PHY1610: Fitting and Fourier Transforms

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March 4, 2021



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Today's class

Today we will discuss:

- Fitting
- Fourier transforms



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Fitting

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Fitting data

- Common task in science is to fit data to a theoretical function.
- Much of machine learning is a form of fitting.
- Even for a simple case, how are we going about this numerically?



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First let's generate some data

```
rvector<double> x = linspace(xmin, xmax, n);
rvector<double> y(n);
for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
    y[i] = a*x[i] + b + gaussian(rng);
}
return {x,y};
```

```
///@file fitwgsl.cpp
#include "lmdata.h"
#include <fstream>
#include <gsl/gsl_fit.h>
```

```
int main() {
    int n = 10;
    double xmin=0.0, xmax=2.0, a=2.5, b=1.0, sigma=0.3;
    unsigned long int seed=13;
    std::pair<rvector<double>,rvector<double>> xypair;
    xypair = lmdata(n, xmin, xmax, a, b, sigma, seed);
    rvector<double> x=xypair.first;
    rvector<double> y=xypair.second;
    // fit (x,y) to a linear model, write result to file
```

```
$ g++ -c -g -02 -std=c++14 lmdata.cpp -0 lmdata.o
$ g++ -c -g -02 -std=c++14 fitwgsl.cpp -0 fitwgsl.o
$ g++ -g lmdata.o fitwgsl.o -o fitwgsl -lgsl -lgslcblas
$ ./fitwgsl
```



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GSL fit details

From the GSL docs:

40.2.1 Linear regression with a constant term

The functions described in this section can be used to perform least-squares fits to a straight line model, $Y(c,x) = c_0 + c_1 x$.

-- Function: int gsl_fit_linear (const double * x, const size_t xstride, const double * y, const size_t ystride, size_t n, double * c0, double * c1, double * cov00, double * cov01, double * cov11, double * sumsq)

This function computes the best-fit linear regression coefficients ('c0', 'c1') of the model Y = $_{0}$ + $_{c1}$ X for the dataset ('x', 'y'), two vectors of length 'n' with strides 'xstride' and 'ystride'. The errors on 'y' are assumed unknown so the variance-covariance matrix for the parameters ('c0', 'c1') is estimated from the scatter of the points around the best-fit line and returned via the parameters ('c00', 'c0'), 'c0')'. The sum of squares of the residuals from the best-fit line is returned in 'sumsq'. Note: the correlation coefficient of the data can be computed using gsl_stats_correlation(), it does not depend on the fit.

(https://www.gnu.org/software/gsl/doc/html)

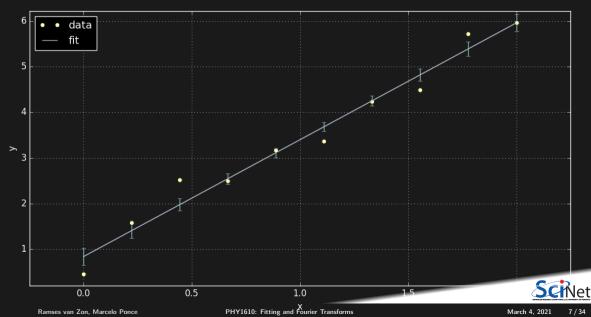
```
$ g++ -c -g -02 -std=c++14 lmdata.cpp -o lmdata.o
$ g++ -c -g -02 -std=c++14 fitwgsl.cpp -o fitwgsl.o
$ g++ -g lmdata.o fitwgsl.o -o fitwgsl -lgsl -lgslcblas
$ ./fitwgsl
a=2.32208
b=1.26666
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```

```
#include "lmdata.h"
#include <fstream>
#include <iostream>
#include <gsl/gsl fit.h>
int main() {
    int n = 10:
    double xmin=0.0, xmax=2.0, a=2.5, b=1.0, sigma=0.3;
    unsigned long int seed=13;
    std::pair<rvector<double>,rvector<double>> xvpair;
    xypair = lmdata(n, xmin, xmax, a, b, sigma, seed);
    rvector<double> x=xvpair.first, v=xvpair.second;
    // fit (x,y) to a linear model
    double c0, c1, cov00, cov01, cov11, rss:
    gsl fit linear(x.data(), 1, v.data(), 1,
                   x.size(). &c0. &c1.
                   &cov00, &cov01, &cov11, &rss);
    std::cout << "a=" << c1 << std::endl:</pre>
    std::cout << "b=" << c0 << std::endl:</pre>
    // estimate some points
    std::ofstream out("fit.dat"):
    out << "# x v vfit verr" << std::endl:
    for (int i = 0; i < x.size(); i++) {</pre>
        double y, yerr;
        gsl_fit_linear_est(x[i], c0, c1, cov00,
                            cov01, cov11, &y, &yerr);
        out << x[i] << " " << v[i] << " "
            << v << " " << verr << std::endl;
```

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Result



What did the GSL actually do?

- We've got data (x and y pairs)
- It's assumed that there is an underlying linear relation between x and y, with parameters a and b, plus noise.

$$y = f(x; a, b) + \varepsilon = ax + b + \varepsilon$$

- We need estimates for a and b.
- With these estimates, one could predict y values given any other x values ("machine learning").
- If noise is normally distributed with the same variance independent of x, one can use the residuals, i.e. the difference between the observed and the predicted values.

$$RSS(a,b) = [y_i - f(x_i;a,b)]^2$$

• GSL maximizes the likelihood of the data by minimizing the sum of the square of residuals:

 $a^*, b^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{a,b} \operatorname{RSS}(a, b)$

• Model is linear in parameters = Ordinary Least Squares

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More components, non-linear fitting, ...

- Can generalize to incorporate error estimates in y.
- Can generalize to incorporate error estimates in x.
- Generalizes to forms are non-linear in x, but still linear in parameters.
- Be careful using polynomial fits: easy to overfit.
- For non-linear parameter forms, can still try to minimize least squares: need solving.
- Can use different "cost functions" (RRS is sensitive to outliers).



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Least-squares and linear algebra

• If our model f is linear in B parameters β_j , i.e.:

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{B} \beta_j f_j(x)$$
 (e.g. $B = 2 \ f_1 = 1, \ f_2 = x, \ \beta_1 = b, \ \beta_2 = a$)

• Given N data points (x_i, y_i) , we need to minimize:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \|y_i - \sum_{j=1}^{B} f_j(x_i)\beta_j\|^2$$

- View $f_j(x_i)$ as a matrix with components F_{ji} . F has B rows and N columns.
- Taking the derivative w.r.t β_j gives:

 $FF^T\beta = Fy$

• Solving for β is linear algebra! We saw this already: (C)BLAS and LAPACK(E)!



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Least-squares and linear algebra

```
#include <iostream>
#include <cblas.h>
#include <lapacke.h>
#include "lmdata.h"
int main()
   int n = 10:
   double xmin=0.0, xmax=2.0, a=2.5, b=1.0, sigma=0.3;
   unsigned long int seed=13;
   std::pair<rvector<double>.rvector<double>> xvpair:
   xypair = lmdata(n, xmin, xmax, a, b, sigma, seed);
   rvector<double> x=xypair.first, y=xypair.second;
   // fit (x.v) to a linear model
   int nterms = 2:
   rmatrix<double> F(nterms.n):
   rmatrix<double> FFt(nterms.nterms):
   rvector<double> Fv(nterms);
    int ipiv[nterms]:
```

```
$ g++ -c -g -02 -std=c++14 fitlapack.cpp -o fitlapack.o
$ g++ -g lmdata.o fitlapack.o -o fitlapack -lopenblas
$ ./fitlapack
a=2.32208
b=1.26666
```

```
for (int i = 0: i < n: i++) {
    F[0][i] = 1.0:
    F[1][i] = x[i];
cblas dgemm(CblasRowMajor.CblasNoTrans.CblasTrans.
            nterms, nterms, n,
            1.0, F.data(), n, F.data(), n,
            0.0. FFt.data(). nterms):
cblas dgemv(CblasRowMajor, CblasNoTrans,
            nterms, n,
            1.0. F.data(). n.
            v.data(), 1,
            0.0. Fv.data(). 1):
rvector<double> resultcoef = Fv.copv():
LAPACKE dgesv(LAPACK ROW MAJOR, nterms, 1,
              FFt.data(). nterms.
              ipiv. resultcoef.data(). 1):
std::cout << "a=" << resultcoef[1] << std::endl;</pre>
std::cout << "b=" << resultcoef[0] << std::endl:</pre>
```



Least-squares for frequency analysis

- Your data may be a signal of which you only want to get rid of higher frequencies (noise).
- Fitting to periodic functions may come to mind.
- E.g.

 $y = \beta_1 \sin(\omega_1 x) + \beta_2 \sin(\omega_2 x) + \dots$

- Linear in β_i , so we could do least squares.
- However, this can lead to very oscillitory behavior to fit the data.
- There's a better way to do this.



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(Discrete) Fourier Transform



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Fourier Transform

In this part of the lecture, we will discuss:

- The Fourier transform,
- The discrete Fourier transform
- The fast Fourier transform
- Examples using the FFTW library





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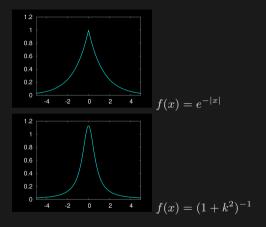
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Fourier Transform recap

• Let f be a function of some variable x.

• Transform to a function \hat{f} of k:

$$\hat{f}(k) \propto \int f(x) e^{\pm i k \cdot x} dx$$



Inverse transformation:

$$f(x) \propto \int \hat{f}(k) \, e^{\mp i \, k \cdot x} \, dk$$



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Fourier Transform

- Fourier made the claim that any function can be expressed as a harmonic series.
- The FT is a mathematical expression of that.
- Constitutes a linear (basis) transformation in function space.
- Transforms from spatial to wavenumber, or time to frequency, etc.
- Constants and signs are just convention.*

some restritions apply.



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Discrete Fourier Transform



C. F. Gauss

• Given a set of n function values on a regular grid:

 $f_j = f(j\Delta x)$

• Transform to n other values

$$\hat{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f_j e^{\pm 2\pi i j k/n}$$

• Easily back-transformed:

$$f_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \hat{f}_k \, e^{\mp \, 2\pi i \, j \, k/n}$$

• Solution is periodic: $f_{-k} = f_{n-k}$. You run the risk of aliasing, as k is equivalent to $k + \ell n$. Cannot resolve frequencies higher than k = n/2 (Nyquist).



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Slow Fourier Transform

$$\hat{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f_j e^{\pm 2\pi i j k/n}$$

- Discrete fourier transform is a linear transformation.
- In particular, it's a matrix-vector multiplication.
- Naively, costs $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. Slow!



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Slow DFT

```
#include <complex>
#include <rarrav>
#include <cmath>
typedef std::complex<double> complex:
void fft_slow(const rvector<complex>& f, rvector<complex>& fhat, bool inverse)
 int n = fhat.extent(0);
 double v = (inverse?-1:1)*2*M_PI/n;
 for (int k=0; k<n; k++)</pre>
    fhat[k] = 0.0:
    for (int m=0; m<n; m++) {</pre>
      fhat[k] += complex(cos(v*k*m), sin(v*k*m)) * f[m];
```

Even Gauss realized $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ was too slow and came up with \dots



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Fast Fourier Transform

- Derived in partial form several times before and even after Gauss, because he'd just written it in his diary in 1805 (published later).
- Rediscovered (in general form) by Cooley and Tukey in 1965.

Basic idea

- Write each *n*-point FT as a sum of two $\frac{n}{2}$ point FTs.
- Do this recursively $2 \log n$ times.
- Each level requires $\sim n$ computations: $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ instead of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$.
- Could as easily divide into 3, 5, 7, ... parts.



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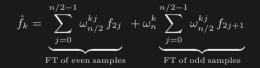
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Fast Fourier Transform: How is it done?

- Define $\omega_n = e^{2\pi i/n}$.
- Note that $\omega_n^2 = \omega_{n/2}$.
- DFT takes form of matrix-vector multiplication:

$$\widehat{f}_k = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \, \omega_n^{kj} \, f_j$$

• With a bit of rewriting (assuming *n* is even):



- Repeat, until the lowest level (for n = 1, $\hat{f} = f$).
- Note that a fair amount of shuffling is involved.

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Fast Fourier Transform: Already done!

We've said it before and we'll say it again: Do not write your own: use existing libraries! Why?

- Because getting all the pieces right is tricky;
- Getting it to compute fast requires intimate knowledge of how processors work and access memory;
- Because there are libraries available.

Examples:

- ► FFTW3 (Faster Fourier Transform in the West, version 3)
- Intel MKL
- IBM ESSL
- Because you have better things to do.



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Example of using a library: FFTW

Rewrite of previous (slow) ft to a fast one using fftw



Inverse DFT

• Inverse DFT is similar to forward DFT, up to a normalization: almost just as fast.

$$f_j = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \hat{f}_k \, e^{\mp \, 2\pi i \, j \, k/n}$$

Many implementations (almost all in fact) leave out the 1/n normalization.

- FFT allows quick back-and-forth between x and k domain (or e.g. time and frequency domain).
- Allows parts of the computation and/or analysis to be done in the most convenient or efficient domain.



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Working example

- Create a 1d input signal: a discretized sinc(x) = sin(x)/x with 16384 points on the interval [-30:30].
- Perform forward transform
- Write to standard out
- Compile, and linking to fftw3 library.
- Continous FT of sinc(x) is the rectangle function:

$$\operatorname{rect}(f) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0.5 & \text{ if } \|k\| \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{ if } \|k\| > 1 \end{array} \right.$$

up to a normalization.

• Does it match?



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Code for the working example

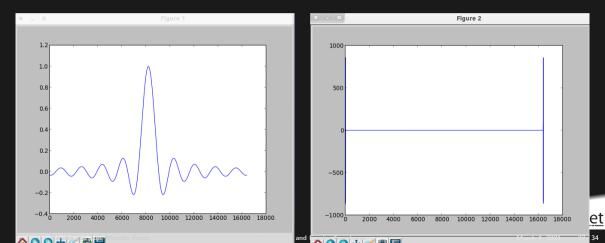
```
#include <iostream>
#include <complex>
#include <rarray>
#include < fftw3.h>
typedef std::complex<double> complex:
int main() {
  const int n = 16384:
 rvector<complex> f(n), fhat(n);
 for (int i=0: i<n: i++) \{
    double x = 60*(i/double(n)-0.5): // x-range from -30 to 30
    if (x!=0.0) f[i] = sin(x)/x; else f[i] = 1.0;
 fftw_plan p = fftw_plan_dft_1d(n,
                      (fftw complex*)f.data(), (fftw complex*)fhat.data(),
                      FFTW FORWARD, FFTW ESTIMATE):
 fftw_execute(p);
  fftw_destroy_plan(p);
  for (int i=0: i<n: i++)</pre>
    std::cout << f[i] << "," << fhat[i] << std::endl;</pre>
 return 0:
```



Compile, link, run, plot

\$ module load gcc fftw anaconda3 \$ g++ -std=c++14 -c -02 sincfftw.cpp -o sincfftw.o \$ g++ sincfftw.o -o sincfftw -lfftw3 \$./sincfftw > output.dat \$ ipython --pylab

>>> data = genfromtxt('output.dat') >>> plot(data[:,0]) >>> figure() >>> plot(data[:,2])

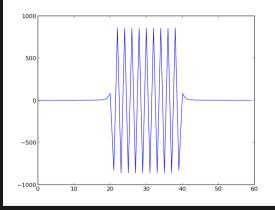


Plots of the output, rewrapped

Pick the first and the last 30 points.



- >>> x2=range(len(data)-30,len(data))
- >>> y1=data[x1,2]
- >>> y2=data[x2,2]
- >>> figure()
- >>> plot(hstack((y2,y1)))





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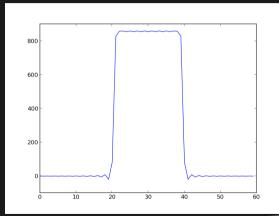
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Undo phase factor due to shifting

>>> plot(hstack((y2,y1))*array([1,-1]*30)







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Notes

- Always create a plan first.
- An fftw_plan contains all information necessary to compute the transform, including the pointers to the input and output arrays.
- Plans can be reused in the program, and even saved on disk!
- When creating a plan, you can have FFTW measure the fastest way of computing dft's of that size (FFTW_MEASURE), instead of guessing (FFTW_ESTIMATE).
- FFTW works with doubles by default, but you can install single precision too.



Multidimensional transforms

In principle a straighforward generalization:

• Given a set of $n \times m$ function values on a regular grid:

$$f_{ab} = f(a\Delta x, b\Delta y)$$

• Transform these to n other values \hat{f}_{kl}

$$\hat{f}_{kl} = \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \sum_{b=0}^{m-1} f_{ab} \, e^{\pm \, 2\pi i \, (a \, k+b \, l)/n}$$

• Easily back-transformed:

$$f_{ab} = \frac{1}{nm} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{l=0}^{m-1} \hat{f}_{kl} e^{\mp 2\pi i (a k+b l)/n}$$

• Negative frequencies: $f_{-k,-l} = f_{n-k,m-l}$.

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Multidimensional FFT

- We could successive apply the FFT to each dimension
- This may require transposes, can be expensive.
- Alternatively, could apply FFT on rectangular patches.
- Mostly should let the libraries deal with this.
- FFT scaling still $n \log n$.



Symmetries for real data

- All arrays were complex so far.
- If input f is real, this can be exploited.

$$f_j^* = f_j \leftrightarrow \hat{f}_k = \hat{f}_{n-k}^*$$

- Each complex number holds two real numbers, but for the input f we only need n real numbers.
- If n is even, the transform \hat{f} has real \hat{f}_0 and $\hat{f}_{n/2}$, and the values of $\hat{f}_k > n/2$ can be derived from the complex valued $\hat{f}_{0 < k < n/2}$: again n real numbers need to be stored.



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Symmetries for real data

- A different way of storing the result is in "half-complex storage'. First, the n/2 real parts of $\hat{f}_{0 < k < n/2}$ are stored, then their imaginary parts in reversed order.
- Seems odd, but means that the magnitude of the wave-numbers is like that for a complex-to-complex transform.
- These kind of implementation dependent storage patterns can be tricky, especially in higher dimensions.

