

A system of functions ϕ_n on $[0, 2\pi]$, or more generally on an interval $[a, b]$, is called:

orthogonal if $(\phi_m, \phi_n) := \int_a^b \phi_m \overline{\phi_n} = 0$ for $m \neq n$;

orthonormal if $(\phi_m, \phi_n) = \delta_{mn}$ (orthogonal as above, plus the *normalization* condition – divide by $\int |\phi_n|^2$).

Then ϕ_n above forms an *orthonormal system* (ONS).

If also

$$(f, \phi_n) = 0$$

for all n iff $f = 0$ (everywhere in the continuous case, almost everywhere more generally), we call (ϕ_n) a *complete* ONS (CONS). We quote:

the trigonometric functions above form a CONS;

the complex exponentials above form a CONS.

Given a CONS (ϕ_n) , suppose a function f can be expanded in a series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x),$$

representing $f(x)$ in some sense. Write

$$f \sim \sum_0^{\infty} c_n \phi_n.$$

Multiply by $\overline{\phi_m}$ and integrate. As $\int \phi_m \overline{\phi_n} = \delta_{mn}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int f \overline{\phi_m} &\sim \sum_0^{\infty} c_n \int \phi_n \overline{\phi_m} \\ &= \sum_n c_n \delta_{mn} \\ &= c_m, \end{aligned}$$

or:

$$c_n = \int f \overline{\phi_n}.$$

Such a series is called the *Fourier series* of f w.r.t. the CONS (ϕ_n) , and the coefficients $c_n = \int f \overline{\phi_n}$ are called the *Fourier coefficients*.

Write

$$f_n(x) := \sum_{k=1}^n c_k \phi_k(x),$$

and call the f_n the *partial sums* of the Fourier series.

Now suppose that b_k are arbitrary complex numbers, and write

$$t_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n b_k \phi_k(x) \quad (n = 0, 1, 2, \dots).$$

Then

$$\|f - t_n\|^2 := \int |f - t_n|^2 = (f - t_n, f - t_n) = (f, f) - (f, t_n) - (t_n, f) + (t_n, t_n).$$

Now

$$(t_n, t_n) = \left(\sum_0^n b_j \phi_j, \sum_0^n b_k \phi_k \right) = \sum_{j,k} b_j \bar{b}_k (\phi_j, \phi_k) = \sum_{j,k} b_j \bar{b}_k \delta_{jk} = \sum_0^n |b_k|^2,$$

$$(f, t_n) = \left(f, \sum_0^n b_k \phi_k \right) = \sum \bar{b}_k (f, \phi_k) = \sum \bar{b}_k c_k,$$

as the c_n are the Fourier coefficients of f w.r.t. (ϕ_n) . So

$$(t_n, f) = \overline{(f, t_n)} = \sum b_k \bar{c}_k.$$

So

$$\int |f - t_n|^2 = \|f\|^2 + \sum_0^n |b_k|^2 - \sum \bar{b}_k c_k - \sum b_k \bar{c}_k.$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \sum |b_k - c_k|^2 &= \sum (b_k - c_k)(\bar{b}_k - \bar{c}_k) = \sum b_k \bar{b}_k + \sum c_k \bar{c}_k - \sum b_k \bar{c}_k - \sum \bar{b}_k c_k \\ &= \sum |b_k|^2 + \sum |c_k|^2 - \sum b_k \bar{c}_k - \sum \bar{b}_k c_k. \end{aligned}$$

Combining,

$$\int |f - t_n|^2 = \|f\|^2 - \sum |c_k|^2 + \sum |b_k - c_k|^2. \quad (*)$$

The last term is ≥ 0 , and $= 0$ iff $b_k = c_k$ for all $k (= 0, 1, \dots, n)$.

Think of the LHS as a "mean-square error", or *least-squares error*, approximating f by $\sum_0^n b_k \phi_k$ on $[a, b]$. This error is minimized by taking $b_k = c_k$,

the Fourier coefficients of f . Then $(*)$ gives:

Th. (i) The partial sums $f_n(x)$ of the Fourier series for f give the best least-squares approximation to f based on the CONS (ϕ_n) .

(ii) The series $\sum |c_n|^2$ converges, and

$$\sum_0^\infty |c_n|^2 \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \quad (\text{BESSEL'S INEQUALITY}).$$

(iii) Equality holds, i.e.

$$\sum_0^\infty |c_n|^2 = \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \quad (\text{PARSEVAL'S FORMULA})$$

iff

$$\|f - f_n\| \rightarrow 0$$

(i.e., $f_n \rightarrow f$ "in mean square").

Note. Then also, if

$$f \sim \sum c_n \phi_n, \quad g \sim \sum d_n \phi_n,$$

then

$$(f, g) := \int f \bar{g} = \sum_0^\infty c_n \bar{d}_n.$$

Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma.

The subject of *convergence* of Fourier series is vast, and beyond our scope. We will restrict attention to the case where the Fourier series converges, and its sum is the function generating it:

$$f(x) = \sum_0^\infty c_n \phi_n(x).$$

Now the n th term of a convergent series tends to 0. But $\phi_n(x)$ does not tend to 0 – indeed, by the normalization condition, $\int |\phi_n(x)|^2 dx = 1$. So $c_n \rightarrow 0$:

$$c_n := \int_a^b f(x) \overline{\phi_n(x)} dx \rightarrow 0 \quad (n \rightarrow \infty).$$

For the trigonometric and complex-exponential CONSs, this is the *Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma*.

Gibbs Phenomenon.

For the trigonometric and complex-exponential CONSs, each $\phi_n(x)$ is *continuous*. So each partial sum $f_n(x) = \sum_0^n c_k \phi_k(x)$ is continuous.

Suppose we form the Fourier series of a function f with a discontinuity, e.g. a *pulse*. We are trying to approximate a discontinuous function by continuous ones. This forces wild behaviour in the neighbourhood of the discontinuity: the partial sums "overshoot and undershoot". See the diagram.

Symmetry. Recall:

$\sin x$ is *odd*: $\sin(-x) = -\sin x$;

$\cos x$ is *even*: $\cos(-x) = \cos x$.

So if we represent an odd function by a Fourier series, we only need the sine terms, and get a sine series; similarly for even functions and cosine series.

Boundary-Value Problems.

Recall (Ch. III) that to solve the heat equation

$$u_{xx} = u_t/k, \quad (PDE)$$

$$u(0, t) = 0, \quad u(\ell, t) = 0, \quad (BCs)$$

$$u(x, 0) = f(x) \quad (IC)$$

we obtained a series expansion

$$u(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin n\pi x/\ell e^{-kn^2\pi^2 t/\ell}.$$

Then

$$u(x, 0) = f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \sin n\pi x/\ell,$$

So B_n are the Fourier coefficients of f w.r.t. the CONS

$$\phi_n(x) := \frac{\sin n\pi x/\ell}{\sqrt{\ell/2}}$$

($\int_0^\ell \sin^2 n\pi x/\ell dx = \int_0^\ell (\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos 2n\pi x/\ell) dx = \frac{1}{2}\ell$). Similarly for the wave equation.

Example: The Taut String.

Take for convenience $\ell = 2$. The initial displacement is "tent-shaped": linear on $[0, 1]$, rising from 0 at 0 to h at 1; linear on $[1, 2]$, decreasing from h at 1 to 0 at 2:

$$f(x) = hx \quad (0 \leq x \leq 1), \quad h(2 - x) \quad (1 \leq x \leq 2).$$

The Fourier sine series is

$$f(x) = \sum_1^\infty b_n \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x, \quad b_n = \int_0^2 f(x) \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x dx.$$

So $b_n = h(I_1 + I_2)$, where

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= \int_0^1 x \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x dx = -\frac{2}{n\pi} \int_0^1 x d \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi x = -\frac{2}{n\pi} [x \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi x]_0^1 + \frac{2}{n\pi} \int_0^1 \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi x dx \\ &= -\frac{2}{n\pi} \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi + \frac{4}{n^2\pi^2} [\sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x]_0^1 = -\frac{2}{n\pi} \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi + \frac{4}{n^2\pi^2} \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi, \end{aligned}$$

and similarly

$$I_2 = \int_1^2 (2 - x) \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x dx = +\frac{2}{n\pi} \cos \frac{1}{2} n\pi + \frac{4}{n^2\pi^2} \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi.$$

So

$$I_1 + I_2 = \frac{8}{n^2\pi^2} \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi, \quad b_n = h(I_1 + I_2) = \frac{8h}{n^2\pi^2} \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi.$$

If $n = 2m$ is even, $\sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi = \sin m\pi = 0$.

If $n = 2m - 1$ is odd, $\sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi = \sin(m\pi - \frac{1}{2}\pi) = -\cos m\pi = (-1)^{m+1}$. So $b_{2m} = 0$, $b_{2m-1} = (-1)^{m+1} \cdot 8h/(2m-1)^2\pi^2$. So

$$f(x) = \sum b_n \sin \frac{1}{2} n\pi x = \frac{8h}{\pi^2} \sum_{m=1}^\infty (-1)^{m+1} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2} (2m-1)\pi x}{(2m-1)^2}.$$

So (III.1: The wave equation: Solution by separation of variables): with c the velocity as in the wave equation, the displacement $y(x, t)$ at point x and time t is

$$y(x, t) = \frac{8h}{\pi^2} \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (-)^{m+1} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}(2m-1)\pi x}{(2m-1)^2} \cos \frac{1}{2}(2m-1)\pi ct.$$

2. FOURIER INTEGRALS

Fourier series involve sines and cosines (or equivalently, complex exponentials), which are *periodic*. They are suitable for use on a finite interval, $[0, \ell]$ say, and involve *sums*.

What about *non-periodic* functions, and/or *infinite* intervals? Can one handle these by some limiting operation on sums, and if so does it involve *integrals*?

Defn. If f is a function on the real line, *integrable*, so that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)| dx < \infty$$

– we quote that this implies that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ exists}$$

– the *Fourier transform* of $f(x)$ is

$$\hat{f}(t) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} f(x) dx.$$

We quote that under suitable conditions, if we take the (slightly modified) Fourier transform of the Fourier transform, we recover the original function. This is the *Fourier Integral Theorem* (FIT):

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \hat{f}(t) dt.$$

The map $f \mapsto \hat{f}$ is the Fourier transform, while $\hat{f} \mapsto f$ is the *inverse Fourier transform*. Note:

1. e^{+itx} in the first, e^{-itx} in the second;
2. The factor $1/2\pi$ reduces the symmetry. One can ‘split the difference’, and have a factor $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$ in *each*. Always check on which convention is in use

when consulting a textbook, etc.

Example: The Normal Distribution[s].

Recall that a non-negative function f integrating to 1 is called a (probability) *density* (function). The interpretation is that if X is a random variable with this density, then

$$P(a \leq X \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x)dx :$$

the probability of getting a value in the interval is obtained by integrating the density over the interval.

The most important example is the *standard normal density*,

$$\phi(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right\}.$$

It is not obvious, but it is true and important, that this *is* a density – i.e. $\int \phi = 1$, but we must refer elsewhere for this (see lectures, or any book, on Probability or Statistics; there is a proof on my website, link to MPM3 Complex Analysis, Lectures 26-27).

Proposition. $\phi(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$ has Fourier transform

$$\hat{\phi}(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}t^2}.$$

Proof. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} M(t) &:= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} \phi(x) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx - \frac{1}{2}x^2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-t)^2 + \frac{1}{2}t^2\right\} dx \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x-t)^2\right\} dx \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}u^2} du \quad (u := x - t) \\ &= e^{\frac{1}{2}t^2} \end{aligned}$$

(the integral is 1, as $e^{-\frac{1}{2}u^2}/\sqrt{2\pi}$ is a probability density in u).

Formally replacing t here by it gives the result. This can be justified in

two ways, both needing Complex Analysis (2nd year Maths!):

(a) by analytic continuation;

(b) using Cauchy's Theorem to translate the line of integration.

We quote either of these, and this completes the proof. //

Recalling from Probability or Statistics the idea of a *mean* μ and *variance* σ^2 – given in the density case by

$$\mu = E[X] = \int x f(x) dx,$$

$$\sigma^2 = \text{var}[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2] = \int (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx,$$

the above is the special case $\mu = 0$, $\sigma = 1$ of the *normal distribution* $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with mean μ and variance σ^2 , for which we quote:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^2/\sigma^2\right\}, \quad \hat{f}(t) = \exp\left\{i\mu t - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right\}.$$

We shall need these below in dealing with the Heat Equation.

Spectrum.

We shall often use ω instead of t for the argument of the Fourier transform:

$$\hat{f}(\omega) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i\omega x} f(x) dx.$$

We then think of $|\hat{f}(\omega)|$ as representing the *strength* of f at *frequency* ω .

There may be sharp peaks in $|f(\omega)|$ graphed against ω – or even singularities. These correspond to *spectral peaks*, or *spectral lines*, in spectroscopy.

Differentiation.

Formally differentiate

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega x} \hat{f}(\omega) d\omega$$

w.r.t. x :

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega x} (-i\omega) \hat{f}(\omega) d\omega,$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\omega x} (-\omega^2) \hat{f}(\omega) d\omega.$$

To summarize:

$$f(x) \leftrightarrow \hat{f}(\omega); \quad f'(x) \leftrightarrow -i\omega \hat{f}(\omega); \quad f''(x) \leftrightarrow -\omega^2 \hat{f}(\omega).$$