Scientific Computation

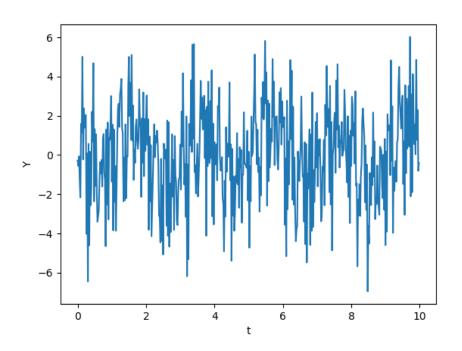
Spring, **2019**

Lecture 15

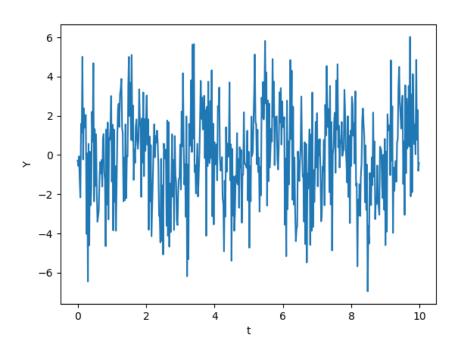
Mastery material

- The mastery material has a reading component (and coding+discussion components)
- I would like to release the reading component this Thursday along with HW3
- Please let me know as soon as possible if you object to this

- Last few lectures: analyze datasets arranged as tables or matrices
- Today (and tomorrow): Something simpler! We'll look at data arranged in 1D arrays
- Typical example, a time series: $f(t_i)$, $t_i = i \Delta t$, $i = 0, 1, ..., N_t-1$
- Could also have data in space (along a line): $f(x_i)$, $x_i = i \Delta x$, $i = 0, 1, ..., N_x-1$
- How do we extract trends or, more generally, "information", from such data?



- What should we do with a signal that looks like this?
- First step is to build a description
 - E.g. compute mean and rms (variance)
- But what next?



- What should we do with a signal that looks like this?
- First step is to build a description
 - E.g. compute mean and rms (variance)
- But what next?
 - We can think about the spectrum
 - Underlying idea: decompose signal into waves with different frequencies
 - And check which frequencies hold the most "energy"

Periodic functions can be expanded as Fourier series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n = -\infty}^{\infty} c_n \exp(inx)$$

$$c_n = (1/2\pi) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \exp(-inx) dx$$

- This expression considers a period = 2π
- This can be modified to L through a simple change of variables ($y = xL/(2\pi)$)
- Convergence theory considers general functions integrable on the interval [- π , π)
- In practice, Fourier series are only used for periodic functions
- For infinitely differentiable functions (e.g. a Gaussian), we have exponential convergence: $c_n \sim exp(-\mu|n|)$, μ is a positive constant

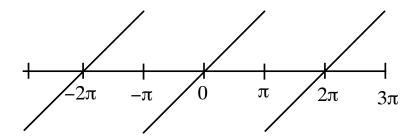
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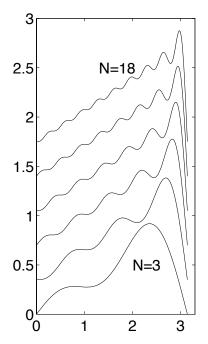
$$c_n = (1/2\pi) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \exp(-inx) dx$$

- We will largely ignore the formal convergence theory and try to build intuition
- The rate-of-convergence of the series depends on the smoothness of the function
 - In the interior of the domain, we will simply assume the function and all of its derivatives are continuous
 - Let's look at a few examples with non-smooth behavior at the boundaries...

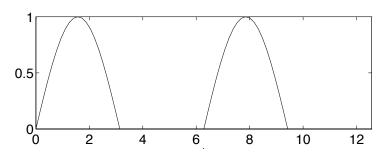
Example 1: sawtooth function:



- Function is discontinuous at "boundaries": $f(-\pi) \neq f(\pi)$
- "Convergence" is slow, $|c_n| = \frac{1}{|n|}$
- Figure shows approximation retaining 1st 2N terms in series (|n|<N)

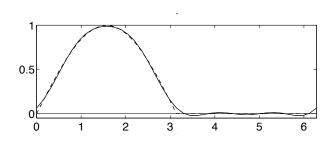


• Example 2: half-wave rectifier:



$$f(t) \equiv \begin{cases} \sin(t), & 0 < t < \pi \\ 0, & \pi < t < 2\pi \end{cases}$$

- Function's derivative is discontinuous at "boundaries": $f'(-\pi) \neq f'(\pi)$
- Convergence is slow, $|c_n| \sim rac{1}{|n|^2}$
- Figure shows approximation retaining 1st 4 terms in series (dashed curve is the approximation):



A general result:

• *If:*

1.

$$f(\pi) = f(-\pi), f^{(1)}(\pi) = f^{(1)}(-\pi), ..., f^{(k-2)}(\pi) = f^{(k-2)}(-\pi)$$

2. $f^{(k)}(x)$ is integrable

then the coefficients of the Fourier series

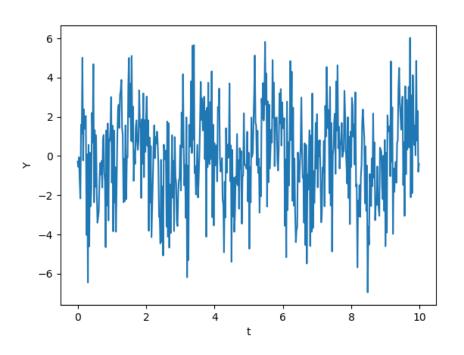
$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(nx)$$

have the upper bounds

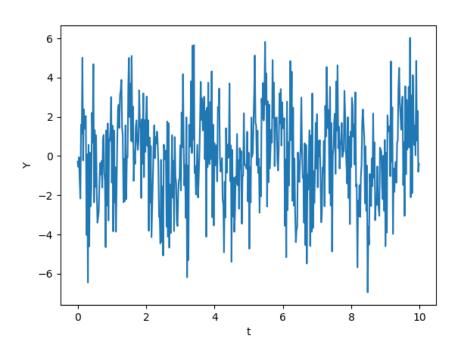
$$\mid a_n \mid \leq F/n^k; \qquad \mid b_n \mid \leq F/n^k$$

for some sufficiently large constant F, which is independent of n.

- Proof: repeated application of integration by parts
- Note: this definition of a Fourier series is equivalent to previous with complex Imperial College exponential
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- This signal is periodic (T=10)
- How do we compute its Fourier coefficients?



- This signal is periodic
- How do we compute its Fourier coefficients?
- We will use the Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)
- Available in numpy.fft, and scipy.fftpack

Discrete Fourier transform

Now, our function is represented on a N-point discrete, equispaced grid:

$$t_j = j\Delta t, j = 0, 1, ..., N-1$$

We have a truncated Fourier series at the jth point:

$$f(t_j) = \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2-1} c_n exp(i2\pi n t_j/T) = \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2-1} c_n exp(i2\pi j n/N)$$

with $N\Delta t = T$, and the inverse transform is now a discrete sum:

$$c_n = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_j exp(-i2\pi n t_j/T) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_j exp(-i2\pi j n/N)$$

np.fft.fft computes c, with the (1/N) factor omitted, but returns it in a ...
 strange order:

np.fft.fft(f) =
$$c_{np} = N(c_0, c_1, ..., c_{N/2-1}, c_{-N/2}, c_{-N/2+1}, ..., c_{-1})$$

Discrete Fourier transform

$$t_{j} = j\Delta t, j = 0, 1, ..., N - 1$$

$$f(t_{j}) = \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2-1} c_{n} exp(i2\pi n t_{j}/T) = \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2-1} c_{n} exp(i2\pi j n/N)$$

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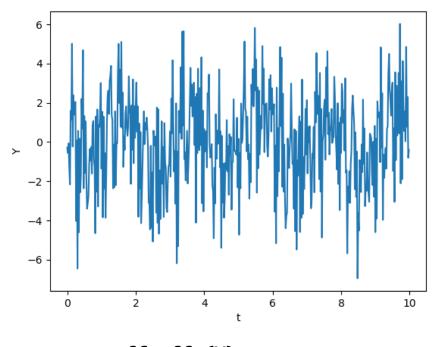
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np.fft.fft(f) =
$$c_{np} = N(c_0, c_1, ..., c_{N/2-1}, c_{-N/2}, c_{-N/2+1}, ..., c_{-1})$$

But we have a tool to help:

np.fft.fftshift
$$(c_{np})/N = c_{-N/2}, c_{-N/2+1}, ..., c_{N/2-1}$$

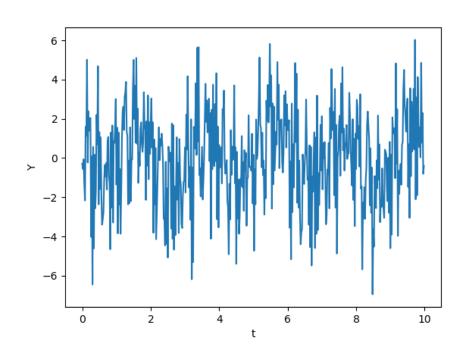
Let's go back to our example!



```
0.8
                          ×
                                                        ×
  0.7
   0.6
                               ×
                                                  ×
   0.5
<u>5</u> 0.4
            ×
                                                                     ×
                 ×
                                                                ×
              ×
   0.3
   0.2
   0.1
   0.0
              -200
                           -100
                                                                 200
                                                    100
                                 mode number, n
```

```
c = np.fft.fft(Y)
c = np.fft.fftshift(c)/Nt
n = np.arange(-Nt/2,Nt/2)

plt.figure()
plt.plot(n,np.abs(c),'x')
plt.xlabel('mode number, n')
plt.ylabel('$|c_n|$')
plt.grid()
```



```
×
                            ×
   0.7
   0.6
                                 ×
                                                      ×
   0.5
<u>5</u> 0.4
             ×
                                                                          ×
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 The signal is a superposition of 10 sine waves w/ different frequencies and with random amplitudes and phases:

$$Y = \sum_{m=1}^{10} a_m sin(2\pi f_m t + \phi_m)$$

 f_m is: r/T, T=10, r is randomly chosen integer, 1<=r<Nt/2

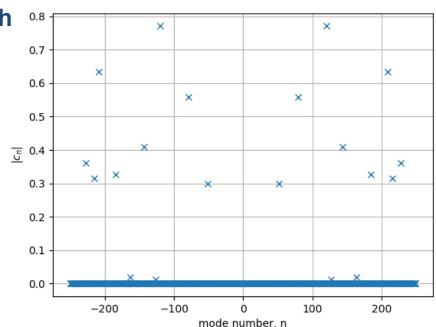
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- **Each** f_m is a *frequency*

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- $|c_n|^2$ is the "energy" in a mode with frequency= n/T
- For real-valued data: $c_n = c_{-n}^*$, so only n>=0 needed to be shown in figure (should use rfft instead of fft)
- It's essential that the timespan of the signal is an integer multiple of each Imperial College frequency



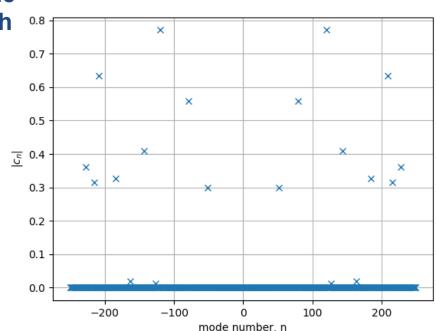
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- $|c_n|^2$ is the "energy" in a mode with frequency= n/T
- For real-valued data: $c_n = -c_n^*$, so only n>=0 needed to be shown in figure (should use rfft instead of fft)
- It's essential that the timespan of the signal is an integer multiple of each **Imperial College** frequency



- $(Nt/2-1)/T = \Delta t/2-1/T$ is the highest frequency that can be "resolved"
- Rule-of-thumb: >2 points/period of highest-frequency component are needed (here, period = 1/f)

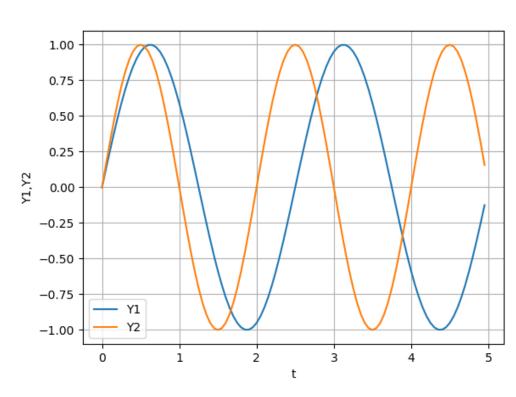
- Let's take two sine waves, with frequency f=2/T and 2.5/T. Here, T is the timespan of the signal and 1/f is the period of the wave:
- Problem setup:

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In [3]: T = 5
In [4]: Nt = 100
In [5]: t = np.linspace(0,T,Nt+1)
In [6]: t = t[:-1]
In [7]: f1 = 2/T
In [8]: f2 = 2.5/T
In [10]: Y1 = np.sin(2*np.pi*f1*t)
In [11]: Y2 = np.sin(2*np.pi*f2*t)
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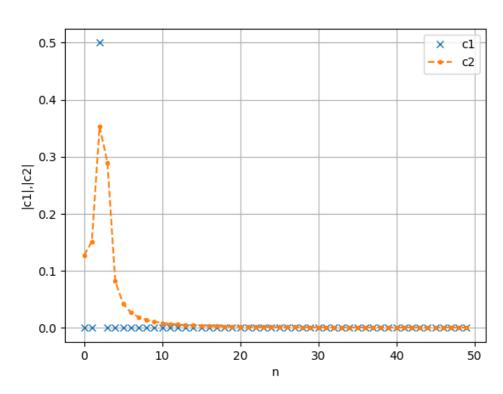
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The 2 waves

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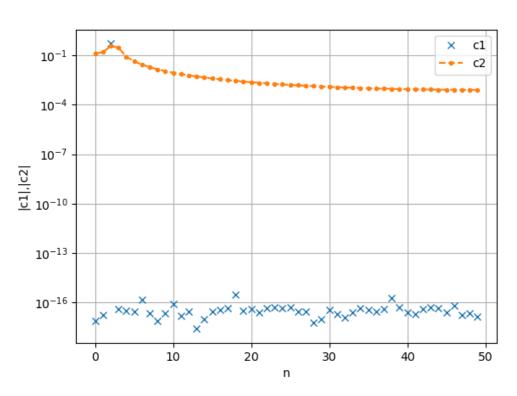
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The 2 waves, note the "spread" of the energy across several frequencies for the 2nd wave

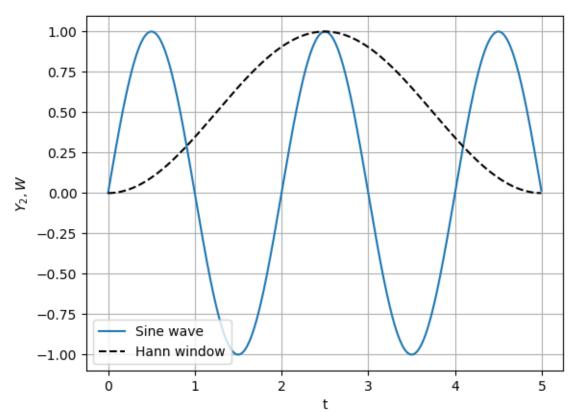
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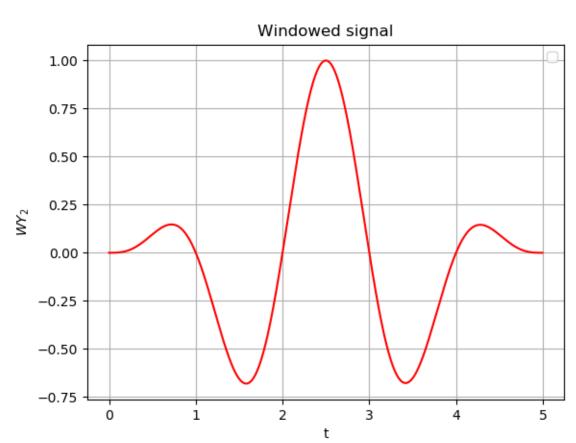


The 2 waves, note the "spread" of the energy across several frequencies for the 2nd wave and the (very) slow decay due to the "discontinuity" at t=5

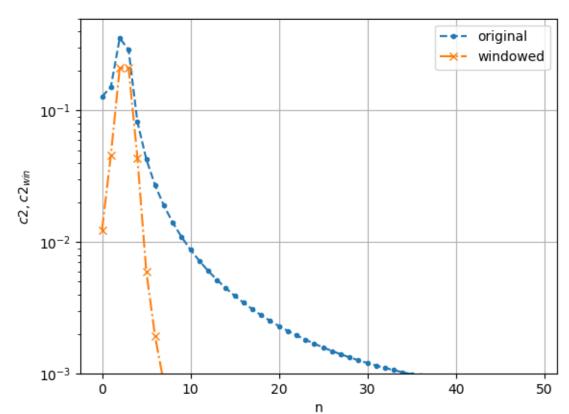
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- The standard "fix" is to use windowing:
- The spectrum of the windowed signal "looks" more like a simple wave
- We have lost energy there is no perfect solution



- In practice, we don't have to go through the windowing process ourselves
- Signal processing tools exist which:
 - Break the signal up into overlapping segments
 - Window the signal within each segment and compute the spectrum
 - Average the spectra from each segment (typically |c|² rather than |c|)
- This produces an estimate of the autospectral density
- And can be computed using Welch's method, scipy.signal.welch

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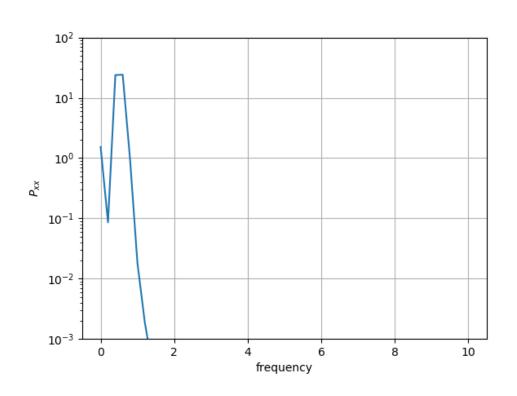
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Notes:

- Consider a signal of length T with step ∆t as a distribution of "energy" across a range of frequencies
- We need $\Delta t < 2/f_{min}$ to *resolve* the highest frequency components
- Also need $T >> 1/f_{max}$ to ensure "slow" components are contained within the signal
 - Not the case in our previous example
 - Often, slow components have the largest amplitude

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 - Not the case in our previous example
 - Often, slow components have the largest amplitudes
- What about the running time?
 - Direct evaluation of the sum in the DFT requires O(N²) operations
 - But the FFT uses a divide and conquer approach and O(Nlog₂N) operations are needed