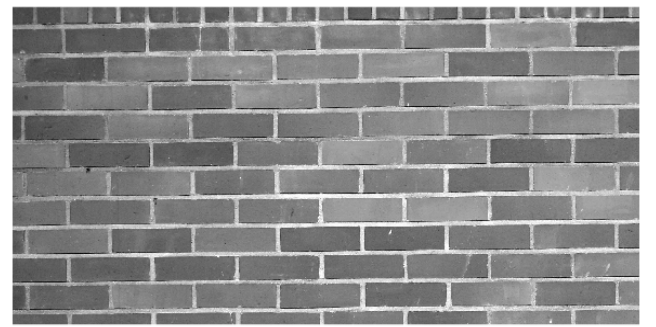
As in 1D: describe filtering via 2D discrete convolution & with zero-padding

2D discrete conv. is reducible to

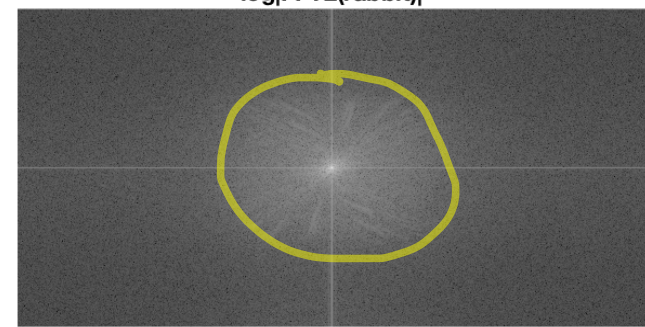
2D discrete periodic conv.  
(circular)

Example: Smoothing with a Gaussian filter

Original Image

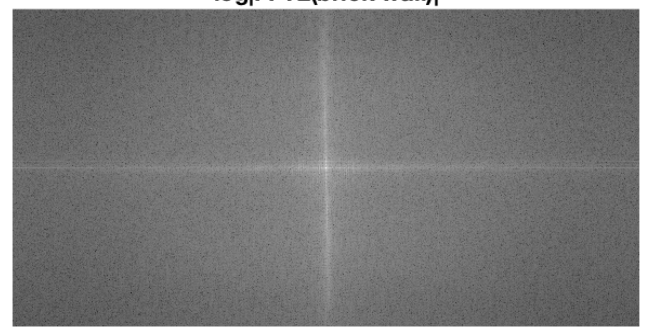


log|FFT2(rabbit)|



more spread out

log|FFT2(brick wall)|





### 2D convolution theorem

Let  $U, X \in \mathbb{C}^{m,n}$  and let the 2D discrete per. convolution  $U *_{m,n} X$  be defined by

$$(U *_{m,n} X)_{k,l} := \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (U)_{i,j} (X)_{\substack{k-i \pmod m \\ l-j \pmod n}}$$

Then,

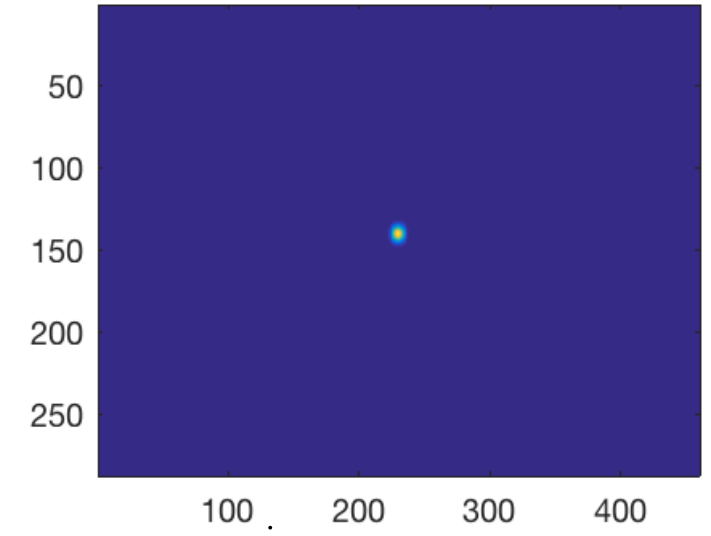
$$U *_{m,n} X = \frac{1}{mn} \overline{F_m} \left[ \overset{\text{comp. wise}}{\downarrow} \left[ (F_m U F_n)_{i,j} \cdot (F_m X F_n)_{i,j} \right]_{\substack{i=0, \dots, m-1 \\ j=0, \dots, n-1}} \right] \overline{F_n}$$

$$U *_{m,n} X = \text{IDFT2} \left\{ \left[ \text{DFT2}(U) \right]_{i,j} \cdot \left[ \text{DFT2}(X) \right]_{i,j} \right\}_{\substack{i=0, \dots, m-1 \\ j=0, \dots, n-1}}$$

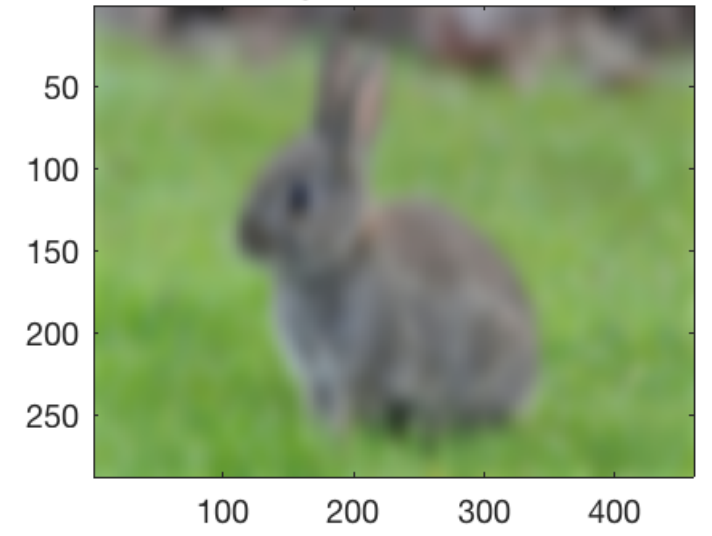
Filtered image with Gaussian,  $\sigma = 3$



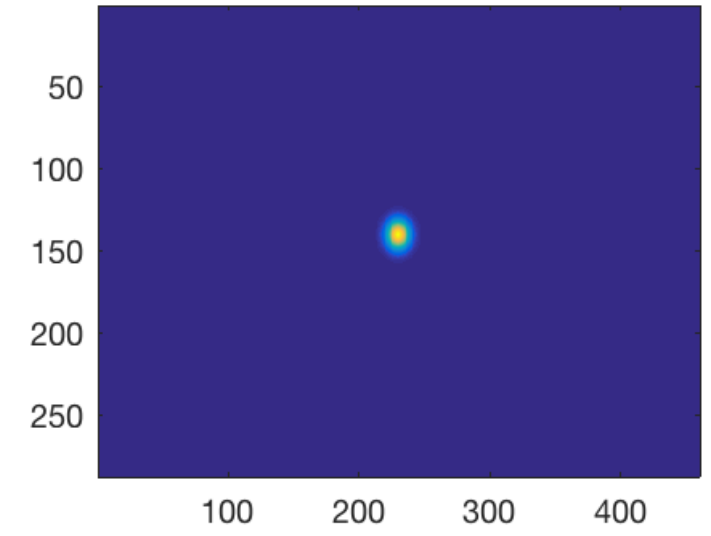
Gaussian filter,  $\sigma = 3$



Filtered image with Gaussian,  $\sigma = 6$



Gaussian filter,  $\sigma = 6$



**C++11 code 4.2.55: DFT-based 2D discrete periodic convolution → GITLAB**

```
2 // DFT based implementation of 2D periodic convolution
3 template <typename Scalar1,typename Scalar2,class EigenMatrix>
4 void pmconv(const Eigen::MatrixBase<Scalar1> &X,const
5             Eigen::MatrixBase<Scalar2> &Y,
6             EigenMatrix &Z) {
7     using Comp = std::complex<double>;
8     using idx_t = typename EigenMatrix::Index;
9     using val_t = typename EigenMatrix::Scalar;
10    const idx_t n=X.cols(),m=X.rows();
11    if ((m!=Y.rows()) || (n!=Y.cols())) throw
12        std::runtime_error("pmconv: size mismatch");
13    Z.resize(m,n); Eigen::MatrixXcd Xh(m,n),Yh(m,n);
14    // Step 1: 2D DFT of Y
15    fft2(Yh,(Y.template cast<Comp>()));
16    // Step 2: 2D DFT of X
17    fft2(Xh,(X.template cast<Comp>()));
18    // Steps 3, 4: inverse DFT of component-wise product
19    ifft2(Z,Xh.cwiseProduct(Yh));
20 }
```





What is meant: subroutine that given any  $t \in I \cap M$ , can compute  $f(t)$ .

Typically: finite-dim basis of  $S$   
 $\uparrow$   
 $m$ -dim.

$$\{b_0, \dots, b_{m-1}\}$$

and  $f(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \alpha_j b_j(t)$

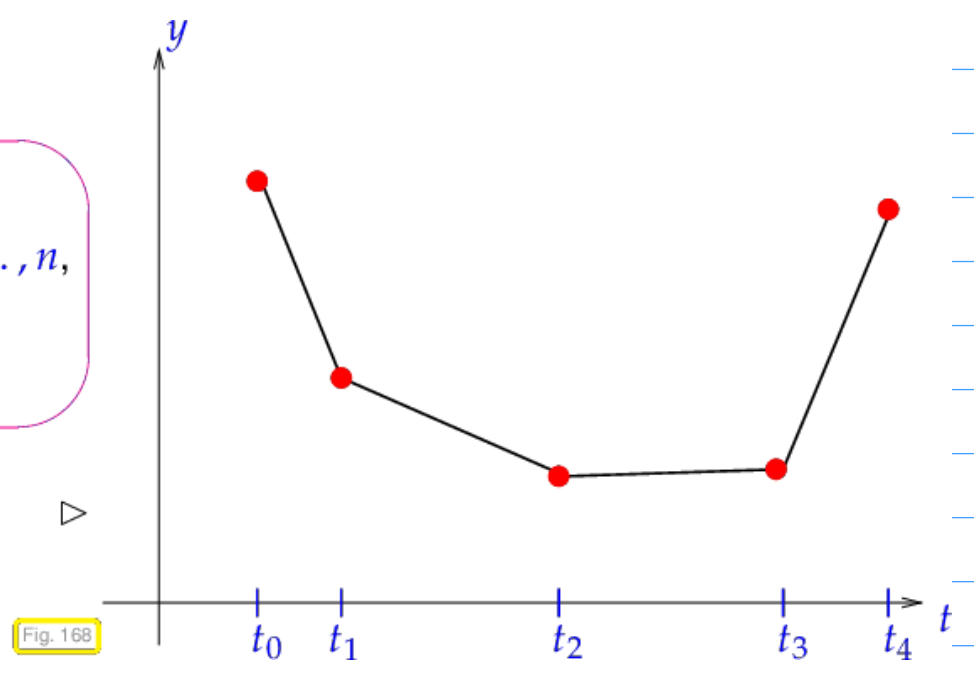
coefficients  $\{\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_{m-1}\}$  fully characterize  $f$

Example: Piecewise linear interpolation

Simplest way to continuously connect data points

Piecewise linear interpolation  
= connect data points  $(t_i, y_i), i = 0, \dots, n,$   
 $t_{i-1} < t_i$ , by line segments  
▷ interpolating polygon

Piecewise linear interpolant of data



Here:  $S = \{ f \in C^0(I), \text{ s.t. } f(t) = \beta_i t + \gamma_i \text{ on } [t_{i-1}, t_i],$   
for  $i = 0, \dots, n; \beta_i, \gamma_i \in \mathbb{R} \}$

↑  
cont.

↑  
piecewise linear

points  $t_i$  are fixed

$$\dim S = n+1$$

[can choose  $y_0, \dots, y_n$   
 $n+1$  degrees of freedom]

Basis for S ?

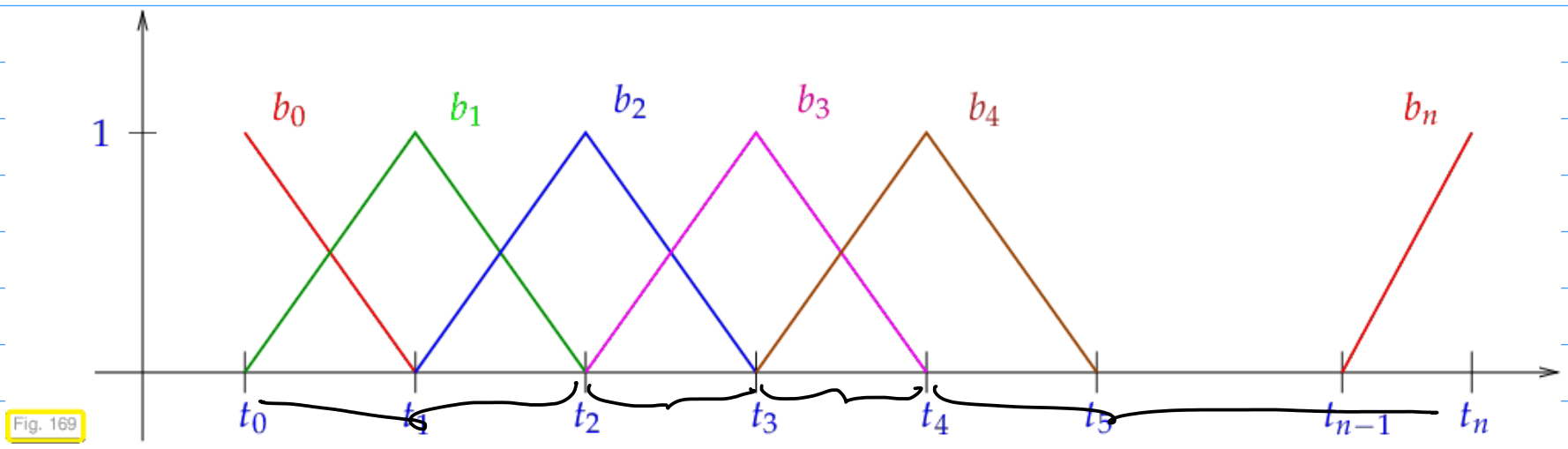


Fig. 169

"hat functions"

Equations for b\_i:

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_0(t) &= \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{t-t_0}{t_1-t_0} & \text{for } t_0 \leq t < t_1, \\ 0 & \text{for } t \geq t_1. \end{cases} \\
 b_j(t) &= \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{t_j-t}{t_j-t_{j-1}} & \text{for } t_{j-1} \leq t < t_j, \\ 1 - \frac{t-t_j}{t_{j+1}-t_j} & \text{for } t_j \leq t < t_{j+1}, \\ 0 & \text{elsewhere in } [t_0, t_n]. \end{cases}, \quad j = 1, \dots, n-1, \\
 b_n(t) &= \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{t_n-t}{t_n-t_{n-1}} & \text{for } t_{n-1} \leq t < t_n, \\ 0 & \text{for } t < t_{n-1}. \end{cases}
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.1.11}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 b_j(t_i) &= \begin{cases} 1, & i=j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases} \\
 &= \delta_{ij} \quad (\text{Kronecker delta})
 \end{aligned}$$

Interpolant to  $\{(t_i, y_i)\}_{i=0}^n$  in S ?

$$f(t) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j \cdot b_j(t)$$

$$f(t_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j b_j(t_i) = y_i \underbrace{b_i(t_i)}_{=1} = y_i$$

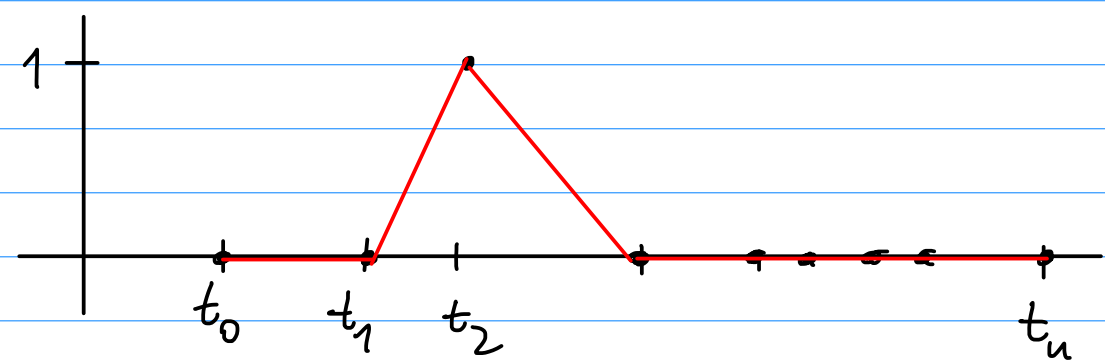
→ interpolant conditions are fulfilled

A basis  $\{b_0, \dots, b_n\}$  s.t.  $b_j(t_i) = \delta_{ij}$  is called a cardinal basis.

Note: • both S and basis  $\{b_j\}_{j=0}^n$  depend on points  $t_i$

- infinitely many choices for a basis of  $S$ .
- for  $S$  as in our example: cardinal basis is unique:

because  $b_j$  cont. pw. linear



only way to construct  $b_2$ !

More general setting:

- interpolating conditions:  $f(t_i) = y_i \quad i=0, \dots, n$
  - basis representation:  $f(t) = \sum_{j=0}^m \alpha_j b_j(t)$
- $\{b_j\}_{j=0}^m$  basis of  $S, f \in S$

$$f(t_i) = \sum_{j=0}^m \alpha_j b_j(t_i) = y_i \quad i=0, \dots, n$$

I.C. basis repr. (5.1.9)  $\Rightarrow f(t_i) = \sum_{j=0}^m \alpha_j b_j(t_i) = y_i, \quad i=0, \dots, n, \quad (5.1.14)$

$$A \alpha := \begin{bmatrix} b_0(t_0) & \dots & b_m(t_0) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b_0(t_n) & \dots & b_m(t_n) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} =: y \quad (5.1.15)$$

This is an  $(m+1) \times (n+1)$  linear system of equations!

Solving for  $[\alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_m]^T$  would determine  $f$ !  
 Existence & uniqueness of interpolant for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$

$\Leftrightarrow A$  is regular

Necessary condition:  $m=n$

The map  $\mathcal{I}: \begin{cases} \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow S \subset C^0(I) \\ y \mapsto f = \sum_{j=0}^n \underbrace{(A^{-1}y)_j}_{\alpha_j} b_j \end{cases}$   
 is a linear map

When is  $A$  invertible?

depends on:

- nodes  $t_i$

- space  $S$

but: is independent of choice of basis  $\{b_j\}_{j=0}^n$

Why? Take 2 bases of  $S$ :  $\{b_0, \dots, b_n\}$   
 $\{b'_0, \dots, b'_n\}$

and suppose we want to solve for

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \beta_j b'_j(t_i) = y_i \quad i=0, \dots, n \quad (*)$$

$b'_j \in \text{span}\{b_0, \dots, b_n\} \Rightarrow \exists \{\mu_{kij}\}_{k=0, \dots, n}$  s.t.

$$b'_j(t_i) = \sum_{k=0}^n \mu_{kij} b_k(t_i)$$

$$(*) \Leftrightarrow \sum_{j=0}^n \beta_j \left( \sum_{k=0}^n \mu_{kij} b_k(t_i) \right) = y_i$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\left( \sum_{j=0}^n \beta_j \mu_{kij} \right)}_{\alpha_k} b_k(t_i) = y_i$$

Unique solvability of  $(*) \Leftrightarrow$

unique solvability of

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \alpha_k b_k(t_i) = y_i$$

$i=0, \dots, n$

Note: cardinal basis  $\{b_0, \dots, b_n\}$

yields  $A=I$



## 5.2. Global Polynomial Interpolation

Polynomials of degree  $\leq k$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$P_k := \left\{ t \mapsto \sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i t^i, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

monomials:  $t \mapsto t^i$

monomial representation of a polynomial:

linear combination of basis functions  $t \mapsto t^i$

$$t \mapsto \alpha_k t^k + \dots + \alpha_1 t + \alpha_0$$

$$\dim P_k = k+1, P_k \subset C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$$

$\Rightarrow$  polynomial of degree  $k$  is determined

by  $k+1$  points

advantage of polynomials

- differentiation & integration is easy to compute
- efficient evaluation through Horner scheme

$$t(\dots(t(t(\alpha_k t + \alpha_{k-1}) + \alpha_{k-2}) + \dots + \alpha_1) + \alpha_0$$

### C++-code 5.2.7: Horner scheme (vectorized version)

```

2 // Efficient evaluation of a polynomial in monomial representation
3 // using the Horner scheme (5.2.6)
4 // IN: p = vector of monomial coefficients, length = degree + 1
5 // (leading coefficient in p(0), MATLAB convention Rem. 5.2.4)
6 // t = vector of evaluation points t_i
7 // OUT: y = polynomial evaluated at t_i
8 void horner(const VectorXd& p, const VectorXd& t, VectorXd& y) {
9     const VectorXd::Index n = t.size();
10    y.resize(n); y = p(0)*VectorXd::Ones(n);
11    for (unsigned i = 1; i < p.size(); ++i)
12        y = t.cwiseProduct(y) + p(i)*VectorXd::Ones(n);
13 }

```

$$p = [\alpha_k, \dots, \alpha_0]$$

Computational complexity:  $\mathcal{O}(k)$

- Approximation property of polynomials

### 5.2.2. Theory

**Lagrange polynomial interpolation problem**

Given the **simple nodes**  $t_0, \dots, t_n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $-\infty < t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_n < \infty$  and the values  $y_0, \dots, y_n \in \mathbb{R}$  compute  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$  such that

$$p(t_j) = y_j \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, n. \quad (5.2.9)$$

$\uparrow$   
 $(n+1) \times (n+1)$  LSE

We know:  $\dim \mathcal{P}_n = n+1$

and monomials  $\{t \mapsto t^k\}_{k=0}^n$  form a basis

of  $\mathcal{P}_n$

Could build matrix  $A$  as before ...

Easier approach: building a cardinal basis

for  $\{t_j\}_{j=0}^n$  and  $S = \mathcal{P}_n$  (i.e.  $A = I$ )

Lagrange polynomials:

$$L_i(t) := \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{t - t_j}{t_i - t_j} \quad i = 0, \dots, n$$

- $L_i \in \mathcal{P}_n$  ✓

- $L_i(t_l) = \delta_{il}$  ?

$$L_i(t_l) = \prod_{\substack{j=0 \\ j \neq i}}^n \frac{t_l - t_j}{t_i - t_j} = \begin{cases} \prod_{j \neq i} \frac{t_l - t_j}{t_i - t_j} = 1 & \text{if } l=i \\ \underline{\underline{0}} & \text{if } l \neq i \end{cases}$$

- Linear independence?

Consider:

$$y_0 L_0(t) + y_1 L_1(t) + \dots + y_n L_n(t) = 0$$

Then, choosing  $t = t_i$

$$y_i \underbrace{L_i(t_i)}_{=1} = 0 \Rightarrow y_i = 0$$

plug in all  $t_i$  for  $i=0, \dots, n$

$$\Rightarrow y_0 = y_1 = \dots = y_n = 0.$$

$\Rightarrow$  Linear independence.

$n+1$  linearly ind. polynomials  $L_0(t), \dots, L_n(t) \in \mathcal{P}_n$

$\Rightarrow$  Lagrange polynomials are a cardinal basis

for  $\{t_i\}_{i=0}^n$  and  $\mathcal{P}_n$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Existence & uniqueness of interpolant.

**Theorem 5.2.14. Existence & uniqueness of Lagrange interpolation polynomial**  $\rightarrow$  [?, Thm. 8.1], [?, Satz 8.3]

The general Lagrange polynomial interpolation problem admits a unique solution  $p \in \mathcal{P}_n$ .

$$p(t) = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i L_i(t)$$

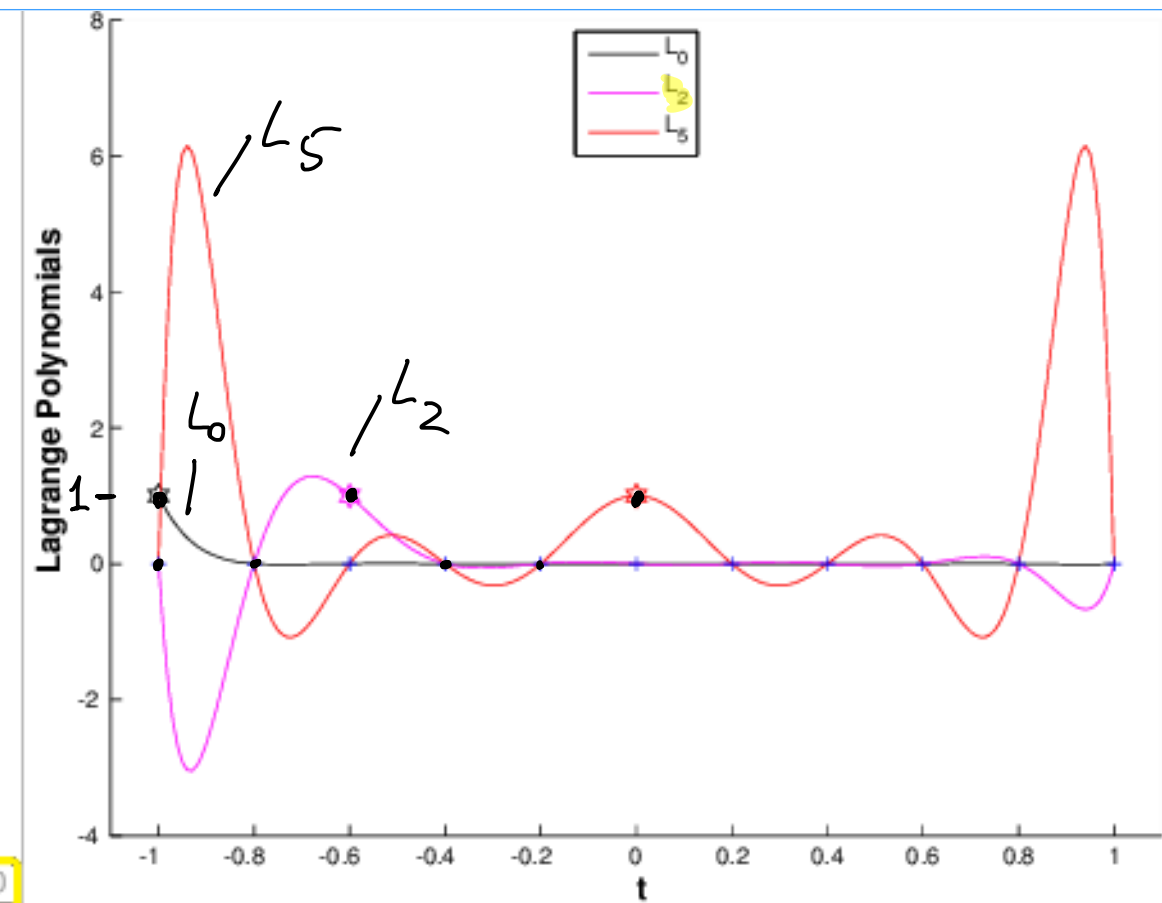


Fig. 170