

LECTURE 13

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WEEK 13

13. Fourier Series

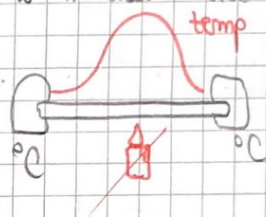
What & Why?

What are the most important ideas of univ level Math?

Some very bright guy said: Optimization & Fourier analysis
Signal processing, telecom, control theory
Partial Differential Equations

It all started with J. Fourier 1807, 1822 who studied the HEAT equation

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}(t, x) = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}(t, x)$$



§ 13.1. Small recap: From Power Series to Fourier Series

What is a (numerical) series?

(= "infinite sum that makes sense")

$(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ sequence of reals $\rightarrow \lambda_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$
sequence of partial sums

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ (CONV)} \Leftrightarrow \lambda_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} S < \infty$$

the sum of the series is a number

Series of functions $f_m, f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} f_m$ (p CONV) "pointwise" w.r. to x

(u CONV) uniform w.r. to $x \in [a, b]$

The sum of the series is a function

$$f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} f_m(x)$$

Why series of functions? (Approximation)

Taylor approx: $f(x) \approx T_m(x) = f(x_0) + \frac{f'(x_0)}{1!}(x-x_0) + \dots + \frac{f^{(m)}(x_0)}{m!}(x-x_0)^m$

want to let $m \rightarrow \infty$ (perfect approx)

Power series ($x_0 = 0$) $f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m x^m$

$a_m \in \mathbb{R}$ $f_m(x) = x^m$

FOURIER: We can do better!!!

ask for less regularity
(Taylor: $m+1$ cont. derivatives, $m \rightarrow \infty$)

global approx (not just x_0 -dependent)

The Price: give up Polynomials, replace them by "trigonometric" polynomials

replace Power Series by Trigonometric Series

§ 13.2. Fourier Series

Oscillations : Galileo Galilei (first pend. clock!)



$$u(t) = A \cos(\omega t + \varphi)$$

amplitude
frequency
initial phase

easy trigon = $a \cdot \cos \omega t + b \sin \omega t$

The Trigonometric series :

$$(1) \quad \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m \cos mx + b_m \sin mx$$

is the Fourier series associated to $f: [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ integrable if

$$(2) \quad \begin{cases} a_m = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos mx \, dx \\ b_m = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin mx \, dx \end{cases}$$

Remark : f even then $b_m = 0$
 f odd then $a_m = 0$

Remark (Counterexample) : NOT all Trig. series are Fourier series

$$\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \cos mx \quad \text{NOT (u CONV)} \\ \nexists f \text{ s.t. (2) holds}$$

Fourier series are trigonometric series with assoc. "signal"

Theorem 1 (BESSEL Inequality)

Let $f: [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ square integrable

$$\text{Then } \Delta_m = \frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^m (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \leq \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)^2 dx \quad (3)$$

where a_m, b_m are Fourier coefficients given in (2)

Idea of Proof:

$$\text{Define } f_m(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^m (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$$

$$\text{Compute } \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x) - f_m(x))^2 dx = \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)^2 dx}_{T_1} - 2 \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) f_m(x) dx}_{T_2} + \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f_m(x)^2 dx}_{T_3}$$

using the "magic" properties of \sin & \cos

Property 2 : $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos kx \cos jx dx = 0 \quad \forall k, j \in \mathbb{N}^*, k \neq j$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin kx \sin jx dx = 0 \quad k \neq j$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin kx \cos jx dx = 0$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\sin kx)^2 dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos kx)^2 dx = \pi$$

Theorem 3 (PARSEVAL'S Equality / Identity)

If the Fourier series associated to f (u CONV) then (3) holds with equality as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x))^2 dx \quad (5)$$

What's the deep insight behind this Fourier thing?

Square integrable functions form "space" with good geometry (just like \mathbb{R}^n but with $n \rightarrow \infty$) called **Hilbert space**.

The operations are:

" + " sum $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$
" αf " scaling $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x), \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$

" $\langle f, g \rangle$ " $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx \in \mathbb{R}$
inner product
scalar product (the \mathbb{R}^d notation was $x \cdot y$)

$\sin kx, \cos kx$ form an orthog. base

(just like $(1, 0, \dots, 0)$
 $(0, 1, \dots, 0)$
 \vdots
 $(0, 0, \dots, 1, 0)$
 $(0, 0, \dots, 0, 1)$ did in \mathbb{R}^d)

§13.3. The convergence of Fourier series

Important open question in the 19th century:
When does a Fourier series (CONV)?

Property 4 (DIRICHLET's Formula):

$$f_m(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{f(x+t) + f(x-t)}{2} \cdot \frac{\sin \frac{2m+1}{2} t}{\sin \frac{t}{2}} dt$$

\uparrow
 $m(h)$

Theorem 5 (DIRICHLET):

$(\exists x_i \quad i=0, N \quad x_0 = -\pi, x_N = \pi \text{ d.t.})$
 f diff on each (x_i, x_{i+1})
 $f: [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (pointwise - diffable then Fourier series
converges at any x and its sum is given by $\frac{f(x+0) + f(x-0)}{2}$ ^{left-right limits}
 $\frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m \cos mx + b_m \sin mx = \frac{f(x+0) + f(x-0)}{2}$

§13.4. Concluding Remarks and a Remarkable Application

Remark: Gibbs Phenomenon: there is a price to pay for discont (in the signal); namely the F -approx will oscillate close to the discont.

Application of Fourier series:

$$\text{Compute sum of } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = ? = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

Idea: apply Parseval Theorem to $f(x) = \frac{x}{2}$ use (2) to see that

$$a_n = 0, \quad b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{x}{2} \sin nx \, dx = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$$

$$(5) \underbrace{\frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2)}_{\text{reduces to } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^2(x) \, dx}_{\frac{1}{\pi} \cdot 2 \int_0^{\pi} \frac{x^2}{4} \, dx} = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{x^3}{6} \Big|_0^{\pi} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$