The Periodogram, part 2

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Lecture 3a



Announcements

- ▶ Project Checkpoint 1 is due tomorrow: Wednesday Feb 10
- Fifth lab section: I'll let you know as soon as I hear.
- ▶ Homework 2 is due next week, Wednesday Feb 17
- ▶ Midterm 1 is on Thursday Feb 25

Recap

Full Model

$$Y_t = m_t + s_t + X_t$$

- $ightharpoonup m_t$ is the trend model
- $ightharpoonup s_t$ is the model of seasonal effects (e.g. sinusoids)
- \triangleright X_t is as stationary process, perhaps white noise
- ▶ Idea: Remove trend and seasonality, so that residuals exhibit steady behavior over time, i.e. looks stationary.

Definition: Sinusoids

We define the set of sinusoid functions as

$$\{g(t) = R\cos(2\pi f t + \Phi) : R \in R_+, f \in R_+, \Phi \in [0, 2\pi/f)\},$$

where

- ► *R* is called the *amplitude*
- ► *f* is called the *frequency*
- Φ is called the *phase*
- ightharpoonup 1/f is called the *period*

Sinusoids rewritten a different way

- Estimating the phase shift Φ is nontrivial with the tools in this class, but we can rewrite the sinusoid equation to be more convenient (you showed this in Lab 2).
- ▶ With $A = R\cos(\Phi)$ and $B = -R\sin(\Phi)$ one can rewrite sinuosoids as

$$\{g(t) = A\cos(2\pi ft) + B\sin(2\pi ft) : A, B \in R, f \in R_+\}.$$

▶ This is helpful as we can find the coefficients *A* and *B* with linear models, but that means we must find the appropriate frequencies *f* first. The frequency domain will help with this!

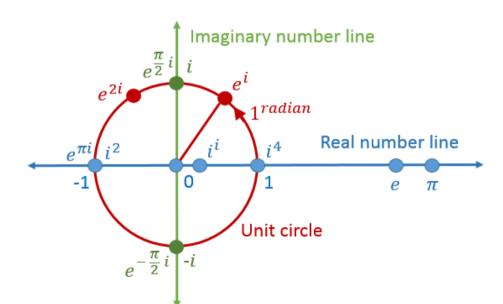
Textbook

Reading applicable to today's lecture: Section 4.1 and page 182 of Section 4.3

Brief Review of Complex Numbers

- ▶ Imaginary number: $i = \sqrt{-1}$
- ightharpoonup Complex number: z = a + bi, where a,b are real valued
- $ightharpoonup \bar{z} = a bi$ is the complex conjugate of z = a + bi
- ► Euclidean distance: $d(a + bi) = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
- ▶ We often ask if roots are within the unit circle, or $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \le 1$

Complex Unit Circle



Complex Polar Coordinates

- ightharpoonup z = a + bi
- $ightharpoonup r = d(a + bi) = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
- ightharpoonup $a = r * cos(\theta), b = r * sin(\theta)$
- Note Euler's equation: $e^{i\theta} = cos(\theta) + i * sin(\theta)$

$$z = r * cos(\theta) + r * sin(\theta)i$$
$$= r * e^{i\theta}$$

Definition: Discrete Fourier Transform

For data $x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} \in C$ the discrete Fourier transform (DFT) is given by $b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} \in C$, where

$$b_j = \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} x_t \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i j t}{n}\right) \text{ for } j = 0, \dots, n-1.$$

(In R, the DFT is calculated by the function fft().)

▶ The frequencies j/n for j = 0, ..., n-1 as called **Fourier frequencies**.

Notes on DFT

- ▶ It always holds that $b_0 = \sum x_t$.
- ▶ When $x_0, ..., x_{n-1} \in R$ are real numbers (in general, can be complex), then

$$b_{n-j} = \sum_{t} x_{t} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i(n-j)t}{n}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{t} x_{t} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi ijt}{n}\right) \exp\left(-2\pi it\right) = \bar{b}_{j}.$$

 \blacktriangleright For example, for n=11, the DFT can be written as:

$$b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, \bar{b}_5, \bar{b}_4, \bar{b}_3, \bar{b}_2, \bar{b}_1.$$

For n = 12, it is $b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5, \bar{b}_6, \bar{b}_5, \bar{b}_4, \bar{b}_3, \bar{b}_2, \bar{b}_1$.

Note that b_6 is necessarily real because $b_6 = \bar{b}_6$.

Note on DFT

- ▶ DFT b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} is in one-to-one correspondence with the data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} , because the original data can be uniquely recovered by its DFT, as the following theorem shows.
- ightharpoonup \Rightarrow the DFT b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} and the data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} contain equivalent information.

Theorem: Inverse Fourier Transform (IDFT)

For data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} and its DFT b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} , it holds that

$$x_t = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} b_j \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j t}{n}\right)$$
 for $t = 0, \dots, n-1$.

(Proof on Lecture 2b slides)

Real vs Complex

- Note that the DFT b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} of real valued data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} can be complex valued.
- ▶ To visualize the DFT, one rather plots its absolute value.
- Note that b_0 is always just the sum of the data, which does not capture much information.
- ▶ Further because $b_{n-j} = \bar{b}_j$, it is enough to look at $|b_j|, 1 \le j \le n/2$.

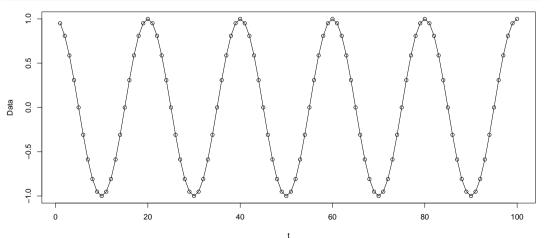
Definition: Periodogram

For real values data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} with DFT b_0, \ldots, b_{n-1} the **periodogram** is defined as

$$I(j/n) = \frac{|b_j|^2}{n}$$
 for $j = 1, \dots, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$

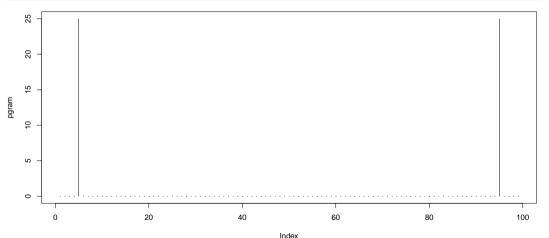
Example Data: $cos(2\pi t * 5/100)$

```
n=100; t = 1:n; cos2 = cos(2*pi*t*(5/n))
plot(t, cos2, ylab = "Data", type = "o")
```



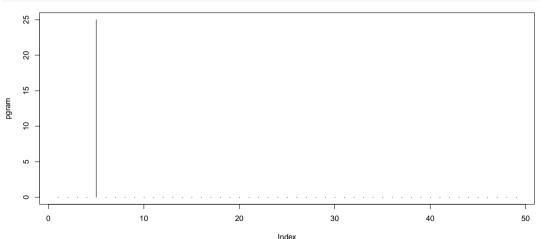
Example: $cos(2\pi t * 5/100)$

```
pgram = abs(fft(cos2)[2:100])^2/n
plot(pgram, type = "h")
```

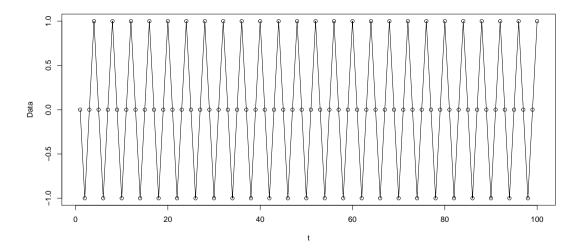


Example Periodogram: $cos(2\pi t * 5/100)$

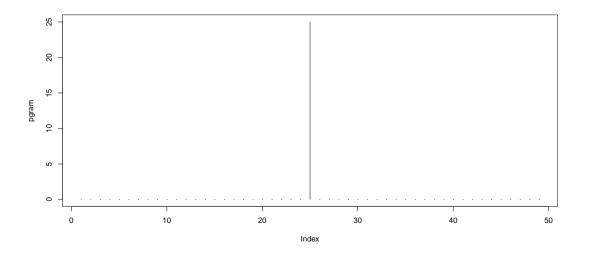
```
pgram = abs(fft(cos2)[2:50])^2/n
plot(pgram, type = "h")
```



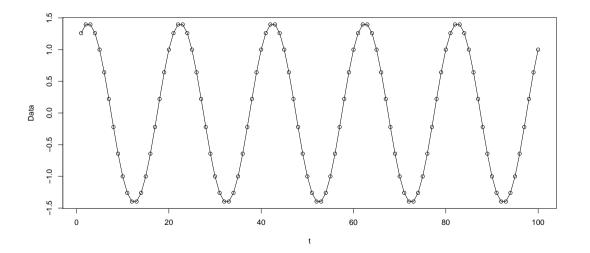
Example Data: $cos(2\pi t * 25/100)$



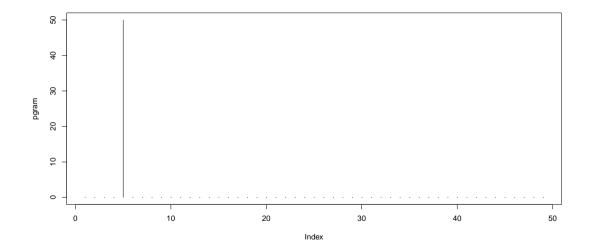
Example Periodogram: $cos(2\pi t * 25/100)$



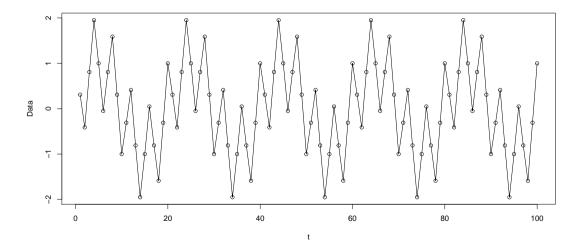
Example Data: $cos(2\pi t * 5/100) + sin(2\pi t * 5/100)$



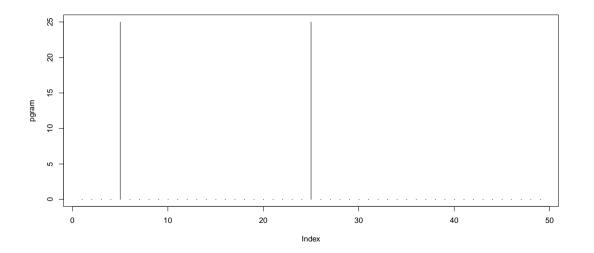
Example Periodogram: $cos(2\pi t * 5/100) + sin(2\pi t * 5/100)$



Example Data: $cos(2\pi t * 25/100) + sin(2\pi t * 5/100)$



Example Periodogram: $cos(2\pi t * 25/100) + sin(2\pi t * 5/100)$



Notes on Periodogram

Recall b_j gives the jth coefficient of the data $x = (x_0, \dots, x_{n-1})$ in the basis u^0, \dots, u^{n-1} , which corresponds to the sinusoids of Fourier frequency j/n, thus:

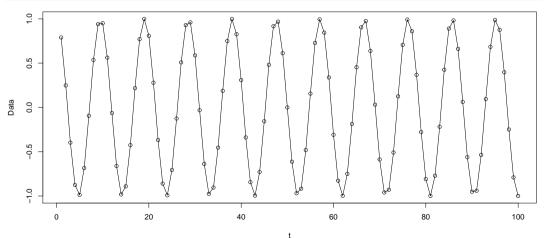
- 1. If the periodogram shows a single spike for I(j/n) we are sure that the data is a single sinusoid with Fourier frequency j/n.
- 2. If it shows two spikes, say at $I(j_1/n)$ and $I(j_2/n)$, then the data are a linear combination of two sinusoids at Fourier frequencies j_1/n and j_2/n with the strengths of these sinusoids depending on the size of the spikes.

Notes on Periodogram

- 3. Multiple spikes indicate that the data is made up of many sinusoids at Fourier frequencies.
- 4. Sometimes one can see multiple spikes in the DFT even when the structure of the data is not very complicated. A typical example is *leakage* due to the presence of a sinusoid at a non-Fourier frequency.

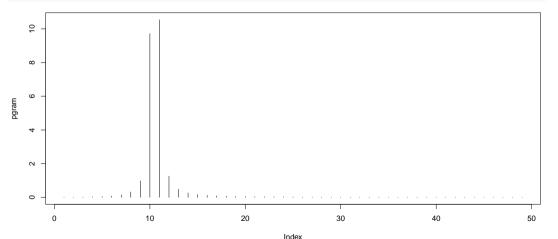
Example Data: $cos(2\pi t * 10.5/100)$

```
t = 1:100; cos2 = cos(2*pi*t*(10.5/100))
plot(t, cos2, ylab = "Data", type = "o")
```



Example Periodogram: $cos(2\pi t * 10.5/100)$

```
pgram = abs(fft(cos2)[2:50])^2/n
plot(pgram, type = "h")
```



Theorem Intro

The following theorem shows an important relation between periodogram I(j/n) and the sample ACVF $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ of some data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} .

Theorem: Connection between periodogram and $\hat{\gamma}$

For some data x_0, \ldots, x_{n-1} let $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ for $h = 0, \ldots, n-1$ be its sample ACVF. Then

$$I(j/n) = \sum_{h=-(n-1)}^{n-1} \hat{\gamma}(h) \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i j h}{n}\right) \text{ for } j=1,\ldots,\lfloor n/2 \rfloor.$$

(Proof on Lecture 2b slides)

Next

The remainder of today's material will be in R!