## LECTURE NOTES—FOURIER SERIES

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#### 1. Introduction

Fourier series have countless applications throughout applied mathematics and physics. Fourier series were first formally introduced by Joseph Fourier in his 1822 work *Théorie analytique de la chaleur (Analytical theory of heat)* in order to solve the Heat Equation. Whilst this is not a history lesson, it is still important to know that Fourier series are rooted in physics and are commonly used to solve differential equations.

# 2. Fourier series

But what *are* Fourier series? Despite sounding very fancy, the concept is very simple. The general concept of a Fourier series is to break a function down into a sum of sines and cosines. This is motivated by several reasons—they are easily differentiable, integrable, and manipulable.

For example, given some  $2\pi$  periodic function f(x), we can express it as some sum of sinusoidal waves like so:

$$f(x) \approx \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{n} (a_m \cos mx + b_m \sin mx).$$

If, as the number of terms n approaches  $\infty$ , the approximation *converges* to f, then the resulting sum is called a *Fourier series*:

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

You will have noticed that there are some coefficients:  $a_0, a_m, b_m$ . These are the Fourier coefficients, and determine how much of each sine wave of each frequency is

included. Before we determine these coefficients, we first discuss the *orthogonality* relations of the sine and cosine functions.

# 3. Orthogonality of sine and cosine

There are three important formulae concerning sines and cosines:

**THEOREM 3.1** (Orthogonality of sine and cosine)

For integers m, n, the following identities hold:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin mx \sin nx \, dx = \begin{cases} 0, & m \neq n \\ \pi, & m = n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos mx \cos nx \, dx = \begin{cases} 0, & m \neq n \\ \pi, & m = n \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin mx \cos nx \, dx = 0$$

These identities may be proved using the product to sum trigonometric identities:

(3.1) 
$$\sin a \sin b = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(a-b) - \cos(a+b)]$$

(3.2) 
$$\cos a \cos b = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(a-b) + \cos(a+b)]$$

(3.3) 
$$\sin a \cos b = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(a-b) + \sin(a+b)]$$

*Proof.* We use 3.1 to prove the first formula:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin mx \sin nx \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(x(m-n)) - \cos(x(m+n)) \, dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\sin(x(m-n))}{m-n} - \frac{\sin(m+n)}{m+n} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}.$$

Since  $\sin k\pi = 0$  for any integer k, we have

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin mx \sin nx \, dx = 0, \quad m \neq n.$$

However, notice that the method only makes sense for  $m \neq n$ . If m = n, we may use the identity  $\sin^2 a = \frac{1}{2}[1 - \cos(2a)]$  to obtain

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2(mx) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 1 - \cos(2mx) \, dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ x - \frac{\sin(2mx)}{2m} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi}$$
$$= \pi$$

The other two identities are left as an exercise to the reader.

# 4. Fourier Coefficients

Recall the Fourier series of a  $2\pi$  periodic function on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , f(x):

(4.1) 
$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} (a_m \cos mx + b_m \sin mx).$$

Let us assume that the series converges to f. We wish to calculate the coefficients  $a_0, a_m, b_m$ .

# 5. Wave Equation in One Dimension

We now look at some applications of Fourier series. First, we investigate the problem of a vibrating string.

Consider a string of length L lying on the x-axis, fixed at 2 ends: the origin (0,0) and (L,0). We will make some reasonable assumptions:

- The particles in the string move only up and down (there is no horizontal movement)
- The string is perfectly elastic

Let the function u(x,t) describe the displacement of the string at time t.

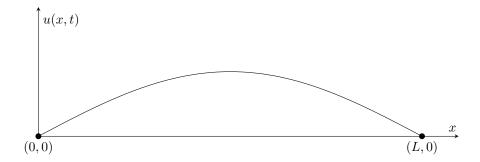
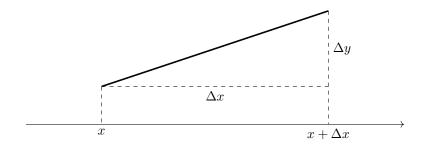


FIGURE 5.1. A possible shape of the string at some point in time

First, we find the mass of the string in some interval [a, b]. Let  $\rho(x, t)$  describe the density of the string at x at time t. Focus on a tiny segment of the string at x.



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Since this piece of string is so small, it approximates a straight line. Hence its length is clearly  $\sqrt{\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\right)^2} \Delta x$ . Now the mass of this piece of string is simply  $\rho(x,t)\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\right)^2} \Delta x$ . Imagine summing this N times for all the tiny segments in the interval [a,b]. Thus an approximation of the mass of the string in the interval [a,b] is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho(x,t) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y_i}{\Delta x_i}\right)^2} \Delta x_i.$$

If these segments are equally spaced, then  $\Delta x_i = \Delta x$ . Our approximation becomes the true mass of the string when  $\Delta x$  approaches 0 and N approaches  $\infty$ . Thus the mass of the string is

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho(x,t) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y_i}{\Delta x}\right)^2} \Delta x = \int_a^b \rho(x,t) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2} \, dx.$$

For sake of brevity, we abbreviate  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$  to  $u_x$ , and similarly,  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$  to  $u_t$ .

Let us now concentrate on another small segment of the string in the interval  $[x, x + \Delta x]$ . This piece of string has mass

$$\int_{x}^{x+\Delta x} \rho(x,t) \sqrt{1+u_x^2} \, dx$$

which we will call m.

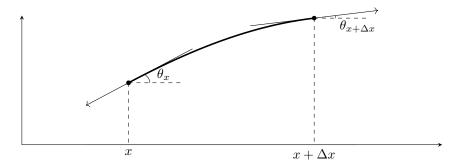


Figure 5.2.