

Ch 8.5, 8.6: Trigonometric Interpolation and the FFT

Tuesday, October 28, 2025 1:19 PM (This is long - instructor may skip some at their discretion)

following the book at a high level but not at the details

(these notes are about 50% from E. Corona's typed notes, 50% misc. sources, eg. myself or web)

Consider approximating a function $f(x)$ on the domain $[0, 2\pi]$

We'll write it as a Fourier Series

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)$$

→ sum, so this is really a limit. Does it

converge? In what sense? Classic questions but beyond the scope of our class. Suffice it to say, f continuous and periodic isn't enough to guarantee pointwise convergence, but does guarantee convergence in a L^2 sense.

Our basis is $\{\cos(0 \cdot x)\} \cup \{\cos(kx), \sin(kx)\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$

which is orthogonal!

w.r.t. the L^2 inner product we discussed

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos(kx) \cos(jx) dx = 0 \text{ if } k \neq j$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos(kx) \sin(jx) dx = 0, \text{ etc.}$$

so to find the Fourier Coefficients

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2(kx) dx = \frac{\sin(2kx)}{4k} + \frac{x}{2} \Big|_0^{2\pi} = \pi$$

(or $= 2\pi$ if $k=0$)

a_k, b_k we have a diagonal Gram

matrix G , and

$$\text{likewise } \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2(kx) dx = \pi \quad (k \neq 0)$$

$$a_k = \frac{\langle f, \cos(kx) \rangle}{\|\cos(kx)\|_2^2} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \cos(kx) dx \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$(a_0 = \frac{\langle f, 1 \rangle}{\|1\|_2^2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) dx)$$

$$b_k = \frac{\langle f, \sin(kx) \rangle}{\|\sin(kx)\|_2^2} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \sin(kx) dx$$

For computational work, we'll want to truncate this infinite series

$$f(x) \approx P(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)$$

so $2n+1$ terms

a "trigonometric polynomial" i.e. a finite number of sines & cosines

Does f need to be periodic?

No, but it helps: the smoother f is, the faster

its Fourier coefficients decay with k , so we can

use a smaller n .

ex: if $\int_0^{2\pi} f(x)^2 dx < \infty$ then $\sum a_k^2 + b_k^2 < \infty$
 so $a_k, b_k \rightarrow 0$

but if also f is continuously differentiable then

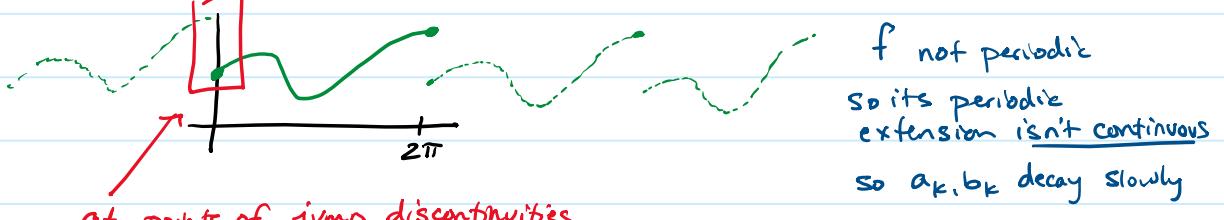
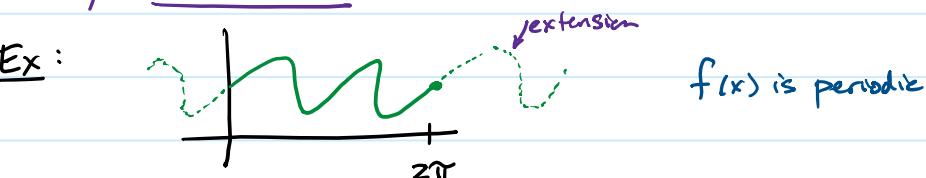
$$\sum k^2(a_k^2 + b_k^2) \rightarrow 0$$

so $a_k, b_k \rightarrow 0$ quickly to

compensate for growth of k^2

How does this relate
 to periodicity? Because we consider the smoothness of
 the periodic extension of f

Ex:



at points of jump discontinuities

the Fourier Series shows large oscillations

of about constant overshoot/undershoot but shrinking width

known as the **Gibbs phenomenon**



Q: what if f is periodic but on $[a, b]$
 not $[0, 2\pi]$

A: shift/scale to $[0, 2\pi]$

Define T_n to be the set of all trigonometric polynomials of the form

$$P(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)$$

We defined $\{a_k, b_k\}$ for L^2 approximation of f

but we'll also see we can do interpolation of $\{x_j, y_j\}_{j=0}^{2n}$, $x_j \in [0, 2\pi]$

and often $y_j = f(x_j)$

First let's get nicer notation using complex numbers

Euler's Formula : $e^{iy} = \cos(y) + i \cdot \sin(y)$, $i = \sqrt{-1}$

(good idea for a tattoo) so (set $y = kx$) $e^{ikx} = \cos(kx) + i \cdot \sin(kx)$

$$\text{i.e. } \cos(kx) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx}), \quad \sin(kx) = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ikx} - e^{-ikx})$$

$$P(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \cdot \frac{1}{2}(e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx}) + b_k \cdot \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ikx} - e^{-ikx}) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{note} \\ \frac{1}{2i} = -\frac{i}{2} \end{matrix}$$

$$= a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(a_k - ib_k)}_{c_k} e^{ikx} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(a_k + ib_k)}_{c_{-k}} e^{-ikx}$$

$$= \sum_{k=-n}^n c_k e^{ikx} \quad \text{but allow } c_k \in \mathbb{C} \quad (\text{and } c_k = \bar{c}_{-k} \text{ including } c_0 = \bar{c}_0 \text{ i.e. } c_0 \in \mathbb{R})$$

Write $\boxed{z = e^{ix} \in \mathbb{C}}$

then $p(z) = \sum_{k=-n}^n c_k z^k$ (if we wanted, define $P(z) = z^n p(z)$ so

$P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{2n} \tilde{c}_k z^k$, $\tilde{c}_k = c_{k-n}$ is an actual polynomial)

Now let's interpolate

Data $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{2n}\} \subseteq [0, 2\pi]$ and $y_j = f(x_j)$. Define $z_j = e^{ix_j}$

so want

$$p(z_j) = y_j \quad \text{OR} \quad \underbrace{z_j^n p(z_j)}_{P(z_j)} = z_j^n \cdot y_j$$

i.e. solve the linear system

$$\left[\begin{array}{cccc} 1 & z_0 & z_0^2 & \dots & z_0^{2n} \\ 1 & z_1 & z_1^2 & \dots & z_1^{2n} \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 1 & z_{2n} & z_{2n}^2 & \dots & z_{2n}^{2n} \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \tilde{c}_0 \\ \tilde{c}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{c}_{2n} \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} z_0^n \cdot y_0 \\ z_1^n \cdot y_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_{2n}^n \cdot y_{2n} \end{array} \right]$$

$\vec{V} \cdot \vec{c} = \vec{f}$

\vec{V} , a Vandermonde matrix ... but a very nice one!

Supposing $\{x_j\}_{j=0}^{2n}$ are equispaced on $[0, 2\pi)$, $x_j = j \cdot \frac{2\pi}{2n+1}$

Ex: $n=2$, so we have $2n+1=5$ nodes

then V is very nice:

$$z_j = e^{i \cdot x_j} = \left(e^{\underbrace{i \cdot \frac{2\pi}{2^n+1}}_{\text{这里}}} \right)^j$$

So $z_j^k = (\omega^j)^k = \omega^{jk}$ and $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \omega^0 & \omega^{2 \cdot 0} & \dots & \omega^{zn \cdot 0} \\ 1 & \omega^1 & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{zn} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{4n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \omega^{zn} & \omega^{4n} & \dots & \omega^{4n^2} \end{bmatrix}$
 which has orthogonal columns:

$$V_{k,j} = \omega^{k,j}$$

which has orthogonal columns:

if columns denoted \vec{v}_k , then

$$\langle \vec{v}_k, \vec{v}_\ell \rangle := \underbrace{\text{conj}(\vec{v}_k)^\top \cdot \vec{v}_\ell}_{\text{for } \mathbb{C} \text{ numbers, we need our}} = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \overline{\omega^{k,j}} \cdot \omega^{\ell,j} = \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \omega^{j(\ell-k)}$$

for \mathbb{C} numbers, we need our inner product to be conjugate. Linear in an entry. APPM convention is 1st entry.

$$\text{use } 1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + r^5 = \frac{1 - r^6}{1 - r}$$

$$= \begin{cases} 2n+1 & \text{if } \lambda-k=0 \\ 1 - (G_s^{(\lambda-k)})^{2n+1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$1 - \left[\omega^{(l-k)} \right]^{2n+1} = 1 - \left[\omega^{(2n+1)} \right]^{l-k}$$

$$\omega^{2n+1} = \left(e^{i \frac{2\pi}{2n+1}} \right)^{2n+1} = e^{2\pi i} = 1$$

$$= \begin{cases} 2n+1 & \lambda = k \\ 0 & \lambda \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\text{So } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n+1}} \cdot V = W \text{ has "orthonormal columns"} \quad (\rightarrow \text{all})$$

i.e. it's a **unitary** matrix (\Rightarrow orthonormal rows too)

$$W^{-1} = W^* := \text{Conj}(W^\top) \quad \leftarrow \text{definition of "conjugate transpose", or "adjoint"}$$

$$\text{and } V^{-1} = \frac{1}{2n+1} \cdot V^*$$

So solving $\nabla \vec{c} = \vec{f}$ is as easy as
 $\vec{c} = \nabla^* \vec{f}$, fast and well-conditioned.

that gives the formula

$$\tilde{C}_k = \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} z_j^{-k} \cdot (z_j^n y_j) = \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} e^{i(\frac{2\pi j}{2n+1})^n k} y_j$$

Warning: in physics,

they write w^+ not W^+

"dagger" In applied math that would be confused with our + symbol for the pseudoinverse

$$\tilde{c}_k = \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} z_j^{-k} \cdot (z_j^n y_j) = \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} e^{i(\frac{2\pi j}{2n+1})^{n-k}} y_j$$

and $\tilde{c}_k = c_{k-n}$ so

$$c_k = \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{j=0}^{2n} \left(e^{i \frac{2\pi j}{2n+1}} \right)^{-k} \cdot y_j$$

or if we define the **Discrete Fourier Transform** as the linear operator $F: \mathbb{C}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^N$ with matrix representation

$$F_{kj} = \left(e^{i \frac{2\pi j}{N}} \right)^{-k} \quad \text{then } c_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} F_{kj} y_j$$

$$(F^{-1})_{kj} = \frac{1}{N} \overline{F}_{j,k} \quad \text{inverse DFT}$$

In Fourier analysis, sometimes $-n, -n+1, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, n$ is nicer (good symmetry...)

but other times $0, 1, \dots, 2n$ is nicer (on a computer, this is a standard "for" loop)

So Matlab and Python have utilities to permute: `fftshift` and $\underbrace{\text{ifftshift}}$

as well as 2D versions

In our notation, $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{2n} \\ 1 & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \dots & \omega^{4n} \\ 1 & \omega^{2n} & \dots & \omega^{4n^2} \end{bmatrix}$

$\omega = e^{i \frac{2\pi}{2n+1}}$ or $e^{i \frac{2\pi}{N}}$ a "primitive" N^{th} root of unity since $\omega^N = 1$

and $V^* = \text{const} \cdot F$

However it's more canonical to define $\omega = e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N}}$

so that $V^* (= \text{const} \cdot F) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \dots & \omega^{N-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$

⚠ Normalization conventions for the DFT vary:

Sometimes $F_{kj} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \cdot \left(e^{i \frac{2\pi j}{N}} \right)^{-k}$ so then $\underbrace{F^{-1}}_{\text{inverse DFT}} = F^*$ i.e. unitary

so $(F^{-1})_{kj} = \overline{F}_{j,k}$

2D DFT (supplementary... not on exams)

If $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$ is a 2D signal, we can take its 2D DFT by

first taking the 1D DFT of its columns, then
take the 1D DFT of the resulting rows.

If $F_1 \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$, $F_2 \in \mathbb{C}^{M \times M}$ are 1D DFT matrices, then

$$\hat{X} = (F_2 ((F_1 \cdot X)^T))^T = (F_2 \cdot X^T F_1^T)^T = F_1 \cdot X \cdot F_2^T \quad \text{Kronecker product}$$

(If we vectorize $X \mapsto \text{col}(X) \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times M}$ by stacking columns, then $\text{col}(\hat{X}) = (F_2 \otimes F_1) \cdot \text{col}(X)$)
not covered on exam

The fast algo. to compute the DCT

Fast Fourier Transform back to Gauss, modern version to Cooley + Tukey 1960's

To compute $F \cdot \vec{v}$ for $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^N$, you'd expect $O(N^2)$ flops but due to its special structure, the FFT does it in $O(N \log N)$ flops.

Q: which base of the log?

A: irrelevant to big-O notation

Fact: it's $O(N \log N)$ for any $N \in \mathbb{N}$ but we (like all intro courses)

will assume N is a power of 2, $N = 2^L$, and do the "radix-2" FFT.

If N isn't a power of 2, it's still possible but more complicated

Software like FFTW (the "Fastest Fourier Transform in the West") is good at the non power of 2 case - it chooses the best algo. for your computer.

Key recursive idea:

The N -point DFT can be done via two $\frac{N}{2}$ point DFTs, then combining them] cost is $2N$

cost is $W(N/2)$ each

Let $W(N)$ be the computational cost / flops of a N -point DFT

$$W(N) = 2 \cdot W(\frac{N}{2}) + 2N \quad \{ \text{recursion relationship}$$

$$= 2 \cdot (2 \cdot W(\frac{N}{4}) + 2 \cdot \frac{N}{2}) + 2N = 4W(\frac{N}{4}) + 4N$$

$$= 4 \cdot (2 \cdot W(\frac{N}{8}) + 2 \cdot \frac{N}{4}) + 4N = 8W(\frac{N}{8}) + 6N$$

$$\dots = 16W(\frac{N}{16}) + 8N$$

$$= 2^L \cdot W(\frac{N}{2}) + 2 \cdot L \cdot N = N + 2 \log_2(N) \cdot N = O(N \log N)$$

Details:

let $\omega = e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N}}$ and we want $C_K = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} y_j \cdot \omega^{jk}$, $K = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$

$$\omega^N = 1$$

$$\omega^{N/2} = -1$$

$$C_K = \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m} \omega^{(2m)K} + \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m+1} \omega^{(2m+1)K} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{even} \\ \text{odd} \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{split } j \text{ into even or odd} \\ 2m \quad 2m+1 \end{matrix}$$

$$\text{let } \omega_2 = \omega^2 = e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N} \cdot 2} = e^{-i \frac{2\pi}{N}} \dots \text{the } \omega \text{ we'd use in a } \frac{N}{2} \text{ FFT!}$$

$$C_K = \underbrace{\sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m} \omega_2^{mk}}_{E_K} + \omega^{-K} \underbrace{\sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m+1} \omega_2^{mk}}_{O_K} \quad (\#) \quad K = 0, 1, \dots, \frac{N}{2}-1 \quad \omega_2^{\frac{N}{2}} = 1$$

(recursion)

If $K \leq \frac{N}{2}-1$, E_K and O_K come from FFT's of size $\frac{N}{2}$
done to the even and odd indices of \vec{y}

Small size $\frac{N}{2}$ FFTs only output $\frac{N}{2}$ coefficients,) i.e. the formula (*) holds but can't use little $\frac{N}{2}$ FFTs
so this doesn't quite work if $K \geq \frac{N}{2}$

$$\text{If } K \geq \frac{N}{2}, \text{ write as } C_K = C_{K' + \frac{N}{2}} = \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m} \omega_2^{mk'} \cdot \underbrace{\omega_2^{m(\frac{N}{2})}}_{(\omega_2^{\frac{N}{2}})^m = 1} + \omega^{(K+\frac{N}{2})} \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{2}-1} y_{2m+1} \omega_2^{mk'} \underbrace{\omega_2^{m(\frac{N}{2})}}_{=1}$$

$$= E_{K'} + \omega^{-\frac{N}{2}} \cdot \omega^{k'} O_{K'} = E_{K'} - \omega^{k'} O_{K'}$$

Still assuming $N=2^L$ for simplicity

To summarize, let $\omega = e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{N}}$, $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ then $\vec{c} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ defined by

$$K=0, 1, \dots, N/2-1 \\ C_K = E_K + \omega^K O_K \quad \text{where } E_K = \text{FFT}([y_0, y_2, y_4, \dots, y_{N-2}])$$

$$C_{K+N/2} = E_K - \omega^K O_K \quad \begin{matrix} O_K = \text{FFT}([y_1, y_3, \dots, y_{N-1}]) \\ \text{via recursion} \end{matrix}$$

"twiddle factors"

The FFT has revolutionized / enabled a lot of signal processing

skip in lecture
Around 2000, "Computing in Science & Engineering" (published by American Inst. of Phys. + IEEE Computing Society)

Published an influential "Top Ten Algorithms of the Century"

- 1946 von Neumann, Stan Ulam, Nick Metropolis Metropolis Algo / Monte Carlo
cu math 60's until '75
- 1948 Dantzig's Simplex algo. for linear programming
- 1950 Krylov Subspace methods
- 1951 Matrix decompositions formalized
- 1957 Fortran compiler, IBM
- 1959-61, QR Algo for eigenvalues
- 1962 Quicksort
- 1965 Cooley (IBM) & Tukey (Princeton) FFT
- 1977 integer relation detection
- 1987 Leslie Greengard, Vladimir Rokhlin (Yale) Fast Multipole Method "FMM"