

1-dimension Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT) and circulant covariance matrices

Warm-up: Observing a cos/sin basis on a grid.

Start by considering a function $f: [0, P] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with a basis expansion given as follows

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \cos(x \tau_k) + \beta_k \sin(x \tau_k).$$

lets examine how α_k, β_k and τ_k relate to properties of f and the vector

$$\mathbf{v} := (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N)^T$$

defined by

$$v_n := f\left(\frac{(n-1)\frac{P}{N}}{N}\right)$$

for $n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, this span through a uniform grid on $[0, P]$

τ_k characterizes the frequency of $\sin(x \tau_k)$ and $\cos(x \tau_k)$.

The corresponding wavelength, also called wavenumber, is given by $\frac{2\pi}{\tau_k}$

as x moves from 0 to $\frac{2\pi}{\tau_k}$ $\sin(x \tau_k)$ and $\cos(x \tau_k)$ traverse a single wave

Note if $\forall k \exists g \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\rho \tau_k = 2\pi g$, i.e. $\tau_k \in \frac{2\pi}{P} \cdot \mathbb{Z}$ $\forall k$ then f is periodic with period P .

For now lets assume

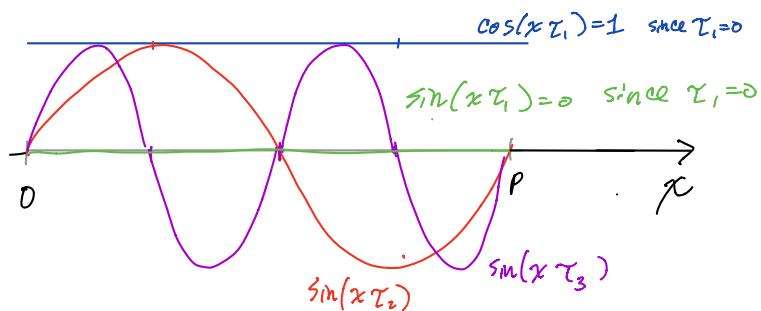
$$\tau_k \in \frac{2\pi}{P} \cdot \mathbb{Z}, \quad \forall k$$

To make things even simpler lets assume

$$\tau_k = (k-1) \frac{2\pi}{P}$$

These k 's span $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, N\}$

lets plot some of the first few basis functions



α_1 : mean value of f

β_1 : has no impact on f

\vdots
 α_k & β_k : quantifies the magnitude of f variation at length scale given by wavelength

$$\frac{2\pi}{\tau_k} = \frac{2\pi}{(k-1) \frac{2\pi}{P}} = \frac{P}{k-1}$$

\downarrow
as $k \rightarrow \infty$ the wavelengths get shorter, i.e. higher frequency

Now consider the case that we only observe f on a grid of size N .

Set

$$v = (v_1, \dots, v_N)^T$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_n &= f(x_n) \\ x_n &= (n-1) \frac{P}{N} \end{aligned}$$

$\left\{x_1, \dots, x_N\right\}$ are N equally spaced grid points in $[0, P]$ with $x_1=0$ & spacing $\Delta x = \frac{P}{N}$

The basis expansion of f gives an "over parameterized" basis expansion of v

$$v = \alpha_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \cos(x_n \tau_1) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} + \beta_1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sin(x_n \tau_1) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

At $k=1$ these two basis vectors are constant ... just like the continuous versions

$$+ \alpha_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \cos(x_n \tau_2) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} + \beta_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \sin(x_n \tau_2) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} +$$

At $k=2$ these look similar to the continuous basis functions

At $k \approx \frac{N}{2}+1$
(i.e half the grid size)
something interesting happens.

To make life easier suppose N is even.

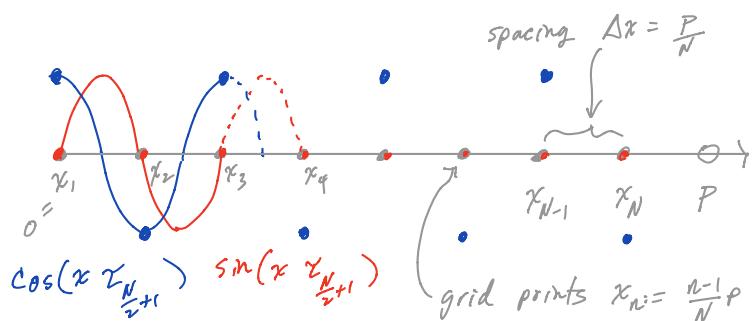
We can simplify the basis function corresponding to $k = \frac{N}{2}+1$ by noticing

$$\begin{aligned} \text{basis freq} &= \frac{\pi}{\Delta x} \\ &= \left(\frac{N}{2}+1-1\right) \frac{2\pi}{P} \\ &= \frac{2\pi}{2\left(\frac{P}{N}\right)} \\ &= \frac{2\pi}{2\Delta x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{basis wavelength} = \frac{2\pi}{\text{basis freq}}$$

= $2\Delta x$ ← twice the grid spacing

Here is a picture:



Notice that the \sin term is indistinguishable from zero and the \cos term is at maximum oscillation.

Def: frequency $= \frac{2\pi}{2\Delta x}$ is called the Nyquist frequency

What happens for terms with $k > \frac{N}{2} + 1$?

The magic of cos & sin result in an "aliasing" so that

$$\cos(x\zeta_k) \& \sin(x\zeta_k)$$

 Indistinguishable on $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$

$$\cos(x\zeta) \& \sin(x\zeta)$$

 for some ζ closer to zero.

Example:

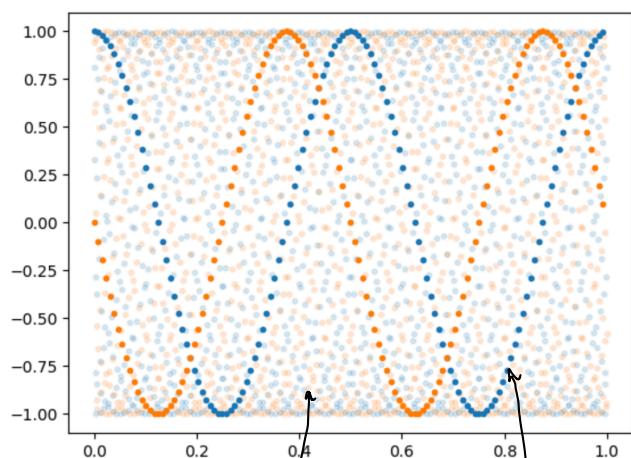
Plot of $\cos(x\zeta_k)$ & $\sin(x\zeta_k)$ on two grids.

Filled dots show grid

$$x_n = (n-1) \frac{1}{128}$$

Open & transparent dots show grid

$$y_m = (m-1) \frac{1}{1280}$$



$$\cos(y_m \zeta_k)$$

$$\cos(x_n \zeta_k)$$

So the end result is that the infinite expansion ...

$$v_n = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \cos(x_n \zeta_k) + \beta_k \sin(x_n \zeta_k)$$

Collapses into a sum with $\frac{N}{2}$ terms

$$v_n = \sum_{k=1}^{N/2+1} \alpha'_k \cos(x_n \zeta_k) + \beta'_k \sin(x_n \zeta_k)$$



higher terms
so the degrees
of freedom match
both LHS & RHS.

higher terms
folding into
lower freq
terms...

called aliasing

This is just a warm up to see how the continuous Fourier transform and discrete Fourier transform interact

Now lets move to the discrete Fourier Transform.

Discrete Fourier Transform. (1-d)

Sometimes written DFT or FFT

Definition:

For every positive integer $N \geq 2$ let

$$w_N := \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi}{N}\right)$$

where $i = \sqrt{-1}$

An important feature of w_N is that it is an " n^{th} root of unity"

$$\begin{aligned} \text{i.e. } w_N^{\pm N} &= \exp\left(-i \frac{2\pi}{N} (\pm N)\right) \\ &= \exp(\pm i 2\pi) \\ &= \cos(\pm 2\pi) + i \sin(\pm 2\pi) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

This will be important soon!

Definition:

The DFT is the $\mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ matrix defined by

$$W_N[k, n] := w_N^{(k-1)(n-1)}$$

↑ ↗
rows indexed by $k \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ columns indexed by $n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$

The DFT transform of $v \in \mathbb{C}^N$ or $v \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is simply

$$z = W_N v$$

Fundamental fact:

$$W_N^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} W_N^H$$

adjoint or
"transpose & conj"
cols indexed by k
rows indexed by n

$$= \frac{1}{N} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & w_N^{(n-1)(k-1)} \\ \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

Side Remark: Notice $W_N^T = W_N$ so

$$W_N^H = \bar{W}_N = NW^{-1}.$$

Written out explicitly:

$$W_N = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(-i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(k-1)) \\ \vdots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$W_N^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(i \frac{2\pi}{N}(k-1)(n-1)) \\ \vdots & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that due to $W_N^{-1} = \frac{1}{N} W_N^H$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} I &= W_N W_N^{-1} \\ &= W_N \left(\frac{1}{N} W_N^H \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} W_N \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} W_N \right)^H \end{aligned}$$

Therefore if we set $U_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} W_N$ then U_N is unitary, i.e.

$$U_N U_N^H = I$$

written explicitly

$$U_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(-i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(k-1)) \\ \dots & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U_N^H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(k-1)) \\ \dots & \end{bmatrix}$$

Unitary

Notice that we are free to choose other scalings ...

the following will become important for relating DCT and the continuous Fourier transform when the column indices of W_N & U_N (i.e. "n") are associated to the grid $x_n = (n-1) \frac{P}{N}$

$$\tilde{f}_N = \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(-i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(k-1)) \\ \dots & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{f}_N^{-1} = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\Delta x N} \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \exp(i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(k-1)) \\ \dots & \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{with } \Delta x = \frac{P}{N}$$

Note: The notation \tilde{f}_N leaves the dependence on Δx implicit.

In Julia the FFTW package gives access to these operators.

$$W_N = \text{plan-fft}(\dots) \quad \text{operator form of fft(\cdot)}$$

$$U_N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} * \text{plan-fft}(\dots)$$

$$\tilde{f}_N = \frac{(P/\mu)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} * \text{plan-fft}(\dots)$$

$$W_N^{-1} = \text{plan-ifft}(\dots) \quad \text{operator form of ifft(\cdot)}$$

$$N W_N^{-1} = W_N^H = \text{plan-bfft}(\dots)$$

operator form of bfft(\cdot)

So, now given $v \in \mathbb{R}^N$ or \mathbb{C}^N we can easily ask Julia to compute

$$z = \text{fft}(v) = W_N v$$

where

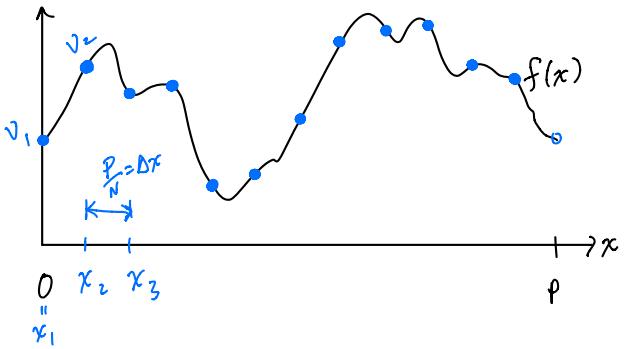
$$z_k = \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(n-1)(k-1)} v_n.$$

The goal in this part of the notes is to show how to interpret z_k in the case that

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ v_n \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots \\ f(x_n) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{for } x_n = \frac{(n-1)}{N} P, n = 1, \dots, N$$

for some smooth $f: [0, P] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C}



Notice there are two things the above picture gives us

- (1) The indices of v_1, \dots, v_n map one-to-one to gridpoints $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$

- (2) The pairs (x_n, v_n) give a discrete approximation of the continuous map $x \mapsto f(x)$

The implication of (1) is that we can interpret $\mathbf{z} = W_N \mathbf{v}$ as the coefficients in a sin/cos basis expansion of \mathbf{v}

The question is: what are the corresponding sin/cos frequencies?

To derive them first notice that

$$\mathbf{v} = W_N^{-1} \mathbf{z} = \frac{1}{N} W_N^H \mathbf{z}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} v_n &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \bar{w}_N^{(n-1)(k-1)} z_k \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \exp\left(i \frac{2\pi}{N} (n-1)(k-1)\right) z_k \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \exp\left(i \underbrace{[(n-1)\frac{P}{N}]}_{=: x_n} \underbrace{[(k-1)\frac{2\pi}{P}]}_{=: \gamma_k}\right) z_k \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N (\cos(x_n \gamma_k) + i \sin(x_n \gamma_k)) z_k \end{aligned}$$

P is the period of the interval x_1, \dots, x_N sampled

So for each $k=1, \dots, N$ the DFT value z_k is the coefficient (with a $\frac{1}{N}$ factor) on the harmonic basis with "frequency"

$$\gamma_k = (k-1) \frac{2\pi}{P}$$

However recall that when $\cos(x \gamma_k)$ and $\sin(x \gamma_k)$ are observed on a grid x_1, \dots, x_n and $\gamma_k > \gamma_{N+1} = \text{Nyquist}$ the effective frequency on the grid is closer to zero.

To derive the effective frequency of

$$x \mapsto \exp(ix\zeta_k)$$

when observed on grid x_1, \dots, x_N we use the N^{th} root of unity property

$$\omega_N^{\pm N} = 1 \quad (\text{derived above})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore 1 &= \left(\bar{\omega}_n^{\pm N}\right)^{N-1} \\ &= \exp\left(i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)(\pm N)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(i \left(\frac{n-1}{N}P\right)\left(\pm N \frac{2\pi}{P}\right)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(i \underbrace{\left(n-1\right) \frac{P}{N}}_{= x_n} \underbrace{\left(\pm \frac{2\pi}{P/N}\right)}_{= \pm \frac{2\pi}{\Delta x}}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(ix_n \left(\pm 2ny_f\right)\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\curvearrowleft ny_f = \frac{2\pi}{2\Delta x}$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \exp(ix_n \zeta_k) &\stackrel{\text{Nominal freq.}}{\downarrow} \stackrel{g \in \mathbb{Z}}{\downarrow} \\ &= \exp(ix_n (\zeta_k + g 2ny_f)) \\ &= \exp(ix_n (\zeta_k \bmod \frac{2\pi}{\Delta x})) \end{aligned}$$

Definition:

The effective frequency ζ^{ny_f} associated with ζ and a grid

$$x_n := (n-1) \frac{P}{N}, \quad n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$$

is defined to be the number which satisfies the following two conditions:

- (i) $\zeta^{ny_f} \in \left\{ \zeta + g 2ny_f : g \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$
- (ii) $\zeta^{ny_f} \in [-ny_f, ny_f]$

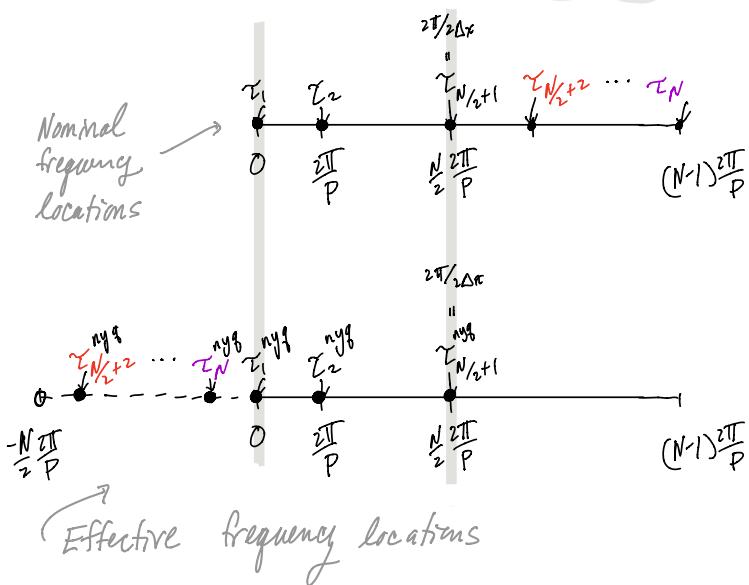
Notice it is just my convention to choose left open/right closed here. You can choose left closed/right open if you want.

$$ny_f = \frac{\pi}{\Delta x} = \frac{N}{2} \frac{2\pi}{P} = \frac{N}{2} \Delta k$$

Going back to our DFT decomposition of v we have

$$\begin{aligned} v_n &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \exp(ix_n \zeta_k) z_k \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \exp(ix_n \zeta_k^{ny_f}) z_k \end{aligned}$$

Here is the picture when N is even



when N is odd we have

(letting $N/2$ denote $\lfloor N/2 \rfloor$)

$$\tilde{\gamma}_1 = 0 \quad < \text{nyg}$$

$$\tilde{\gamma}_2 = \frac{2\pi}{P} \quad < \text{nyg}$$

:

$$\tilde{\gamma}_{N/2+1} = \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor \frac{2\pi}{P} \quad < \frac{N/2}{2} \frac{2\pi}{P} = \text{nyg}$$

$$\tilde{\gamma}_{N/2+2} = \left(\left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor + 1 \right) \frac{2\pi}{P} \quad > \text{nyg}$$

:

$$\tilde{\gamma}_N = (N-1) \frac{2\pi}{P} \quad > \text{nyg}$$

so the picture of where the effective frequencies move to doesn't change, except that no frequency $\tilde{\gamma}_k$ attains the exact nyquist limit in the case N is odd.

Now lets look at ...

(2) The pairs (x_n, v_n) give a discrete approximation of the continuous map $x \mapsto f(x)$

... which suggests that $(\tilde{\gamma}_k^{\text{nyg}}, z_k)$ approximates the continuous Fourier transform (CFT) of f . Without worrying about rigour lets define the CFT of f as follows

$$\tilde{f}(w) = \int e^{-ix \cdot w} f(x) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad (\text{CFT})$$

and the inverse transform

$$f(x) = \int e^{ix \cdot w} \tilde{f}(w) \frac{dw}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad (\text{ICFT}).$$

If one wanted to approximate $\tilde{f}(w)$ with a Riemann sum over $x_1, \dots, x_N \in [0, P]$ with $x_n = (n-1) \frac{P}{N}$

$$\tilde{f}(w) \approx \sum_{n=1}^N e^{-ix_n \cdot w} f(x_n) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \quad (*)$$

if we restrict w to effective frequencies, i.e.

$$w \in \left\{ \tilde{\gamma}_1^{\text{nyg}}, \dots, \tilde{\gamma}_N^{\text{nyg}} \right\}$$

Then (*) simplifies to

$$z = \frac{dx}{\sqrt{2\pi}} W_N v = \mathcal{F}_N v$$

under the correspondence $z_k \approx \tilde{f}(w)$
where $\tilde{\gamma}_k^{\text{nyg}} = w$

Likewise

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \Phi_N^{-1} z = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{N\Delta x} \bar{W}_N z \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{NP/N} \bar{W}_N z \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{(2\pi)/P}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \bar{W}_N z \end{aligned}$$

grid spacing
of the effective
fourier frequencies.

call it $\Delta \omega$

∴

$$\begin{aligned} v_n &= \frac{(2\pi)/P}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{k=1}^N \exp(i x_n \chi_k^{ny}) z_k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \exp(i x_n \chi_k^{ny}) z_k \frac{\Delta \omega}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \end{aligned}$$

which is clearly a Riemann
Sum discretization of

$$f(x_n) = \int \exp(i x_n w) \tilde{f}(w) \frac{dw}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

over gridded w 's in $\{\chi_1^{ny}, \dots, \chi_n^{ny}\}$.

To summarize for

$$\begin{aligned} k, n \in \{1, \dots, N\} \\ \omega_k := \chi_k^{ny} \in \left(\frac{2\pi}{P}\mathbb{Z}\right) \cap \left(-\frac{N\pi}{P}, \frac{N\pi}{P}\right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta \omega = \frac{2\pi}{P}$$

$$x_n \in \left(\frac{P}{N}\mathbb{Z}\right) \cap [0, P), \quad \Delta x = \frac{P}{N}$$

Discrete approx of CFT

DFT

$$\tilde{f}(\omega_k) = \sum_{n=1}^N e^{-ix_n \omega_k} f(x_n) \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$f(x_n) = \sum_{k=1}^N e^{ix_n \omega_k} \tilde{f}(\omega_k) \frac{\Delta \omega}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

$$v = \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} W_N^{-1} z$$

These are the
same under re-labeling,

$$v_n = f(x_n), \quad z_k = \tilde{f}(\omega_k)$$

Circulant Covariance Matrices

One of the reasons the Fourier transform is important for us: it diagonalizes stochastic processes which are stationary.

In this section we derive a discrete version of this fact.

Definition:

A N -by- N matrix Σ is circulant if it has the form

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & c_N & & \cdots & c_2 \\ c_2 & c_1 & & & \\ \vdots & c_2 & & & \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & c_N \\ c_N & c_{N-1} & c_2 & c_1 & \end{bmatrix} \quad (*)$$

Theorem:

If Σ has the form (*) then

$$\Sigma = U_N^H \Delta U_N$$

$$\Delta = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_N \end{bmatrix} = W_N \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_N \end{bmatrix}$$

If, in addition, Σ is real and symmetric, then $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$ are real and are the eigenvalues of Σ . Also in this case we additionally have:

$$\Sigma = U_N \Delta U_N^H.$$

Proof:

The proof is based on an analysis of the circular shift permutation matrix:

$$P_N := \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & 0 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & & & & & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & & & \\ & & & & 0 & & & \\ & & & & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{row 1} = [0, \dots, 0] \\ \text{row 2} = [1, 0, \dots, 0] \end{array}$$

Some facts about P_N :

$$(I) \quad P_N \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_N \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e. left multiply by P_N does downward circular shift.

$$(II) \quad P_N^T = P_N^{-1}$$

(III)

$$P_N^m = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & & & & 0 & 1 & & \\ 1 & 0 & & & & & & \\ & & 0 & 1 & & & & \\ & & & & 0 & & & \\ & & & & & 1 & 0 & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{row } m = [0, \dots, 0] \\ \text{row } m+1 = [1, 0, \dots, 0] \end{array}$$

for example $P_N^N = I$

$$(IV) \quad P_N = U_N^H \text{diag}(w_N^0, \dots, w_N^{N-1}) U_N$$

unitary DFT

recall $w_N = \exp(-i \frac{2\pi}{N})$

for a reference to (IV) see

P.J. Davis, "Circulant Matrices", 1979

(II)

$$X \sim N(0, \Sigma) \text{ and } P_N X = X$$

$$\Rightarrow \Sigma = P_N \Sigma P_N^T = P_N \Sigma P_N^{-1}$$

by (II)

$$\Rightarrow P_N \Sigma = \Sigma P_N$$

i.e. Σ and P_N commute

(III)

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= c_1 I + c_2 P_N + c_3 P_N^2 + \dots + c_N P_N^{N-1} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N c_n P_N^{(n-1)} \end{aligned}$$

This follows by direct calculation.

Note: we only need (II) and (III) to prove the theorem... but we will use the other facts later so I've listed them here.

Now to prove the theorem notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= \sum_{n=1}^N c_n P_N^{(n-1)} \quad \text{by (III)} \\ &= U_N^H \underbrace{\left[\sum_{n=1}^N c_n (\text{diag}(w_N^0, \dots, w_N^{N-1}))^{(n-1)} \right]}_{=: \Lambda} U_N \end{aligned}$$

diagonal

$$\text{with } \Lambda_{\phi, k} = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n w_N^{(\phi-1)(n-1)}$$

$$= \phi^{\text{th}} \text{ coordinate of } W_N \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_N \end{bmatrix}$$

as was to be shown.

Now suppose in addition that Σ is real and symmetric. Then

$$\Sigma = \Sigma^T = U_N \Delta U_N^H \quad \text{as was to be shown}$$

and

$$\Sigma = \Sigma^H = U_N^H \Delta U_N$$

so that

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{2} (\Sigma + \Sigma^H) = U_N^H \underbrace{\text{Re}(\Delta)}_{\text{i.e. } \Delta = \text{Re}(\Delta)} U_N$$

i.e. $\Delta = \text{Re}(\Delta)$
as was to be shown.

Finally the fact that

$$\Sigma = U_N^H \Delta U_N$$

$$\Sigma = U_N \Delta U_N^H$$

and that $U_N^T = U_N$ means

$$\Sigma U_N[:, k] = \lambda_k U_N[:, k]$$

$$\Sigma \overline{U_N[:, k]} = \lambda_k \overline{U_N[:, k]}$$

which implies

$$\Sigma \text{Re}(U_N[:, k]) = \lambda_k \text{Re}(U_N[:, k])$$

$$\Sigma \text{Im}(U_N[:, k]) = \lambda_k \text{Im}(U_N[:, k])$$

i.e.

$$n \mapsto \cos(2\pi(n-1)(k-1)/N) / \sqrt{N}$$

$$n \mapsto \sin(-2\pi(n-1)(k-1)/N) / \sqrt{N}$$

are the eigenvectors of Σ with eigenvalue λ_k .



Now we immediately get a result for Gaussian vectors with a circular shift invariance.

Corollary:

If $(x_1, \dots, x_N)^T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$ has the property that

$$(x_1, \dots, x_N)^T \stackrel{D}{=} P_N (x_1, \dots, x_N)^T$$

then

$$\Sigma = U_N^H \Delta U_N$$

where $\Delta = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = W_N \begin{bmatrix} \text{cov}(x_1, x_1) & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \text{cov}(x_N, x_N) \end{bmatrix}$$

↑ ↖
all real.
These are
the eigenvalues
of Σ

first column of Σ

Note: This corollary can be written in different scalings...

$$\Sigma = U_N^H \text{diag}(W_N \Sigma [::, 1]) U_N \quad (\Sigma U)$$

$$= \cancel{\sqrt{N}} W_N^{-1} \text{diag}(W_N \Sigma [::, 1]) \cancel{\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}} W_N \quad (\Sigma W)$$

$$= F_N^{-1} \text{diag}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\Delta x} S_N \Sigma [::, 1]\right) F_N \quad (\Sigma F)$$

... and the form useful for cov modeling in the spectral domain:

$$F_N \Sigma F_N^H \xrightarrow{\text{by (ZF)}} F_N F_N^{-1} \text{diag}\left(\frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{\Delta x} S_N \Sigma [::, 1]\right) F_N F_N^H$$

where $F_N = \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} W_N = \frac{\Delta x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{N} U_N$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} F_N F_N^H &= \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{2\pi} N I \\ &= \left(\frac{P/N}{2\pi}\right)^2 N I = \frac{P/N}{(2\pi)^2} I \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$F_N F_N^H = \frac{\Delta x}{2\pi} I \quad (FF^H)$$

$$F_N \Sigma F_N^H = \frac{1}{2\pi} \text{diag}\left(\sqrt{2\pi} S_N \Sigma [::, 1]\right) \quad (F\Sigma)$$

Remark:

Notice that in the case Σ approximates a kernel integral operator K :

$$\Sigma \begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_N) \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} \int_0^P K(x_i - x) f(x) dx \\ \vdots \\ \int_0^P K(x_n - x) f(x) dx \end{bmatrix}$$

i.e.

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} K(x_1 - x_1) \Delta x & \cdots & K(x_1 - x_N) \Delta x \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ K(x_N - x_1) \Delta x & \cdots & K(x_N - x_N) \Delta x \end{bmatrix}$$

Then we have

$$\Sigma = F_N^{-1} \text{diag}\left(\sqrt{2\pi} F_N v_K\right) F_N \quad (KF)$$

where $v_K := (K(x_1), \dots, K(x_N))^T$

log likelihood of $DFT \cdot X$

Again suppose

X is a Random vector of length N with $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$ and $\text{cov}(X) = \Sigma$.
 Circ shift left by 1

lets see how to compute $\log \Pr(X=x)$

Normally we have

$$\log \Pr(X=x) = -\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2} \log |\Sigma|$$

both these are expensive to compute
 So lets see how to simplify with the DCT.

Let

$$\Delta = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N) = \text{diag}\left(W_N \begin{bmatrix} 2_{1,1} \\ \vdots \\ 2_{N,1} \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

so that

$$x^T \Sigma^{-1} x = x^T U_N^H \Delta^{-1} U_N x$$

$$U_N^H \Delta U_N = (U_N x)^H \Delta (U_N x)$$

↓ since $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$

This is z

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{|z_k|^2}{\lambda_k} \text{ where } z = U_N x$$

and

$$\log |\Sigma| = \log |U_N| + \log |U_N^H| + \sum_{k=1}^N \log \lambda_k$$

Therefore

$$\log \Pr(X=x) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{|z_k|^2}{\lambda_k} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \log \lambda_k$$

Remark: Since X takes values in \mathbb{R}^N there is extra structure in $z = U_N x$ for $X=x$, that can be exploited to cut CPU time in half. Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and $z = W_N x$ (or $U_N x$ or $\Phi_N x$).

For the first coordinate of z :

$$\bar{z}_1 = \sum_{n=1}^N \bar{x}_n = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n = z_1$$

since $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$

For z_k for $k \geq 2$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z}_k &= \sum_{n=1}^N \bar{w}_N^{(n-1)(k-1)} \bar{x}_n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N (w_N)^{-n(n-1)(k-1)} x_n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N (w_N)^{-(n-1)[(k-1)-N]} x_n \\ &\quad \text{since } w_N \text{ is an } N^{\text{th}} \text{ root of 1} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N w_n^{(n-1)[N-k+2-1]} x_n \end{aligned}$$

$$= z_{N-k+2}$$

In particular the "first half" of $(z_1, \dots, z_N)^T$ is a mirror (conj) reflection of the "second half" of $(z_2, \dots, z_N)^T$

Here is a diagram:

Case 1: N is odd

implies $z_1 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{z}_1 \\ \bar{z}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_{N \div 2 + 1} \\ \hline \bar{z}_{N \div 2 + 2} \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_N \\ \vdots \\ z_{N \div 2 + 2} \\ \hline z_{N \div 2 + 1} \\ \vdots \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

even number of terms after \bar{z}_1 halfway

In particular

$$(z_1, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 1})^T = (z_N, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 2})^H$$

which means the terms $z_{N \div 2 + 2}, \dots, z_N$ are redundant.

In Julia one can save computation time using rfft:

takes about $\frac{1}{2}$ the time as fft

$$(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 1})^T = \text{rfft}(x)$$

$\in \mathbb{R}^N$

$$x = \text{i}rfft((z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 1})^T, N)$$

$N \text{ odd}$

To use this rfft output for $\log P(X=x)$ notice

$$\log P(X=x)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \left(\frac{|z_k|^2}{\lambda_k} + \log \lambda_k \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \left(\underbrace{\frac{|\bar{z}_1|^2}{\lambda_1} + \log \lambda_1}_{z_1 \text{ is real \& gets a } \frac{1}{2} \text{ coeff}} \right) - \sum_{k=2}^{N \div 2 + 1} \left(\underbrace{\frac{|z_k|^2}{\lambda_k} + \log \lambda_k}_{\text{these are complex: and get a } 1 \text{ coeff}} \right)$$

Case 2: N is even

implies $z_1 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{z}_1 \\ \bar{z}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_{N \div 2} \\ \hline \boxed{\bar{z}_{N \div 2 + 1}} \\ \bar{z}_{N \div 2 + 2} \\ \vdots \\ \bar{z}_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_N \\ \vdots \\ z_{N \div 2} \\ \hline z_{N \div 2 + 2} \\ \boxed{z_{N \div 2 + 1}} \\ \vdots \\ z_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

odd number of terms after \bar{z}_1 halfway

implies $z_{N \div 2 + 1} \in \mathbb{R}$

Now terms $z_{N \div 2 + 2}, \dots, z_N$ are redundant and we have the additional restriction that $z_{N \div 2 + 1} \in \mathbb{R}$. Julia's rfft still works the same, i.e.

$$(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 1})^T = \text{rfft}(x)$$

$$x = \text{i}rfft((z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{N \div 2 + 1})^T, N)$$

$N \text{ even}$

Also, when N is even we have

$$\log P(X=x) = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{|z_1|^2}{\lambda_1} + \log \lambda_1 \right)$$

z_1 is real & gets a $\frac{1}{2}$ coeff

$$- \sum_{k=2}^{N/2} \left(\frac{|z_k|^2}{\lambda_k} + \log \lambda_k \right)$$

*limit $N/2$
instead of $N/2+1$*

$$-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{|z_{N/2+1}|^2}{\lambda_{N/2+1}} + \log \lambda_{N/2+1} \right)$$

*Complex terms get $z_{N/2+1}$ is real
a 1 weighting and gets a $\frac{1}{2}$ weight*

One advantage of examining $\log P(X=x)$ in both $N=\text{even}$ and $N=\text{odd}$ cases is that examining the likelihood as a function of real and imaginary parts of X one can derive the equivalent simulation model for the unique modes in $Z = U_N X$ as follows:

all independent

$$\begin{cases} z_1 \sim N(0, \lambda_1) \\ z_2 \sim N(0, \frac{\lambda_2}{2}) + iN(0, \frac{\lambda_2}{2}) \\ \vdots \\ z_{N/2} \sim N(0, \frac{\lambda_{N/2}}{2}) + iN(0, \frac{\lambda_{N/2}}{2}) \\ z_{N/2+1} \sim \begin{cases} N(0, \frac{\lambda_{N/2+1}}{2}) + iN(0, \frac{\lambda_{N/2+1}}{2}) & \text{if } N \text{ is odd} \\ N(0, \lambda_{N/2+1}) & \text{if } N \text{ is even} \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Application to stationary processes on the unit circle

Let f denote a mean 0 GRF on S^1 where

$$S^1 := \text{unit circle} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1^2\}.$$

The field f can be indexed by $x \in S^1$ or equiv by angle $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi]$:

$$(f(\varphi) : \varphi \in [0, 2\pi]) \sim \text{GRF}_{S^1}(0, K)$$

$$(f(x) : x = (x_1, x_2)^T, x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1^2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{\sim} \text{GRF}_{S^1}(0, K)$$

with correspondence given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\varphi) \\ \sin(\varphi) \end{bmatrix}$$

In addition suppose f is stationary in the sense that

$$(f(x) : x \in S^1) \stackrel{\text{std. def.}}{=} (f(R_\theta x) : x \in S^1)$$

$$\text{For any rotation } R_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

This implies that $\text{cov}(f(x), f(y))$ depends only on the angular distance θ_{xy} between $x, y \in S^1$, i.e.

$$\text{cov}(f(x), f(y)) = K(\theta_{xy}).$$

$$\text{where } \langle x, y \rangle = \cos(\theta_{xy})$$

In addition note that

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - y\|_2^2 &= \|x\|_2^2 + \|y\|_2^2 - 2 \langle x, y \rangle \\ &= 2 - 2 \cos(\theta_{xy}) \\ &= 2(1 - \cos(\theta_{xy})) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \cos(\theta_{xy}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So that} \\ \text{cov}(f(x), f(y)) &= K(\theta_{xy}) \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Function of geodesic} \\ \text{distance} \end{array} \\ &= K\left(\cos^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\|x - y\|^2\right)\right) \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Function of} \\ \text{cordal} \\ \text{distance} \end{array} \\ &= K(\cos^{-1}(\langle x, y \rangle)) \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Function of} \\ \langle x, y \rangle \end{array} \end{aligned}$$

Now it is easy to see that when $f(\varphi)$ is observed on a grid

$$\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N \in S^1 \text{ st.}$$

$$\varphi_n := (n-1) \frac{2\pi}{N} \text{ for } n \in \{1, \dots, N\}$$

Then

$$\sqrt{v} := (f(\varphi_1), \dots, f(\varphi_N))^T \sim N(0, \Sigma)$$

where Σ is circulant with entries

$$\Sigma_{n,m} = K(\cos^{-1}(\langle x_n, x_m \rangle))$$

$$x_n = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\varphi_n) \\ \sin(\varphi_n) \end{bmatrix}$$

and setting

$$z^f := F_N v^f$$

we have

$$E((z^f)(z^f)^H) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \text{diag}(\sqrt{\pi} F_N \Sigma [1, 0, \dots, 0]^T)}_{\Theta_N \Sigma F_N^H}$$

$$\Theta_N \Sigma F_N^H \text{ by } (F \Sigma)$$

Remark:

The continuum version of this (as $N \rightarrow \infty$
and replacing Riemann sums with integrals)

Suggests

$$E(f_\gamma \bar{f}_{\gamma'}) = S_{\gamma-\gamma'} C_\gamma^{ff}$$

where

$$f_\gamma := \int_0^{2\pi} \exp(-i\gamma\varphi) f(\varphi) \frac{d\varphi}{2\pi} \quad \text{approximates } \sum_N f_N e^{i\gamma\varphi}$$

$$C_\gamma^{ff} := \int_0^{2\pi} \exp(-i\gamma\varphi) \text{cov}(f(\varphi), f(0)) d\varphi \quad \text{approximates } \sqrt{\pi} \sum_N \sum_{\gamma'}$$

can replace with
 $\exp(i\gamma\varphi)$ or $\cos(\gamma\varphi)$
by symmetry of $\text{cov}(f(\varphi), f(0))$.

S_γ := dirac delta function of frequency

$$\equiv \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\pi} & \text{if } \gamma=0 \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{so that } \int S_\gamma g(\gamma) d\gamma = \frac{1}{2\pi} g(0) d\gamma = g(0)$$

In this case C_γ^{ff} is called the
spectral density of f and yields a
continuous approximation to the discrete
result: i.e.

$$E((z^f)(z^f)^T) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \text{diag}(\sqrt{\pi} \sum_N \sum_{\gamma'})$$

\Downarrow as $N \rightarrow \infty$

$$E(f_\gamma \bar{f}_{\gamma'}) = S_{\gamma-\gamma'} C_\gamma^{ff}$$

White Noise

Usually the process ($f(\varphi) = 4e^{-\int_0^{\varphi} 2\pi}$) as above, is observed with noise:

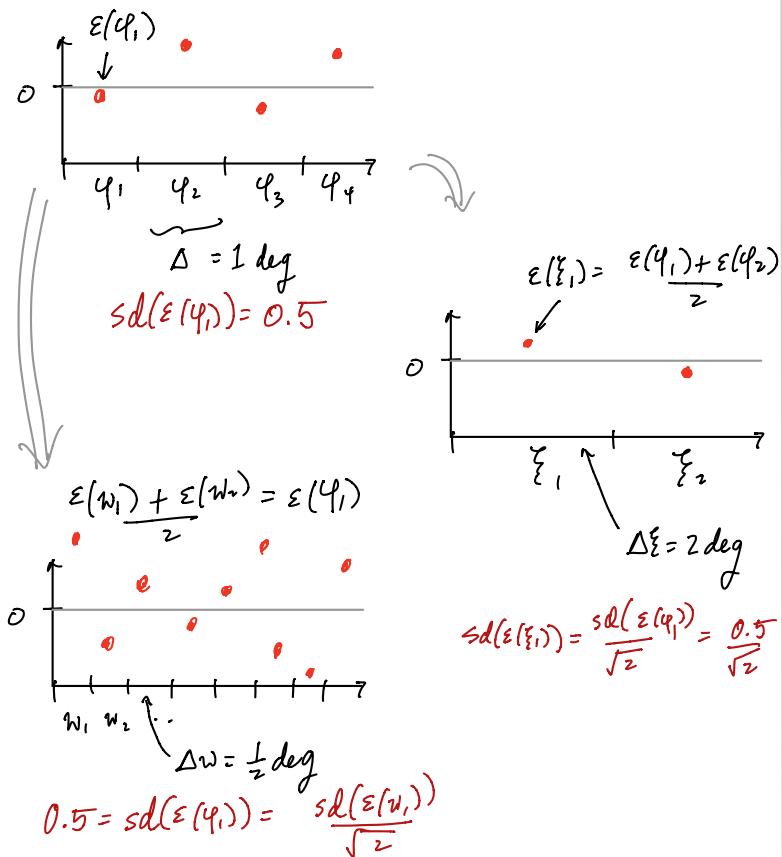
In cosmology often noise is quantified by standard deviation per unit pixel column (i.e. length in 1-d, area in 2-d).

For example one might write

$$\underbrace{d(\varphi)}_{\text{data}} = \underbrace{f(\varphi)}_{\text{signal}} + \underbrace{\varepsilon(\varphi)}_{\text{noise}}$$

where $\varepsilon(\varphi)$ is white noise with $sd(\varepsilon(\varphi_n)) = 0.5$ when observing on a pixel grid with spacing $\Delta\varphi = 1 \text{ deg}$.

The idea is that one can now compute the noise for other grids by up/down sampling and the formulas for variance of averages.



Let's compare this notion of white noise with the more traditional definition:

white noise $W(\varphi)$ satisfies

$$\int f(\varphi) g(\varphi) d\varphi = \text{cov}\left(\int f(\varphi) W(\varphi) d\varphi, \int g(\varphi) W(\varphi) d\varphi\right)$$

To relate $W(\varphi)$ to $\varepsilon(\varphi)$ replace the integral with a Riemann sum over a grid φ_n with spacing $\Delta\varphi$

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_n f(\varphi_n) g(\varphi_n) \Delta\varphi \\ &= \text{cov}\left(\sum_n f(\varphi_n) W(\varphi_n) \Delta\varphi, \sum_n g(\varphi_n) W(\varphi_n) \Delta\varphi\right) \\ &= \sum_{n,m} f(\varphi_n) g(\varphi_m) E(W(\varphi_n) W(\varphi_m)) (\Delta\varphi)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Match left and right sides above gives

$$E(W(\varphi_n) W(\varphi_m)) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Delta\varphi} & \text{if } n=m \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

which has the same scaling in $\Delta\varphi$ as defined for $\varepsilon(\varphi)$

Example:

Let $\text{var}(\varepsilon(\varphi_n)) = \sigma^2$ with $\Delta\varphi = 1 \text{ deg}$.

$$\Delta\varphi = 1 \text{ deg} \Rightarrow \text{var}(\sigma W(\varphi_n)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\varphi} = \sigma^2$$

$$\Delta\xi = 2 \text{ deg} \Rightarrow \text{var}(\sigma W(\xi_n)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\xi} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2\Delta\varphi} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$$

$$\Delta w = \frac{1}{2} \text{ deg} \Rightarrow \text{var}(\sigma W(w_n)) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta w} = \frac{\sigma^2}{(\Delta\varphi/2)} = 2 \sigma^2$$

i.e. $\varepsilon(\varphi) \equiv \sigma W(\varphi)$.

Now we know if we have noise $\varepsilon(\eta)$ with $\text{var}(\varepsilon(\eta)) = \sigma^2$ for a reference grid spacing $\Delta\eta = 1$ then

$$v^\varepsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon(\eta_1) \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon(\eta_N) \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow E((v^\varepsilon)(v^\varepsilon)^T) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \quad \text{in units of } \Delta\eta$$

Let's find $E((z^\varepsilon)(z^\varepsilon)^H)$ when $z_\varepsilon = \mathcal{F}_N v_\varepsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} E((z^\varepsilon)(z^\varepsilon)^H) &= \mathcal{F}_N E((v^\varepsilon)(v^\varepsilon)^T) \mathcal{F}_N^H \xrightarrow{\text{white noise}} \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \\ &= \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \right) \mathcal{F}_N \mathcal{F}_N^H \\ &= \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \quad \xrightarrow{\Delta\eta \propto I} \text{by } (FF^H) \end{aligned}$$

so

$$E((v^\varepsilon)(v^\varepsilon)^H) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \quad \text{pixel grid spacing}$$

$$E((z^\varepsilon)(z^\varepsilon)^H) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \quad \text{Fourier grid spacing.}$$

This explains why it is called white noise ...

$$\nearrow \text{var}(z_1^\varepsilon) = \dots = \text{var}(z_N^\varepsilon) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta}$$

i.e. the variance of the Fourier coefficients is constant (like pure white light)

Here is a summary for a generic noise R.V. X

$$X \sim N(0, \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} E(z z^H) = \frac{\sigma^2}{\Delta\eta} I \\ \text{where } z = \mathcal{F}_N X \end{cases}$$

white noise on a grid

which implies

$$X \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} E(z z^H) = \sigma^2 \frac{\Delta\eta}{\Delta\tau} I \\ \text{where } z = \mathcal{U}_N X \end{cases}$$

This is mostly used when \mathcal{U}_N is meaningful for the application at hand (i.e. when the signal spectral density is known, so using \mathcal{U}_N , rather than \mathcal{F}_N , makes sense)

Otherwise using \mathcal{U}_N is easier to remember

$$X \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I) \Rightarrow \begin{cases} E(w w^H) = \sigma^2 I \\ \text{where } w = \mathcal{U}_N X \end{cases}$$

Beams

Another common feature in random field observations taken with an optical lens is a beam, which models the way light spreads over the pixel detectors as a convolution with a blurring kernel

The beamed process ($f(\varphi)$: $\varphi \in [0, 2\pi]$) is written:

$$B f(\varphi)$$

↑
beam,
i.e. convolution,
operator

↑ signal

where $B f(\varphi) = \int_0^{2\pi} b(\xi - \varphi) f(\xi) d\xi$

↑ azimuth ↓ centered at φ
angle $\in [0, 2\pi]$

for some $b(\varphi) \geq 0$ s.t. $\int_0^{2\pi} b(\varphi) d\varphi = 1$

where $b(\xi)$ is 2π -periodic.

Notice that the discrete matrix version of this operator is a circulant matrix

$B_N^b = \begin{bmatrix} b(\varphi_1 - \varphi_1) \Delta\varphi & \dots & b(\varphi_1 - \varphi_N) \Delta\varphi \\ b(\varphi_2 - \varphi_1) \Delta\varphi & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ b(\varphi_N - \varphi_1) \Delta\varphi & \dots & b(\varphi_N - \varphi_N) \Delta\varphi \end{bmatrix}$

↑
discrete
version
on a grid of
size N

Let $v^b :=$ first column of B_N^b
 $= (b(\varphi_1), \dots, b(\varphi_N))^T$

$v^f := (f(\varphi_1), \dots, f(\varphi_N))^T$

Now our theory for circulant matrices implies

$$\begin{aligned} B_N^b v^f &= U_N^H \text{diag}(S \sqrt{W_N} v^b) U_N v^f \\ &= \mathcal{F}_N^{-1} \text{diag}(\sqrt{2\pi} \mathcal{F}_N v^b) \mathcal{F}_N v^f \end{aligned}$$

to account for
det in the conv
by (KF)

Example: Gaussian beams.

Recall that the Gaussian density on \mathbb{R}^d

$$b(x) = \prod_{i=1}^d \frac{\exp(-(\frac{x_i}{\sigma_b})^2)}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$$

has characteristic function $\phi_b(k)$ given by

$$\phi_b(k) = \prod_{i=1}^d \exp(-\sigma_b^2 k_i^2 / 2)$$

which corresponds to the continuous Fourier transform of b .

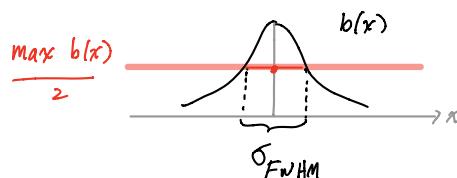
Indeed one can use $\phi_b(k)$ to model

$\mathcal{F}_N v^b$ (i.e. the diagonal of B_N^b in the Fourier basis). In particular an approx Gaussian beam in 1-d is given by

$$\sqrt{2\pi} \mathcal{F}_N v^b \approx \exp(-\sigma_b^2 (\xi_{\text{eff}})^2 / 2)$$

↑ vector of effective frequencies

Note: Often these beams are parametrized by σ_{FWHM} = "Full width at half max"



The conversion is: $\sigma_{\text{FWHM}}^2 = \sigma_b^2 8 \ln(2)$

Full model: Pixel to Spectral

High level continuum pixel model.

$$\underbrace{d(\varphi)}_{\text{data}} = \underbrace{B f(\varphi)}_{\text{signal}} + \underbrace{\varepsilon(\varphi)}_{\text{white noise}}$$

beam,
i.e. convolution,
operator

$$f \sim \text{GRF}_{S^1}(0, K) \text{ w/ autocov } K(\varphi)$$

$$\text{var}(\varepsilon(\varphi_n)) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \text{ when } \Delta\varphi = 1$$

B is a beam operator with kernel $b(\varphi)$

Discrete pixel model specific to grid

For grid $\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N \in [0, 2\pi]$ with $\varphi_n := (n-1) \frac{2\pi}{N}$
 the discretized fields are given by

$$v^d = B_N^b v^f + v^\varepsilon$$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\substack{\text{grid} \\ \text{spacing}}} \qquad \qquad \qquad$

$$v^\varepsilon \sim N(0, \Sigma_N^{\varepsilon\varepsilon})$$

$$v^f \sim N(0, \Sigma_N^{ff})$$

where

$$B_N^b = [b(\varphi_i - \varphi_j) \Delta\varphi]_{ij}$$

$$\Sigma_N^{\varepsilon\varepsilon} = \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\Delta\varphi} I$$

$$\Sigma_N^{ff} = [\text{cov}(f(\varphi_i), f(\varphi_j))]_{ij}$$

$$v^f := (f(\varphi_1), \dots, f(\varphi_N))^T$$

$$v^d := (d(\varphi_1), \dots, d(\varphi_N))^T$$

$$v^\varepsilon := (\varepsilon(\varphi_1), \dots, \varepsilon(\varphi_N))^T$$

$$v^b := (b(\varphi_1), \dots, b(\varphi_N))^T$$

The corresponding discrete spectral Model is given as follows

$$z^d = \text{diag}(\sqrt{2\pi} z^b) z^f + z^\varepsilon$$

where

$$z^d = \widehat{f}_N v^d$$

$$z^f = \widehat{f}_N v^f$$

$$z^\varepsilon = \widehat{f}_N v^\varepsilon$$

$$z^b = \widehat{f}_N v^b$$

$$E((z^\varepsilon)(z^\varepsilon)^*) = \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{\Delta\varphi} I$$

$$E((z^f)(z^f)^*) = \frac{1}{\Delta\varphi} \text{ diag} \left(\sqrt{2\pi} \widehat{f}_N \sum_N^{ff} [:, i] \right)$$

$$\Delta\varphi := \frac{2\pi}{\text{period}} = 1$$

Multiple periodic Gaussian vectors

Consider the case of two random vectors

$$X = (X_1, \dots, X_N)^T \sim N(0, \Sigma^{xx})$$

$$Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_N)^T \sim N(0, \Sigma^{yy})$$

jointly Gaussian s.t. the f.d. of the random matrix $\begin{bmatrix} X & Y \end{bmatrix}$ is column circular shift invariant, i.e.

$$\begin{bmatrix} X_1 & Y_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ X_N & Y_N \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{?}{=} \begin{bmatrix} X_N & Y_N \\ X_1 & Y_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ X_{N-1} & Y_{N-1} \end{bmatrix} = P_N \begin{bmatrix} X_1 & Y_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ X_N & Y_N \end{bmatrix}$$

let $\Sigma = \text{var}(\begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix})$ be the full covariance matrix of the vector containing the X_i 's & Y_i 's.

$$\checkmark E(XY^T)$$

$$\therefore \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma^{xx} & \Sigma^{xy} \\ \Sigma^{yx} & \Sigma^{yy} \end{bmatrix}$$

Notice that the column shift invariance implies the 2×2 sub-blocks of Σ are circular: i.e

$$\begin{bmatrix} P_N \Sigma^{xx} & P_N \Sigma^{xy} \\ P_N \Sigma^{yx} & P_N \Sigma^{yy} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma^{xx} P_N & \Sigma^{xy} P_N \\ \Sigma^{yx} P_N & \Sigma^{yy} P_N \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}B & \dots & A_{1m}B \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{n1}B & \dots & A_{nm}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{so that } I_2 \otimes P_N = \begin{bmatrix} P_N & 0 \\ 0 & P_N \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore by our results on circulant matrices we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma &= \begin{bmatrix} U_N^H \Lambda^{xx} U_N & U_N^H \Lambda^{yx} U_N \\ U_N^H \Lambda^{xy} U_N & U^H \Lambda^{yy} U_N \end{bmatrix} \\ &= (I_2 \otimes U_N^H) \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda^{xx} & \Lambda^{yx} \\ \Lambda^{xy} & \Lambda^{yy} \end{bmatrix} (I_2 \otimes U_N) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\checkmark AB = XX, XY, YX, \text{ or } YY$$

$$\Lambda^{AB} = \text{diag}(W_N^{-1} \Sigma^{AB} [0, 1])$$

The interpretation of the diagonal entries of $\Lambda^{xx}, \Lambda^{yy}, \Lambda^{xy}$ & Λ^{yx} is

$$E(Z_n^A Z_m^B) = \begin{cases} \Lambda_{n,n}^{AB} & n=m \\ 0 & n \neq m \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } Z^X = U_N X, Z^Y = U_N Y$$

i.e. the only dependence is

$$\begin{bmatrix} Z_1^X & Z_1^Y \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ Z_N^X & Z_N^Y \end{bmatrix}$$

is pairwise within each row.

Can be written compactly as

$$(I_2 \otimes P_N) \Sigma = \Sigma (I_2 \otimes P_N)$$

If we want to fully diagonalize the dependence, we can go one step further and diagonalize each 2×2 matrix block.

Due to $\Sigma^H = \Sigma$ we have that

λ^{xx} & λ^{yy} are real and $\lambda^{yx} = \overline{\lambda^{xy}}$.

Now we can use formulas for 2×2 Hermitian matrices:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & re^{-i\theta} \\ re^{i\theta} & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{\in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}, r \leq 1} = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} & -e^{i\theta} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1-r & \\ & 1+r \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta} & 1 \\ -e^{i\theta} & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Setting

$$r_n = \frac{|\lambda_{n,n}^{yx}|}{\sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{xx}} \sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{yy}}}$$

θ_n = phase angle of $\lambda_{n,n}^{yx}$

We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_n} & 1 \\ -e^{i\theta_n} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{n,n}^{xx} & \lambda_{n,n}^{yy} \\ \lambda_{n,n}^{yx} & \lambda_{n,n}^{xy} \end{bmatrix}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_{n,n}^{xx} & \lambda_{n,n}^{yy} \\ \lambda_{n,n}^{yx} & \lambda_{n,n}^{xy} \end{bmatrix}^{-\frac{1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta_n} & -e^{i\theta_n} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1-r_n & \\ & 1+r_n \end{bmatrix}$$

In particular

$$\tilde{Z}_n^+ := \frac{Z_n^y}{\sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{yy}}} + e^{i\theta_n} \frac{Z_n^x}{\sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{xx}}}$$

$$\tilde{Z}_n^- := \frac{Z_n^y}{\sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{yy}}} - e^{i\theta_n} \frac{Z_n^x}{\sqrt{\lambda_{n,n}^{xx}}}$$

are independent with

$$E |\tilde{Z}_n^+|^2 = 1 - r_n$$

$$E |\tilde{Z}_n^-|^2 = 1 + r_n$$

Side Comment

The above derivation is a particular case of a broader technique for constraining eigenspaces by finding commuting operators. The basic story is that the distributional symmetry

$$I_2 \otimes P_N \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$$

implies

$$(I_2 \otimes P_N) \sum (I_2 \otimes P_N)^T = \sum$$

Also recall that $P_N^T = P_N^{-1}$ so

$$(I_2 \otimes P_N) \sum (I_2 \otimes P_N)^{-1} = \sum$$

i.e.

$$(I_2 \otimes P_N) \sum = \sum (I_2 \otimes P_N) \quad (\text{a})$$

Notice the following then

Theorem: Commuting Hermitian matrices share a common eigenbasis.

This doesn't immediately apply since $I_2 \otimes P_N$ isn't Hermitian.

However notice that (a) also implies

$$(I_2 \otimes P_N)^H \sum = \sum (I_2 \otimes P_N)^H$$

which gives:

$$S_N \sum = \sum S_N$$

where

$$S_N = \frac{1}{2} [(I_2 \otimes P_N) + (I_2 \otimes P_N^H)]$$

Now we can apply the "Commuting Hermitian operator Theorem" to conclude that

\sum and S_N share a common eigenbasis

So we need to find the eigenbasis for S_N . Note that if

$$A = U \Lambda U^H \text{ and } B = V \equiv V^H$$

then

$$A \otimes B = \underbrace{(U^H \otimes V^H)}_{(U \otimes V)^H} (\Lambda \otimes \Xi) (U \otimes V)$$

$$\text{Also note that } (A \otimes B)^T = (A^T \otimes B^T)$$

Now recall

$$P_N = U_N^H \text{diag}(w_N^0, \dots, w_N^{N-1}) U_N$$

so that

$$I_2 \otimes P_N$$

$$= (I_2 \otimes U_N^H) (I_2 \otimes \text{diag}(w_N^0, \dots, w_N^{N-1})) (I_2 \otimes U_N)$$

and

$$S_N = (I_2 \otimes U_N^H) \underbrace{\left(I_2 \otimes \text{diag}\left(\frac{w_N^0 + \bar{w}_N^0}{2}, \dots, \frac{w_N^{N-1} + \bar{w}_N^{N-1}}{2}\right)\right)}_{I_2 \otimes \text{diag}(\text{Re}(w_N^0), \dots, \text{Re}(w_N^{N-1}))} (I_2 \otimes U_N)$$

Since the eigenvalues of S_n come in
duplicate pairs

$$\underbrace{Re(w_N^0), Re(w_N^1), \dots}_{\text{...}} \quad \underbrace{Re(w_N^{N-1}), Re(w_N^{N-1})}_{\text{...}}$$

the eigenvector basis for S_V is not unique and can be "rotated" on each 2-dim eigenspace to match the eigenvectors of \mathcal{I} .

In a bit more detail, the "Commuting Hermitian operator Theorem" says that for each $n \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ we can find common eigenvectors

$$\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_N, \psi_1, \dots, \psi_N \quad (\neq)$$

such that

Remark: Since $w_N^{n-1} = e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)}$,

$$\operatorname{Re}(\omega_n^{n-1}) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{N}(n-1)\right)$$

so that

$$\sum_{n=1}^N v_n \operatorname{diag}\left(\operatorname{Re}(w_n^0), \dots, \operatorname{Re}(w_n^{n-1})\right)^{n-1}$$

The cosine transform of $(v_1, \dots, v_n)^T$