# Numerical Analysis and Computing

Lecture Notes #14
— Approximation Theory —
Trigonometric Polynomial Approximation

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Trig. Polynomial Approx.

**—** (1/25)

#### Outline

- 1 Trigonometric Polynomial Approximation
  - Introduction
  - Fourier Series
- The Discrete Fourier Transform
  - Introduction
  - Discrete Orthogonality of the Basis Functions
- Trigonometric Least Squares Solution
  - Expressions
  - Examples

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Trigonometric Polynomials: A Very Brief History

$$P(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n \sin(nx)$$

- 1750s Jean Le Rond d'Alembert used finite sums of sin(nx) and cos(nx) to study vibrations of a string.
- 17xx Use adopted by Leonhard Euler (leading mathematician at the time  $\Rightarrow$  validation for the approach).
- 17xx Daniel Bernoulli advocates use of **infinite** (as above) sums of sin and cos.
- 18xx **Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier** used these infinite series to study heat flow. Developed theory.

Fourier Series: First Observations

For each positive integer n, the set of functions  $\{\Phi_0, \Phi_1, \dots, \Phi_{2n-1}\}$ , where

$$\begin{cases}
\Phi_0(x) = \frac{1}{2} \\
\Phi_k(x) = \cos(kx), & k = 1, ..., n \\
\Phi_{n+k}(x) = \sin(kx), & k = 1, ..., n - 1
\end{cases}$$

is an **Orthogonal set** on the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$  with respect to the weight function w(x) = 1.

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**— (4/25)** 

# Orthogonality

Orthogonality follows from the fact that integrals over  $[-\pi, \pi]$  of  $\cos(kx)$  and  $\sin(kx)$  are zero (except  $\cos(0)$ ), and products can be rewritten as sums:

$$\begin{cases} \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 &=& \frac{\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \\ \cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 &=& \frac{\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \\ \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 &=& \frac{\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \end{cases}.$$

Let  $\mathcal{T}_n$  be the set of all linear combinations of the functions  $\{\Phi_0, \Phi_1, \dots, \Phi_{2n-1}\}$ ; this is the **set of trigonometric polynomials** of degree  $\leq n$ .

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**—** (5/25)

The Fourier Series, S(x)

For  $f \in C[-\pi, \pi]$ , we seek the **continuous least squares** approximation by functions in  $\mathcal{T}_n$  of the form

$$S_n(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + a_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)),$$

where, thanks to orthogonality

$$a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(kx) dx, \quad b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(kx) dx.$$

Definition (Fourier Series)

The limit

$$S(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_n(x)$$

is called the **Fourier Series** of f.

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**—** (6/25)

2 of 2

Example: Approximating f(x) = |x| on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ 

1 of 2

First we note that f(x) and  $\cos(kx)$  are even functions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  and  $\sin(kx)$  are odd functions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . Hence,

$$a_{0} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \, dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} x \, dx = \pi.$$

$$a_{k} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \cos(kx) \, dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} x \cos(kx) \, dx$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{2}{\pi} x \frac{\sin(kx)}{k}}_{0} \Big|_{0}^{\pi} - \frac{2}{k\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} 1 \cdot \sin(kx) \, dx$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{2}{\pi k^{2}} [\cos(k\pi) - \cos(0)]}_{0} = \underbrace{\frac{2}{\pi k^{2}} [(-1)^{k} - 1]}_{0}.$$

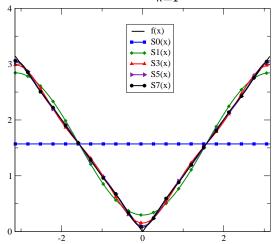
$$b_{k} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \underbrace{|x| \sin(kx)}_{0} \, dx = 0.$$

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**—** (7/25)

Example: Approximating f(x) = |x| on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ 

We can write down  $S_n(x) = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^k - 1}{k^2} \cos(kx)$ 



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-(8/25)

### The Discrete Fourier Transform: Introduction

The discrete Fourier transform, a.k.a. the finite Fourier transform, is a transform on samples of a function.

It, and its "cousins," are the most widely used mathematical transforms; applications include:

- Signal Processing
  - Image Processing
  - Audio Processing
- Data compression
- A tool for partial differential equations
- etc...

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-(9/25)

## "Borrowed" Images

Brain Diffusion Tensor Imaging



**Figure:** The fornix runs up from the hippocampus (an area important in memory formation) and ends in the hypothalamus (an area important in hunger and sleep regulation). Credit: Owen Philips (Google+, 18 April 2012).



Figure: Brain connectivity — the average connections of a group of people; our brains have largely the same underlying connections. Credit: Owen Philips (Google+, 3 April 2012).

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-(10/25)

## The Discrete Fourier Transform

Suppose we have 2m data points,  $(x_i, f_i)$ , where

$$x_j = -\pi + \frac{j\pi}{m}$$
, and  $f_j = f(x_j)$ ,  $j = 0, 1, \dots, 2m - 1$ .

The discrete least squares fit of a trigonometric polynomial  $S_n(x) \in \mathcal{T}_n$  minimizes

$$E(S_n) = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} [S_n(x_j) - f_j]^2.$$

# Orthogonality of the Basis Functions?

We know that the basis functions

$$\begin{cases}
\Phi_0(x) = \frac{1}{2} \\
\Phi_k(x) = \cos(kx), & k = 1, ..., n \\
\Phi_{n+k}(x) = \sin(kx), & k = 1, ..., n - 1
\end{cases}$$

are orthogonal with respect to integration over the interval.

**The Big Question:** Are they orthogonal in the discrete case? Is the following true:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \Phi_k(x_j) \Phi_l(x_j) = \alpha_k \delta_{k,l} \quad ???$$

Orthogonality of the Basis Functions! (A Lemma)...

Proof of Lemma

1 of 3

Lemma

If the integer r is not a multiple of 2m, then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1}\cos(rx_j) = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1}\sin(rx_j) = 0.$$

Moreover, if r is not a multiple of m, then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} [\cos(rx_j)]^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} [\sin(rx_j)]^2 = m.$$

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**—** (13/25)

Recalling long-forgotten (or quite possible never seen) facts from **Complex Analysis** — **Euler's Formula**:

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$
.

Thus.

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \cos(rx_j) + i \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \sin(rx_j) = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} [\cos(rx_j) + i \sin(rx_j)] = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} e^{irx_j}.$$

Since

$$e^{irx_j}=e^{ir(-\pi+j\pi/m)}=e^{-ir\pi}e^{irj\pi/m}$$

we get

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \cos(rx_j) + i \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \sin(rx_j) = e^{-ir\pi} \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} e^{irj\pi/m}.$$

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— (14/25)

3 of 3

Proof of Lemma

2 of 3

**— (15/25)** 

Since  $\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} e^{irj\pi/m}$  is a **geometric series** with first term 1, and ratio  $e^{ir\pi/m} \neq 1$ , we get

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2m-1} e^{irj\pi/m} = \frac{1 - (e^{ir\pi/m})^{2m}}{1 - e^{ir\pi/m}} = \frac{1 - e^{2ir\pi}}{1 - e^{ir\pi/m}}.$$

This is zero since

$$1 - e^{2ir\pi} = 1 - \cos(2r\pi) - i\sin(2r\pi) = 1 - 1 - i \cdot 0 = 0.$$

This shows the first part of the lemma:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \cos(rx_j) = \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \sin(rx_j) = 0.$$

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Proof of Lemma

If r is not a multiple of m, then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2m-1} [\cos(rx_i)]^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{2m-1} \frac{1+\cos(2rx_i)}{2} = \sum_{i=0}^{2m-1} \frac{1}{2} = m.$$

Similarly (use  $\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$ )

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} [\sin(rx_j)]^2 = m.$$

This proves the second part of the lemma.

We are now ready to show that the basis functions are orthogonal.

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**— (16/25)** 

# Showing Orthogonality of the Basis Functions

Recall

$$\begin{cases} \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 &=& \frac{\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) - \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \\ \cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 &=& \frac{\cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + \cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \\ \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 &=& \frac{\sin(\theta_1 - \theta_2) + \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}{2} \end{cases}.$$

Thus for any pair  $k \neq I$ 

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} \Phi_k(x_j) \Phi_l(x_j)$$

is a zero-sum of sin or cos, and when k = I, the sum is m.

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Using

- [1] Our standard framework for deriving the least squares solution set the partial derivatives with respect to all parameters equal to zero.
- [2] The orthogonality of the basis functions.

We find the coefficients in the summation

Finally: The Trigonometric Least Squares Solution

$$S_n(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + a_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx))$$
:

$$a_k = rac{1}{m} \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} f_j \cos(kx_j), \quad b_k = rac{1}{m} \sum_{j=0}^{2m-1} f_j \sin(kx_j).$$

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— (18/25)

Example: Discrete Least Squares Approximation

1 of 3

Let 
$$f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + x + 1/(x - 4)$$
 for  $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$ .  
Let  $x_j = -\pi + j\pi/5$ ,  $j = 0, 1, \dots, 9$ ., *i.e.*

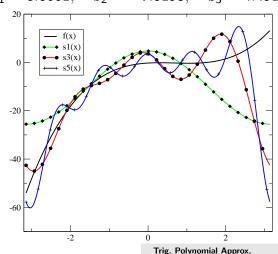
j	$x_j$	$f_j$
0	-3.14159	-54.02710
1	-2.51327	-31.17511
2	-1.88495	-15.85835
3	-1.25663	-6.58954
4	-0.62831	-1.88199
5	0	-0.25
6	0.62831	-0.20978
7	1.25663	-0.28175
8	1.88495	1.00339
9	2.51327	5.08277

Example: Discrete Least Squares Approximation

2 of 3

We get the following coefficients:

$$a_0 = -20.837, \quad a_1 = 15.1322, \quad a_2 = -9.0819, \quad a_3 = 7.9803$$
  
 $b_1 = 8.8661, \quad b_2 = -7.8193, \quad b_3 = 4.4910.$ 



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Example: Discrete Least Squares Approximation

3 of 3

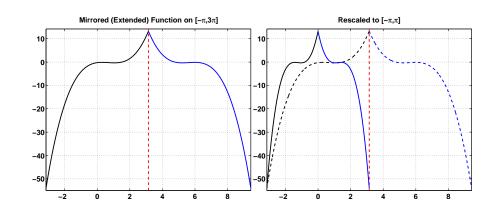
Example #1, with Periodic Extension

1 of 2

Notes:

- [1] The approximation gets better as  $n \to \infty$ .
- [2] Since all the  $S_n(x)$  are  $2\pi$ -periodic, we will always have a problem when  $f(-\pi) \neq f(\pi)$ . [Fix: Periodic extension.] On the following two slides we see the performance for a  $2\pi$ -periodic f.
- [3] It seems like we need  $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$  operations to compute  $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$  and  $\tilde{\mathbf{b}}$  m sums, with m additions and multiplications. There is however a fast  $\mathcal{O}(m\log_2(m))$  algorithm that finds these coefficients. We will talk about this **Fast Fourier Transform** next time.

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Example #1, with Periodic Extension

2 of 2

Example(2): Discrete Least Squares Approximation

1 of 2

Let 
$$f(x) = 2x^2 + \cos(3x) + \sin(2x)$$
,  $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$ .  
Let  $x_j = -\pi + j\pi/5$ ,  $j = 0, 1, \dots, 9$ ., *i.e.*

j	$x_j$	$f_j$
0	-3.14159	18.7392
1	-2.51327	13.8932
2	-1.88495	8.5029
3	-1.25663	1.7615
4	-0.62831	-0.4705
5	0	1.0000
6	0.62831	1.4316
7	1.25663	2.9370
8	1.88495	7.3273
9	2.51327	11.9911

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**— (24/25)** 

**—** (25/25)

We get the following coefficients:

$$a_0 = -8.2685,$$
  $a_1 = 2.2853,$   $a_2 = -0.2064,$   $a_3 = 0.8729$   $b_1 = 0,$   $b_2 = 1,$   $b_3 = 0.$ 

