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### METHOD OF WEIGHTED RESIDUALS (I)

- Spectral Methods belong to the broader category of Weighted Residual Methods, for which approximations are defined in terms of series expansions, such that some quantity (residual, or error) is set to be zero in some approximate sense
- In general, an approximation  $u_N(x)$  to u(x) is constructed using a set of basis functions  $\varphi_k(x)$ , k = 0, ..., N (note that  $\varphi_k(x)$  need not be orthogonal)

$$u_N(x) \triangleq \sum_{k \in I_N} \hat{u}_k \varphi_k(x), \ a \le x \le b$$

### • Residual for

- Problem of approximating a function *u*:

 $R_N(x) = u - u_N$ 

- Approximate solution to a differential equation  $\angle u - f = 0$ :

 $R_N(x) = \mathcal{L} u_N - f$ 

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### METHOD OF WEIGHTED RESIDUALS (II)

PART IV

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• Cancellation of the residual  $R_N$  in the following sense:

$$(R_N, \psi_i)_{w_*} = \int_a^b w_* R_N \bar{\psi}_i \, dx = 0, \ i \in I_N$$

where  $\psi_i(x)$ ,  $i \in I_N$  are the trial (test) functions

- Spectral Method is obtained by:
  - selecting the basis functions φ<sub>k</sub> to form an orthogonal system under the weight w:

$$(\mathbf{\varphi}_i, \mathbf{\varphi}_k)_w = \mathbf{\delta}_{ik}, \ i, k \in I_N$$
 and

- selecting the trial functions to coincide with the basis functions:

 $\psi_k = \varphi_k, \ k \in I_N$ 

- with the weights  $w_* = w$  (Galerkin approach), or
- selecting the trial functions as

 $\Psi_k = \delta(x - x_k), \ x_k \in (a, b),$ 

where  $x_k$  are chosen in a non–arbitrary manner, and the weights are  $w_* = 1$  (Collocation, "pseudo–spectral" approach)

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### METHOD OF WEIGHTED RESIDUALS (III)

- Note that the residual  $R_N$  vanishes
  - $\,$  in the mean sense in the Galerkin approach
  - at the points  $x_k$  in the collocation approach

# Approximation of Functions (I) — Galerkin Method

• The residual

$$R_N(x) = u - u_N = u - \sum_{k=0}^N \hat{u}_k \varphi_k$$

• Cancellation of the residual in the mean

$$(R_N, \varphi_i)_w = \int_a^b \left( u - \sum_{k=0}^N \hat{u}_k \varphi_k \right) \bar{\varphi}_i \, w \, dx = 0, \quad i = 0, \dots, l$$

• Orthogonality of the basis / trial functions thus allows us to determine the coefficients  $\hat{\mu}$  by evaluating the expressions

$$\hat{u}_k = \int_a^b u \,\bar{\varphi}_k \, w \, dx, \ k = 0, \dots, N$$

• Note that, for this problem, the Galerkin approach is equivalent to the Least Squares Method .

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### APPROXIMATION OF PDES (I) — GALERKIN METHOD

• Consider a generic PDE problem

where  ${\it L}$  is a linear, second–oder differential operator, and  ${\it B}_-$  and  ${\it B}_+$ 

represent appropriate boundary conditions (Dirichlet, Neumann, or Robin)

• Reduce the problem to an equivalent homogeneous formulation via a "lifting" technique, i.e., substitute  $u = \overline{u} + v$ , where  $\overline{u}$  is an arbitrary function satisfying the boundary conditions above and the new (homogeneous) problem for v is

$\int \mathcal{L} v - h = 0$	a < x < b
$\begin{cases} \mathcal{B}_{-}v = 0 \end{cases}$	x = a
$\mathcal{B}_+ v = 0$	x = b,

where  $h = f - \mathcal{L} \, \overline{u}$ 

• The reason for this transformation is that the basis functions  $\varphi_k$  (usually) satisfy homogeneous boundary conditions.

## Approximation of Functions (II) — Collocation Method

The residual

$$R_N(x) = u - u_N = u - \sum_{k=0}^N \hat{u}_k \varphi_k$$

• Pointwise cancellation of the residual

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} \hat{u}_k \varphi_k(x_i) = u(x_i), \quad i = 0, \dots, N$$

Determination of the coefficients  $\hat{q}_k$  thus requires solution of an algebraic system. Existence and uniqueness of solutions requires that  $\det{\{\phi_k(x_i)\}} \neq 0$  (condition on the choice of the collocation points  $x_j$ 

- As will be shown later, for a judicious choice of the collocation points  $x_j$  the above system can be decoupled and therefore determination of  $\hat{y}_i$  may be reduced to evaluation of simple expressions
- For this problem the collocation method thus coincides with an interpolation technique based on the set {*x<sub>j</sub>*}

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### Approximation of PDEs (II) — Galerkin Method

• The residual

$$R_N(x) = \mathcal{L} v_N - h$$
, where  $v_N = \sum_{k=0}^N \hat{v}_k \varphi_k(x)$ 

satisfies ("by construction") the boundary conditions

• Cancellation of the residual in the mean

$$(R_N, \varphi_i)_w = (\pounds v_N - h, \varphi_i)_w, \quad i = 0, \dots, N$$

Thus

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} \hat{v}_k \left( \pounds \, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_k, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i \right)_w = (h, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i)_w, \ i = 0, \dots, N,$$

where the scalar product  $(\mathcal{L}\varphi_k,\varphi_i)_w$  can be accurately evaluated using properties of the basis functions  $\varphi_i$  and  $(h,\varphi_i)_w = \hat{h}_i$ 

• An  $(N+1) \times (N+1)$  algebraic system is obtained.

### Approximation of PDEs (III) — Collocation Method

• The residual (corresponding to the original inhomogeneous problem)

$$R_N(x) = \mathcal{L} u_N - f$$
, where  $u_N = \sum_{k=0}^N \hat{u}_k \varphi_k(x)$ 

• Pointwise cancellation of the residual, including the boundary nodes:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L} & \mathcal{L} u_N(x_i) = f(x_i) & i = 1, \dots, N-1 \\ \mathcal{B}_- u_N(x_0) &= g_- \\ \mathcal{B}_+ u_N(x_N) &= g_+, \end{aligned}$$

which results in an  $(N+1) \times (N+1)$  algebraic system. Note that depending on the properties of the basis  $\{\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_N\}$ , this system may be singular.

 Sometimes an alternative formulation is useful, where the nodal values *u<sub>N</sub>(x<sub>j</sub>) j* = 0,...,*N*, rather than the expansion coefficients '*u<sub>k</sub> k* = 0,...,*N* are unknown. The advantage is a convenient form of the expression for the derivative

$$u_N^{(p)}(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^N d_{ij}^{(p)} u_N(x_j)$$

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### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (II) — EXAMPLE

• Let  $\mathcal{T}$  :  $L_2(0,\pi) \to L_2(0,\pi)$  be defined for all  $f \in L_2(0,\pi)$  by  $\mathcal{T} f = u$ , where u is the solution of the Dirichlet problem

$$\begin{cases} -u'' = f\\ u(0) = u(\pi) = \end{cases}$$

: 0

Compactness of  $\mathcal{T}$  follows from the Lax–Milgram lemma and compact embeddedness of  $H^1(0,\pi)$  in  $L_2(0,\pi)$ 

• Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$$\lambda_k = \frac{1}{k^2}$$
 and  $W_k = \sqrt{2}\sin(kx)$  for  $k \ge 1$ 

• Thus, each function  $u \in L_2(0,\pi)$  can be represented as

$$u(x) = \sqrt{2} \sum_{k \ge 1} \hat{u}_k W_k(x)$$

where  $\hat{u} = (u, W_k)_{L_2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} u(x) \sin(kx) dx$ 

• Uniform (pointwise) convergence is not guaranteed (only in L<sub>2</sub> sense)!

### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (I) — CONSTRUCTION

- Let H be a separable Hilbert space and *T* a compact Hermitian operator. Then, there exists a sequence {λ<sub>n</sub>}<sub>n∈ℕ</sub> and {W<sub>n</sub>}<sub>n∈ℕ</sub> such that
  - 1.  $\lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$ ,
  - 2. the family  $\{W_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  forms a complete basis in **H**
  - 3.  $T W_n = \lambda_n W_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- Systems of orthogonal functions are therefore related to spectra of certain operators, hence the name SPECTRAL METHODS

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### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (III) — EXAMPLE

 Let T : L<sub>2</sub>(0,π) → L<sub>2</sub>(0,π) be defined for all f ∈ L<sub>2</sub>(0,π) by T f = u, where u is the solution of the Neumann problem

$$\begin{cases} -u'' + u = f \\ u'(0) = u'(\pi) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Compactness of  $\mathcal{T}$  follows from the Lax–Milgram lemma and compact embeddedness of  $H^1(0,\pi)$  in  $L_2(0,\pi)$ 

• Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

$$\lambda_k = \frac{1}{1+k^2}$$
 and  $W_0(x) = 1, W_k = \sqrt{2}\cos(kx)$  for  $k > 1$ 

• Thus, each function  $u \in L_2(0,\pi)$  can be represented as

$$u(x) = \sqrt{2} \sum_{k \ge 0} \hat{u}_k W_k(x),$$

where  $\hat{u} = (u, W_k)_{L_2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} u(x) \cos(kx) dx$ 

• Uniform (pointwise) convergence is not guaranteed (only in  $L_2$  sense)!

### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (IV) — EXAMPLE

- Expansion in sine series good for functions vanishing on the boundaries
- Expansion in cosine series good for functions with first derivatives vanishing on the boundaries
- Combining sine and cosine expansions we obtain the Fourier series expansion with the basis functions (in L<sub>2</sub>(-π, π))

$$W_k(x) = e^{ikx}$$
, for  $k \ge 0$ 

 $W_k$  form a Hilbert basis with better properties then sine or cosine series alone.

• Fourier series vs. Fourier transform —the Fourier transform of u(x) vanishing outside the interval  $(-\pi,\pi)$  takes the values  $\sqrt{2\pi} \hat{u}_k$  at the points k = 0, 1, 2, ...

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## ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (VI) — EXAMPLE

• Find the polynomial  $\overline{P}_N$  (of order *N*) that best approximates a function  $f \in L_2(a,b)$  [note that we will need the structure of a Hilbert space, hence we go to  $L_2(a,b)$ , but  $C(a,b) \subset L_2(a,b)$ ], i.e.

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) - \bar{P}_{N}(x)]^{2} dx \leq \int_{a}^{b} [f(x) - P_{N}(x)]^{2} dx$$

where

$$\bar{P}_N(x) = \bar{a}_0 + \bar{a}_1 x + \bar{a}_2 x^2 + \dots + \bar{a}_N x^k$$

• Using the formula 
$$\sum_{j=0}^{N} \bar{q}(e_j, e_k) = (f, e_k), j = 0, \dots, N$$
, where  $e_k = x^k$ 

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} \bar{a}_k \int_a^b x^{k+j} dx = \int_a^b x^j f(x) dx$$
$$\sum_{k=0}^{N} \bar{a}_k \frac{b^{k+j+1} - a^{k+j+1}}{k+j+1} = \int_a^b x^j f(x) dx$$

• The resulting algebraic problem is ill–conditioned , e.g. for a = 0 and b = 1

$$[A]_{kj} = \frac{1}{k+j+1}$$

### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (V) — POLYNOMIAL APPROXIMATION

- Weierstrass Approximation Theorem —To any function f(x) that is continuous in [a,b] and to any real number ε > 0 there corresponds a polynomial P(x) such that ||P(x) f(x)||<sub>C(a,b)</sub> < ε, i.e. the set of polynomials is dense in the Banach space C(a,b)</li>
  (C(a,b) is the Banach space with the norm ||f||<sub>C(a,b)</sub> = max<sub>x∈[a,b]</sub> |f(x)|
- Thus the power functions  $x^k$ , k = 0, 1, ... represent a natural basis in C(a, b)
- Question —Is this set of basis functions useful?

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ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (VII) — POLYNOMIAL APPROXIMATION

- Much better behaved approximation problems are obtained with the use of orthogonal basis functions
- Such systems of orthogonal basis functions are derived by applying Schmidt orthogonalization procedure to the system {1,x,...,x<sup>N</sup>}
- Various families of **ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIALS** are obtained depending on the choice of:
  - the domain [a, b] over which the polynomials are defined, and
  - the weight *w* characterizing the inner product  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  used for orthogonalization

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### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (VIII) — ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIALS

- Polynomials defined on the interval [-1,1]
  - Legendre polynomials (w = 1)

$$P_k(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2k+1}{2}} \frac{1}{2^k k!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} (x^2 - 1)^k, \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

– Jacobi polynomials ( $w = (1-x)^{\alpha}(1+x)^{\beta}$ )

$$J_k^{(\alpha,\beta)}(x) = C_k (1-x)^{-\alpha} (1+x)^{-\beta} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} [(1-x)^{\alpha+k} (1+x)^{\beta+k}] \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

where  $C_k$  is a very complicated constant

- Chebyshev polynomials  $(w = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}})$ 

 $T_n(x) = \cos(k \arccos(x)), \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$ 

Note that Chebyshev polynomials are obtained from Jacobi polynomials for  $\alpha=\beta=-1/2$ 

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### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (X) — ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIALS

- What is the relationship between orthogonal polynomials and eigenfunctions of a compact operator Hermitian operator (cf. Theorem on page 55)?
- Each of the aforementioned families of orthogonal polynomials forms the set of eigenvectors for the following Sturm–Liouville problem

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[p(x)\frac{dy}{dx}\right] + [q(x) + \lambda r(x)]y = 0$$
$$a_1y(a) + a_2y'(a) = 0$$
$$b_1y(b) + b_2y'(b) = 0$$

for appropriately selected domain [a,b] and coefficients  $p, q, r, a_1, a_2, b_1$  and  $b_2$ .

### ORTHONORMAL SYSTEMS (IX) — ORTHOGONAL POLYNOMIALS

 Polynomials defined on the interval [0, +∞] Laguerre polynomials (w = e<sup>-x</sup>)

$$L_k(x) = \frac{1}{k!} e^x \frac{d^k}{dx^k} (e^{-x} x^k), \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

 Polynomials defined on the interval [-∞, +∞] Hermite polynomials (w = 1)

$$H_k(x) = \frac{(-1)^k}{(2^k k! \sqrt{\pi})^{1/2}} e^{x^2} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} e^{-x^2}, \ k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

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### FOURIER SERIES (I) — CALCULATION OF FOURIER COEFFICIENTS

- Truncated Fourier series:
- $u_N(x) = \sum_{k=-N}^N \hat{u}_k e^{ikx}$
- The series involves 2N + 1 complex coefficients of the form (wight  $w \equiv 1$ ):

$$\hat{u}_k = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u e^{-ikx} dx, \ k = -N, \dots, N$$

- The expansion is redundant for real-values u —the property of conjugate symmetry  $\hat{u}_k = \bar{v}_k$ , which reduces the number of complex coefficients to N+1; furthermore,  $\Im(\hat{v}_k) \equiv 0$  for real u, thus one has 2N+1 real coefficients; in the real case one can work with positive frequencies only.
- Equivalent real representation:

$$u_N(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} [a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)],$$

where 
$$a_0 = \hat{u}, a_k = 2\Re(\hat{u})$$
 and  $b_k = 2\Im(\hat{u})$ .

### FOURIER SERIES (II) — UNIFORM CONVERGENCE

- Consider a function *u* that is continuous, periodic (with the period 2π) and differentiable; note the following two facts:
  - The Fourier coefficients are always less than the average of u

- If 
$$v = u^{(\alpha)}$$
  
$$\begin{aligned} |\hat{u}_k| &= \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u(x) e^{ikx} dx \right| \le M(u) \triangleq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |u(x)| dx \\ \hat{u}_k &= \frac{\hat{v}_k}{(ik)^{\alpha}} \end{aligned}$$

• Then, using integration by parts, we have

$$\hat{u}_k = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u(x) e^{-ikx} \, dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left[ u(x) \frac{e^{-ikx}}{-ik} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u'(x) \frac{e^{-ikx}}{-ik} \, dx$$

• Repeating integration by parts p times

$$\hat{u}_{k} = (-1)^{p} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u^{(p)}(x) \frac{e^{-ikx}}{(-ik)^{p}} dx \implies |\hat{u}_{k}| \le \frac{M(u^{(p)})}{|k|^{p}}$$

Therefore, the more regular is the function u, the more rapidly its Fourier coefficients tend to zero as  $|n| \rightarrow \infty$ 

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### FOURIER SERIES (IV) — DISTRIBUTIONS

- Let D'<sub>p</sub>(I) be the dual space of C<sup>∞</sup><sub>p</sub>(I), i.e., the space of periodic distributions with period 2π [I = (-π,π)[. The duality between D'<sub>p</sub>(I) and C<sup>∞</sup><sub>p</sub>(I) is denoted by ⟨·,·⟩, i.e. for f ∈ L<sub>2</sub>(I) and φ ∈ C<sup>∞</sup><sub>p</sub>(I) we have ⟨f, φ⟩ = (f, φ)
- Using  $W_k = e^{ikx}$  (note that  $W_k \in C_p^{\infty}(I)$ ), the Fourier series for  $f \in D'_p(I)$  can be written as

$$\hat{f}_k = \langle f, W_k \rangle$$

We have for any  $\phi \in C_p^{\infty}(I)$ 

$$\langle f, \phi \rangle = \langle f, \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{\phi}_k W_k \rangle = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle f, W_k \rangle \overline{\hat{\phi}}_k \implies \langle f, \phi \rangle = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}_k \overline{\hat{\phi}}_k$$

- This, given rapid decrease of  $\hat{\phi}_k$ , the Fourier coefficient of f may increase slowly  $-f \in D'_p(I)$  iff there exists q > 0 such that  $\lim_{|k| \to \infty} \frac{\hat{f}_k}{(1+k^2)^q} = 0$
- The Fourier series of a distribution  $f \in D'_p(I)$  converges to f in  $D'_p(I)$

### FOURIER SERIES (III) — UNIFORM CONVERGENCE

• We have

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$$|\hat{u}_k| \leq \frac{M(u'')}{|k|^2} \implies \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{u}_k e^{ikx}| \leq \hat{u}_0 \sum_{n \neq 0} \frac{M(u'')}{n^2}$$

The latter series converges absolutely

- Thus, if *u* is twice continuously differentiable and its first derivative is continuous and periodic with period  $2\pi$ , then its Fourier series  $u_N = P_N u$  converges uniformly to *u*
- Spectral convergence  $-if \phi \in C_p^{\infty}(-\pi,\pi)$ , then for all  $\alpha > 0$  there exists a positive constant  $C_{\alpha}$  such that  $|\hat{\phi}_k| \leq \frac{C_{\alpha}}{|n|^{\alpha}}$ , i.e., for a function with an infinite number of smooth derivatives, the Fourier coefficients vanish faster than algebraically

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### FOURIER SERIES (V) — PERIODIC SOBOLEV SPACES

• Let  $H_p^r(I)$  be a periodic Sobolev space, i.e.,

$$H_p^r(I) = \{u : u^{(\alpha)} \in L_2(I), \alpha = 0, \dots, r\}$$

The space  $C_p^{\infty}(I)$  is dense in  $H_p^r(I)$ 

• The following two norms can be shown to be equivalent in  $H_p^r$ :

$$\|u\|_{r} = \left[\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (1+k^{2})^{r} |\hat{u}_{k}|^{2}\right]^{1/2}$$
$$\|\|u\|\|_{r} = \left[\sum_{\alpha=0}^{r} C_{r}^{\alpha} \|u^{(\alpha)}\|^{2}\right]^{1/2}$$

Note that the first definition is naturally generalized for the case when r is non-integer!

• The projection operator  $P_N$  commutes with the derivative in the distribution sense:

$$(P_N u)^{(\alpha)} = \sum_{|k| \le N} (ik)^{\alpha} \hat{u}_k W_k = P_N u^{(\alpha)}$$

### FOURIER SERIES (VI) — APPROXIMATION ERROR ESTIMATES IN $H_p^s(I)$

• Let  $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $0 \le s \le r$ ; then we have:

$$||u - P_N u||_s \le (1 + N^2)^{\frac{s-r}{2}} ||u||_r$$
, for  $u \in H_p^r(I)$ 

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|u - P_N u\|_s^2 &= \sum_{|k| > N} (1 + k^2)^{s - r + r} |\hat{u}_k|^2 \le (1 + N^2)^{s - r} \sum_{|k| > N} (1 + k^2)^r |\hat{u}_k|^2 \\ &\le (1 + N^2)^{s - r} \|u\|_x^2 \end{aligned}$$

• Thus, accuracy of the approximation  $P_N u$  is better when u is smoother; More precisely, for  $u \in H_p^r(I)$  the  $L_2$  leading order error is  $\mathcal{O}(N^{-r})$  which improves when r increases.

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### Fourier series (VIII) — Approximation Error Estimates in $L_{\infty}(I)$

 An estimate in the norm L<sub>∞</sub>(I) follows immediately from the previous lemma and estimates in the H<sup>s</sup><sub>p</sub>(I) norm

$$||u - P_N u||^2_{L_{\infty}(I)} \le C(1 + N^2)^{-\frac{r}{2}}(1 + N^2)^{\frac{1-r}{2}}$$

where  $u \in H_p^r(I)$ 

• Thus for  $r \ge 1$ 

$$||u - P_N u||^2_{L_{\infty}(I)} = O(N^{\frac{1}{2}-r})$$

 Uniform convergence for all *u* ∈ *H*<sup>1</sup><sub>p</sub>(*I*) (Note that *u* need only to be continuous, therefore this result is stronger than the one given on page 67)

### FOURIER SERIES (VII) — Approximation Error Estimates in $L_{\infty}(I)$

• First, a useful lemma (Sobolev inequality) —let  $u \in H_p^1(I)$ , then there exists a constant *C* such that

$$||u||_{L_{\infty}(I)}^{2} \leq C||u||_{0} ||u||_{1}$$

Proof: Suppose  $u \in C_p^{\infty}(I)$ ; note the following facts

- $-\hat{u}$  is the average of u
- From the mean value theorem:  $\exists x_0 \in I$  such that  $\hat{y} = u(x_0)$ Let  $v(x) = u(x) - \hat{y}$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2}|v(x)|^2 = \int_{x_0}^x v(y)v'(y)\,dy \le \left(\int_{x_0}^x |v(y)|^2\,dy\right)^{1/2} \left(\int_{x_0}^x |v'(y)|^2\,dy\right)^{1/2} \le 2\pi \|v\| \,\|v'\|$$
$$|u(x)| \le |\hat{u}_0| + |v(x)| \le |\hat{u}_0| + 2\pi^{1/2} \|v\|^{1/2} \,\|v'\|^{1/2} \le C \|u\|_0^{1/2} \,\|u\|_1^{1/2},$$
since  $v' = u', \|v\| \le \|u\|$  and  $|\hat{\iota}_0| \le \|u\|.$ 

As  $C_p^{\infty}(I)$  is dense in  $H_p^1(I)$ , the inequality also holds for  $u \in H_p^1(I)$ .

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### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (I)

- In practice, for any arbitrary  $u \in C_p^0(I)$  it is not possible to calculate exactly the Fourier coefficients  $\hat{u}$  (need to evaluate quadratures numerically); therefore, in general we do not know  $P_N u$ , i.e., the optimal projection on  $S_N = \text{span}\{e^{i0k}, \dots, e^{iNx}\}$
- Can determine an interpolant  $v \in S_N$  of u, such that v coincides with u at 2N + 1 points  $\{x_j\}_{|j| \le N}$  defined by

$$x_j = jh, \ |j| \le N$$
 where  $h = \frac{2\pi}{2N+1}$ 

• For the interpolant we set

$$v(x) = \sum_{|k| \le N} a_k e^{ikx}$$

where the coefficients  $a_k$  can be determined by solving the algebraic system (cf. page 51)

$$\sum_{|k| \le N} e^{ikx_j} a_k = u(x_j), \ |j| \le N$$

### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (II)

• The system can be rewritten as

$$\sum_{|k| \le N} W^{jk} a_k = u(x_j), \ |j| \le N$$

where  $W = e^{ih} = e^{\frac{2i\pi}{2N+1}}$  is the principal root of order (2N+1) of unity (since  $W^{jk} = (e^{ih})^{jk}$ )

• The matrix  $[\mathbb{W}]_{jk} = W^{jk}$  is unitary (i.e.  $\mathbb{W}^T \overline{\mathbb{W}} = \mathbb{I}(2N+1)$ ) Proof: Examine the expression

$$\mathbb{W}^T \,\overline{\mathbb{W}} = \mathbb{I} \implies \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} W^{jk} W^{-jl} = \delta_{kl}$$

- If k = l, then  $W^{jk}W^{-jl} = W^{j(k-l)} = W^0 = 1$
- If  $k \neq l$ , define  $\omega = W^{k-l}$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} W^{jk} W^{-jl} = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} \omega^j = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j'=0}^{M-1} \omega^j$$

where M = 2N + 1, j' = j if  $0 \le j \le N$  and j' = j + M if  $-N \le j < 0$ , so that  $\omega^{j+M} = \omega^j$ . Using the expression for the sum of a finite geometric series completes the proof:  $(1 - \omega) \sum_{j < l \le N}^{M-1} \omega^{j'} = 1 - \omega^M = 0$ 

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### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (IV)

• Let  $P_C: C_p^0(I) \to S_N$  be the mapping which associates with *u* its interpolant  $v \in S_N$ . Let  $(\cdot, \cdot)_N$  be the following form on  $C_p^0(I)$ :

$$(u,v)_N \triangleq \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} u(x_j) \overline{v(x_j)}$$

• By construction, the operator  $P_C$  satisfies:

$$(P_C u)(x_j) = u(x_j), \ |j| \le N$$

and therefore also

 $(u-P_Cu,v_N)_N=0, \forall v_N \in S_N$ 

• By the definition of  $P_N$  we have

$$(u-P_Nu,v_N)=0, \forall v_N \in S_N$$

• Thus,  $P_C$  can be obtained by replacing the scalar product  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  with the "discrete scalar product"  $(\cdot, \cdot)_N$ 

### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (III)

• Consequently, the Fourier coefficients of the interpolant of u in  $S_N$  can be calculated as follows:

$$a_k = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|k| \le N} z_j W^{-jk}$$
, where  $z_j = u(x_j)$ 

• The mapping

$$\{z_j\}_{|j|\leq N} \longrightarrow \{z_k\}_{|k|\leq N}$$

is referred to as Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

• Straightforward evaluation of the expression for  $a_k$  (matrix-vector product) would result in the computational cost  $O(N^2)$ . Algorithms known as Fast Fourier Transforms (FFT) reduce this cost down to  $O(N\log(N))$  via a suitable factorization of the matrix  $\mathbb{W}^T$ . See www.fftw.org for one of the best publicly available implementation of the FFT.

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### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (V)

• The two scalar products coincide on  $S_N$ 

 $(u_N, v_N) = (u_N, v_N)_N, \forall u_N, v_N \in S_N$ 

• Proof -examine the numerical integration formula

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \, dx \cong \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} f(x_j)$$

for  $f \in S_N$ 

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{ikx} dx = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} e^{ikx_j} = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} W^{jk} = \begin{cases} 1 & k = 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Thus for uniform distribution of  $x_j$ , the trapezoidal formula is exact for  $u \in S_N$ 

### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (VI)

• Relation between Fourier coefficients of a function and Fourier coefficients of its interpolant  $(W_k(x) = e^{ikx})$ 

$$\hat{u}_{k} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u \overline{W}_{k} dx$$
$$a_{k} = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} u(x_{j}) \overline{W_{k}(x_{j})}$$

• For  $u \in C_p^0(I)$  we have the relation

$$a_k = \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{u}_{k+lM}$$
, where  $M = 2N + 1$ 

Proof —Consider the set of basis functions (in  $L_2(I)$ )  $U_k = e^{ikx}$ . We have:

$$(U_k, U_n)_N = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} U_k(x_j) \overline{U_n(x_j)} = \frac{1}{2N+1} \sum_{|j| \le N} W^{j(k-n)} = \begin{cases} 1 & k = n \pmod{M} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
  
Since  $P_C u = \sum_{|j| \le N} a_j W_j$ , we infer from  $(P_C u, W_k)_N = (u, W_k)_N$  that

$$a_k = (P_C u, W_k)_N = (u, W_k)_N = \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{u}_n W_n, W_k\right)_N = \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{u}_{k+lM}$$

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### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (VIII) — ERROR ESTIMATES IN $H_p^s(I)$

• Suppose  $s \le r, r > \frac{1}{2}$  are given, then there exists a constant *C* such that if  $u \in H_p^r(I)$ , we have

$$||u - P_C u||_s \le C(1 + N^2)^{\frac{s-r}{2}} ||u||_r$$

Outline of the proof:

Note that  $P_C$  leaves  $S_N$  invariant, therefore  $P_C P_N = P_N$  and we may thus write

$$u - P_C u = u - P_N u + P_C (P_N - I)u$$

Setting  $w = (I - P_N)u$  and using the "triangle inequality" we obtain

$$||u - P_C u||_s = ||u - P_N u||_s + ||P_C w||_s$$

- The term  $||u P_N u||_s$  is upper-bounded using theorem from page 70
- Need to estimate  $||P_Cw||_s$  —straightforward, but tedious ...

## LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (VII)

• Thus

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$$u(x_j) = v(x_j) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{u}_k e^{ikx_j} = \sum_{|k| \le N} a_k e^{ikx_j} = \sum_{|k| \le N} \left( \hat{u}_k + \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}} \hat{u}_{k+lM} \right) e^{ikx_j}$$

- A Very Important Corollary concerning Discretization —two trigonometric functions with different frequencies,  $e^{ik_1x}$  and  $e^{ik_2x}$ , are equal on collocation points  $x_j$ ,  $j \le N$  when  $k_2 k_1 = l(2N + 1)$ ,  $l = 0, \pm 1, \ldots$ . Therefore, the same set of values at the collocation points may represent  $e^{ik_1x}$  as well as  $e^{ik_2x}$ . This phenomenon is referred to as ALIASING
- Note, however, that the modes appearing in the alias term correspond to frequencies larger than the cut–off frequency *N*.

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### LAGRANGE INTERPOLATION (IX)

- Until now, we defined the Discrete Fourier Transform for an odd number (2N + 1) of grid points
- FFT algorithms generally require an even number of grid points
- We can define the discrete transform for an even number of grid points by constructing the interpolant in the space  $\tilde{S}_N$  for which we have  $dim(\tilde{S}_N) = 2N$ . To do this we choose:

$$iy = j\tilde{h}, \qquad -N+1 \le j \le N$$
  
 $h = \frac{\pi}{N}$ 

- All results presented before can be established in the case with 2*N* grid points with only minor modifications
- However, now the *N*-th Fourier mode  $\hat{W}$  does not have its complex conjugate! This coefficient is usually set to zero ( $\hat{W} = 0$ ) to avoid an uncompensated imaginary contribution resulting from differentiation
- odd or even collocation depending on whether M = 2N + 1 or M = 2N