

Mathematical Tripos Part II: Michaelmas Term 2022

Numerical Analysis – Lecture 12

The algebra of Fourier expansions Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the set of all 2-periodic functions f which are analytic on a horizontal strip $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : -a < \text{Im } z < a\}$. Then $\mathcal{A}$ is a linear space, i.e., $f, g \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ then $f + g \in \mathcal{A}$ and $\alpha f \in \mathcal{A}$. In particular, with f and g expressed in its Fourier series, i.e.,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}_n e^{i\pi n x}, \quad g(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{g}_n e^{i\pi n x}$$

we have

$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\hat{f}_n + \hat{g}_n) e^{i\pi n x}, \quad \alpha f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha \hat{f}_n e^{i\pi n x} \quad (3.3)$$

and

$$f(x) \cdot g(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}_{n-m} \hat{g}_m \right) e^{i\pi n x} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (\hat{f} * \hat{g})_n e^{i\pi n x}, \quad (3.4)$$

where $*$ denotes the convolution operator, hence $(\widehat{f \cdot g})_n = (\hat{f} * \hat{g})_n$. Moreover, if $f \in \mathcal{A}$ then $f' \in \mathcal{A}$ and

$$f'(x) = i\pi \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} n \cdot \hat{f}_n e^{i\pi n x}. \quad (3.5)$$

Since $\{\hat{f}_n\}$ decays exponentially fast, this shows that all derivatives of f have rapidly convergent Fourier expansions.

Example 3.8 (Application to differential equations) Consider the two-point boundary value problem: $y = y(x)$, $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, solves

$$y'' + a(x)y' + b(x)y = f(x), \quad y(-1) = y(1), \quad (3.6)$$

where $a, b, f \in \mathcal{A}$ and we seek a *periodic solution* $y \in \mathcal{A}$ for (3.6). Substituting y, a, b and f by their Fourier series and using (3.3)-(3.5) we obtain an infinite dimensional system of linear equations for the Fourier coefficients $\hat{y}_n$:

$$-\pi^2 n^2 \hat{y}_n + i\pi \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} m \hat{a}_{n-m} \hat{y}_m + \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{b}_{n-m} \hat{y}_m = \hat{f}_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (3.7)$$

Since $a, b, f \in \mathcal{A}$, their Fourier coefficients decrease exponentially fast. Hence, we can truncate (3.7) into the N -dimensional system

$$-\pi^2 n^2 \hat{y}_n + i\pi \sum_{m=-N/2+1}^{N/2} m \hat{a}_{n-m} \hat{y}_m + \sum_{m=-N/2+1}^{N/2} \hat{b}_{n-m} \hat{y}_m = \hat{f}_n, \quad n = -N/2+1, \dots, N/2. \quad (3.8)$$

Remark 3.9 The matrix of (3.8) is in general dense, but our theory predicts that fairly small values of N , hence very small matrices, are sufficient for high accuracy. For instance: choosing $a(x) = f(x) = \cos \pi x$, $b(x) = \sin 2\pi x$ (which incidentally even leads to a sparse matrix) we get

$N = 16$	error of size 10^{-10}
$N = 22$	error of size 10^{-15} (which is already hitting the accuracy of computer arithmetic)

Computation of Fourier coefficients (DFT) To form the linear system (3.8), we need to compute the Fourier coefficients of $a(x)$, $b(x)$, and $f(x)$, i.e., we need to compute integrals of the form:

$$\hat{f}_n = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 f(t) e^{-i\pi n t} dt, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (3.9)$$

Call $h(t) = f(t)e^{-i\pi n t}$. If $f \in \mathcal{A}$, then so is h . One simple way to approximate the integral of h on $[-1, 1]$ is using the *rectangle rule*:

$$\int_{-1}^1 h(t) dt \approx \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} h\left(\frac{2k}{N}\right). \quad (3.10)$$

This approximation happens to be exponentially convergent in N .

Theorem 3.10 Let h be a 2-periodic function such that its Fourier series is absolutely convergent. Let $I(h) = \int_{-1}^1 h(t) dt$, and for an even integer N , let $I_N(h) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} h\left(\frac{2k}{N}\right)$. Then

$$I_N(h) - I(h) = 2 \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}, |r| \geq 1} \hat{h}_{Nr}. \quad (3.11)$$

As a consequence, if h is analytic on the horizontal strip $\{z \in \mathbb{C} : |\operatorname{Im} z| < a\}$ and $|h(z)| \leq M$ for $|\operatorname{Im} z| < a$, then by letting $c = e^{-a\pi} \in (0, 1)$, we have $|I_N(h) - I(h)| \leq 4Mc^N/(1 - c^N)$.

Remark 3.11 Another consequence of the expression (3.11) is that $I_N(h) = I(h)$ if h is a trigonometric polynomial of degree $< N$, i.e., if $\hat{h}_n = 0$ for $|n| \geq N$. This is reminiscent of Gaussian quadrature rules which are exact for polynomials up to degree $2N - 1$. For more on the exponential convergence of the rectangle rule for periodic analytic functions, we refer the interested reader to the following review article *The Exponentially Convergent Trapezoidal Rule*, SIAM Review, 2014 by L. N. Trefethen, and J. A. C. Weideman.

Proof. Let $\omega_N = e^{2\pi i/N}$. Then we have

$$\frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} h\left(\frac{2k}{N}\right) = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{h}_n e^{2\pi i n k/N} = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{h}_n \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} \omega_N^{nk}.$$

Since $\omega_N^N = 1$ we have

$$\sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} \omega_N^{nk} = \omega_N^{-n(N/2-1)} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \omega_N^{nk} = \begin{cases} N, & n \equiv 0 \pmod{N}, \\ 0, & n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{N}, \end{cases}$$

and we deduce that

$$\frac{2}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} h\left(\frac{2k}{N}\right) = 2 \sum_{r=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{h}_{Nr}.$$

Since $I(h) = 2\hat{h}_0$, we immediately obtain the expression (3.11).

For the second part of the theorem, the analyticity assumption guarantees, that the Fourier coefficients $|\hat{h}_n|$ decay exponentially fast, namely $|\hat{h}_n| \leq Mc^{|n|}$ (see Lecture 11). In this case we have

$$2 \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}, |r| \geq 1} |\hat{h}_{Nr}| \leq 4M \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} c^{Nr} = 4Mc^N/(1 - c^N)$$

as desired.

Remark 3.12 Applying the rectangle rule to the integral in (3.9) corresponds to the approximation

$$\hat{f}_n \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=-N/2+1}^{N/2} f\left(\frac{2k}{N}\right) e^{-2ik\pi n/N}.$$

We recognize that the right-hand side, for $n = -N/2 + 1, \dots, N/2$, corresponds to the discrete Fourier transform of the sequence $(y_k) = (f(\frac{2k}{N}))$. Thus, one can compute the approximations to $\hat{f}_n$ using the FFT algorithm.

Problem 3.13 (The Poisson equation) We consider the *Poisson equation*

$$\nabla^2 u = f, \quad -1 \leq x, y \leq 1, \quad (3.12)$$

where f is analytic and obeys the periodic boundary conditions

$$f(-1, y) = f(1, y), \quad -1 \leq y \leq 1, \quad f(x, -1) = f(x, 1), \quad -1 \leq x \leq 1.$$

Moreover, we add to (3.12) the following *periodic boundary conditions*

$$\begin{aligned} u(-1, y) &= u(1, y), & u_x(-1, y) &= u_x(1, y), & -1 \leq y \leq 1 \\ u(x, -1) &= u(x, 1), & u_y(x, -1) &= u_y(x, 1), & -1 \leq x \leq 1. \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

With these boundary conditions alone, a solution of (3.12) is only defined up to an additive constant. Hence, we add a *normalisation condition* to fix the constant:

$$\int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1}^1 u(x, y) \, dx \, dy = 0. \quad (3.14)$$

We have the spectrally convergent Fourier expansion

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{k, l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}_{k, l} e^{i\pi(kx+ly)}$$

and seek the Fourier expansion of u

$$u(x, y) = \sum_{k, l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{u}_{k, l} e^{i\pi(kx+ly)}.$$

Since

$$0 = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1}^1 u(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \sum_{k, l=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{u}_{k, l} \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1}^1 e^{i\pi(kx+ly)} \, dx \, dy = \hat{u}_{0, 0},$$

and

$$\nabla^2 u(x, y) = -\pi^2 \sum_{k, l=-\infty}^{\infty} (k^2 + l^2) \hat{u}_{k, l} e^{i\pi(kx+ly)},$$

together with (3.12), we have

$$\begin{cases} \hat{u}_{k, l} = -\frac{1}{(k^2 + l^2)\pi^2} \hat{f}_{k, l}, & k, l \in \mathbb{Z}, (k, l) \neq (0, 0) \\ \hat{u}_{0, 0} = 0. \end{cases}$$

Remark 3.14 Applying a spectral method to the Poisson equation is not representative for its application to other PDEs. The reason is the special structure of the Poisson equation. In fact, $\phi_{k, l} = e^{i\pi(kx+ly)}$ are the eigenfunctions of the Laplace operator with

$$\nabla^2 \phi_{k, l} = -\pi^2(k^2 + l^2)\phi_{k, l},$$

and they obey periodic boundary conditions.

Problem 3.15 (General second-order linear elliptic PDE) We consider the more general second-order linear elliptic PDE

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(a(x, y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(a(x, y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) = f, \quad -1 \leq x, y \leq 1,$$

with $a(x, y) > 0$, and a and f periodic. We again impose the periodic boundary conditions (3.13) and the normalisation condition (3.14). We use the Fourier expansions

$$g(x, y) = \sum_{k, l \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{g}_{k, l} e^{i\pi(kx + ly)}, \quad h(x, y) = \sum_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{h}_{m, n} e^{i\pi(mx + ny)},$$

together with the bivariate versions of (3.4)-(3.5)

$$\begin{aligned} (\widehat{g \cdot h})_{k, l} &= \sum_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{g}_{k-m, l-n} \hat{h}_{m, n}, & (\widehat{g_x})_{k, l} &= i\pi k \hat{g}_{k, l}, & (\widehat{g_y})_{k, l} &= i\pi l \hat{g}_{k, l}, \\ (\widehat{h_x})_{m, n} &= i\pi m \hat{h}_{m, n}, & (\widehat{h_y})_{m, n} &= i\pi n \hat{h}_{m, n}. \end{aligned}$$

This gives

$$-\pi^2 \sum_{k, l \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{m, n \in \mathbb{Z}} (km + ln) \hat{a}_{k-m, l-n} \hat{u}_{m, n} e^{i\pi(kx + ly)} = \sum_{k, l \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_{k, l} e^{i\pi(kx + ly)}.$$

In the next steps, we truncate the expansions to $-N/2 + 1 \leq k, l, m, n \leq N/2$ and impose the normalisation condition $\hat{u}_{0,0} = 0$. This results in a system of $N^2 - 1$ linear algebraic equations in the unknowns $\hat{u}_{m, n}$, where $m, n = -N/2 + 1 \dots N/2$, and $(m, n) \neq (0, 0)$:

$$\sum_{m, n = -N/2 + 1}^{N/2} (km + ln) \hat{a}_{k-m, l-n} \hat{u}_{m, n} = -\frac{1}{\pi^2} \hat{f}_{k, l}, \quad k, l = -N/2 + 1 \dots N/2.$$

Discussion 3.16 (Analyticity and periodicity) The fast convergence of spectral methods rests on two properties of the underlying problem: analyticity and periodicity. If one is not satisfied the rate of convergence in general drops to polynomial. However, to a certain extent, we can relax these two assumptions while still retaining the substantive advantages of Fourier expansions.

- *Relaxing analyticity:* In general, the speed of convergence of the truncated Fourier series of a function f depends on the smoothness of the function. In fact, the smoother the function the faster the truncated series converges, i.e., for $f \in C^p(-1, 1)$ we receive an $\mathcal{O}(N^{-p})$ order of convergence.
- *Relaxing periodicity:* Disappointingly, periodicity is necessary for spectral convergence. One way around this is to change our set of basis functions, e.g., to Chebyshev polynomials.