# Complex Linear Independence: Decomplexification

- When given a complex system of equations, it is necessary to decomplexify it.
  - **Decomplexify**: To model a complex system of equations with a strictly real system for the purpose of applying the tenets of real linear algebra to it.
  - Consider the following complex system of equations.

$$(2+i)x_1 + (1+i)x_2 = 3+6i$$
$$(3-i)x_1 + (2-2i)x_2 = 7-i$$

- The solutions will be complex numbers:  $x_1 = a_1 + ib_1$  and  $x_2 = a_2 + ib_2$ , where  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Transform it into a matrix system of equations. Separate the real and complex parts, and factor out all instances of the imaginary number i so that it is a coefficient to any complex matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2+i & 1+i \\ 3-i & 2-2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1+ib_1 \\ a_2+ib_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3+6i \\ 7-i \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\left( \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} i & i \\ -i & -2i \end{bmatrix} \right) \left( \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} ib_1 \\ ib_2 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \left( \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 6i \\ -i \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\underbrace{\left( \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \right)}_{A} \underbrace{\left( \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} \right)}_{x} = \underbrace{\left( \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} + i \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)}_{b}$$

• Foil the left side of the above equation<sup>[1]</sup>.

$$\left(\begin{bmatrix}2 & 1\\3 & 2\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}a_1\\a_2\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\\-1 & -2\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}b_1\\b_2\end{bmatrix}\right) + i\left(\begin{bmatrix}2 & 1\\3 & 2\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}b_1\\b_2\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\\-1 & -2\end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix}a_1\\a_2\end{bmatrix}\right) = \begin{bmatrix}3\\7\end{bmatrix} + i\begin{bmatrix}6\\-1\end{bmatrix}$$

• Split the above system of equations into a real system of equations and a complex system of equations by setting equal to each other the real components of each side and the imaginary components of each side.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Multiply out the matrices above to yield a system of four equations.

$$2a_1 + a_2 - b_1 - b_2 = 3$$
$$3a_1 + 2a_2 + b_1 + 2b_2 = 7$$
$$a_1 + a_2 + 2b_1 + b_2 = 6$$
$$-a_1 - 2a_2 + 3b_1 + 2b_2 = -1$$

• Condense the above system of equations into a single matrix system of equations.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -2 & 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 7 \\ 6 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that the minus sign appears in the real component because, when multiplying the two "last" parts,  $i^2 = -1$ .

• Solve for  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $b_1$ , and  $b_2$  using an augmented matrix and Gauss-Jordan elimination.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 6 \\ -1 & -2 & 3 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• From these four values, the original solutions  $x_1 = a_1 + ib_1$  and  $x_2 = a_2 + ib_2$  can be found.

$$x_1 = 1 + 2i$$
$$x_2 = 2 - i$$

# Hermitian, Unitary, and Normal Matrices

- 4/13: What necessitates different categorizations of complex vectors and matrices?
  - Consider a vector v.

$$v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$$

• If you want to find ||v||, you typically evaluate  $\sqrt{v^{\mathrm{T}}v}$ . However, this equals to 0 (see the following), which is clearly not the magnitude of v.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = 1 - 1 = 0$$

- Note that ||v|| must be an element of  $\mathbb{R}$  because it measures a distance.
- With complex vectors, it is necessary to evaluate  $\sqrt{\overline{v}^{\mathrm{T}}v}$  to find ||v||.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix} = 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$||v|| = \sqrt{2}$$

- This makes sense because  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{bmatrix}$  extends one unit into  $\mathbb{R}^1$  and one unit into  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .
- If  $z\bar{z} = |z|^2$  and  $\bar{v}^T v = v \cdot \bar{v}$ , it stands to reason that  $\bar{v}^T v = ||v||^2$ . Essentially, the dot product multiplies every element of v by its complex conjugate and sums them.
- Instead of writing  $\bar{v}^{T[2]}$  every time, mathematicians shorthand to  $v^{H[3]}$ .
  - $-v^{\rm H}$  works for all vectors, but it is necessary for complex ones.
- Hermitian (matrix): A matrix A such that  $A = A^{H}$ .
  - Typically defined for  $A \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , but holds for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , too.
  - Parallel to how if  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A = A^T$ , A is symmetrical.
  - Also note that if  $A^{H}A = A^{2} = AA^{H}$ , A is Hermitian.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> "v conjugate transpose"

 $<sup>^3</sup>$  "v Hermitian" after French mathematician Charles Hermite.

- A Hermitian matrix has to have real values on the principal diagonal. When A is transposed and conjugated, the diagonal entries are the only values that don't move. Thus, their conjugates must equal themselves, so they must be real<sup>[4]</sup>.
- Unitary (matrix): A matrix A such that  $A^{-1} = A^{H}$ .
  - Typically defined for  $A \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , but holds for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , too.
  - Parallel to how if  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A^{-1} = A^T$ , A is orthonormal.
  - Also note that if  $A^{H}A = I = AA^{H}$ , A is unitary.
- Normal (matrix): A matrix that is unitarily diagonalizable.
  - Typically defined for  $A \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , but holds for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , too.
  - Parallel to matrices  $A \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that A is orthonormally diagonalizable.
- Note that not every complex matrix has to be one of these three types.
- When  $A^{\mathrm{H}}A = AA^{\mathrm{H}}$ ,  $A = U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}}$ .

$$\begin{split} AA^{\mathrm{H}} &= \left(U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}}\right) \left(U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}}\right)^{\mathrm{H}} \\ &= U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}} U\Lambda^{\mathrm{H}} U^{\mathrm{H}} \\ &= U\Lambda\Lambda^{\mathrm{H}} U^{\mathrm{H}} \\ &= U\Lambda^{\mathrm{H}} \Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}} [5] \\ &= U\Lambda^{\mathrm{H}} U^{\mathrm{H}} U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}} \\ &= \left(U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}}\right)^{\mathrm{H}} \left(U\Lambda U^{\mathrm{H}}\right) \\ &= A^{\mathrm{H}} A \end{split}$$

• When  $A = A^{H}$ , all eigenvalues are elements of  $\mathbb{R}$  (similar to spectral theorem).

$$v^{\mathrm{H}}Av = \left(v^{\mathrm{H}}Av\right)^{\mathrm{H}} = v^{\mathrm{H}}Av$$

- The above proves that  $v^{\mathrm{H}}Av \in \mathbb{R}$  because it's its own conjugate<sup>[4]</sup>.

$$Av = \lambda v$$
$$v^{\mathsf{H}} Av = \lambda v^{\mathsf{H}} v$$

$$- \lambda = \frac{v^{\mathrm{H}} A v}{v^{\mathrm{H}} v} \to \frac{\mathbb{R}}{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R}^{[6]}.$$

- When  $A = A^{H}$  and  $Ax = \lambda x$ , all x's can be chosen orthonormally (also similar to spectral theorem).
  - Normality is implied because any eigenvector can be scaled to any version (including a normal version) and still be an eigenvector.

$$x_i = \begin{bmatrix} x_{i_1} \\ x_{i_2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{i_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_i^{\mathrm{H}} = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_{i_1} & \bar{x}_{i_2} & \cdots & \bar{x}_{i_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Recall that only real quantities can be their own conjugates because a + 0i = a - 0i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Since  $\Lambda = \Lambda^{H}$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Note that the denominator is real because it's how one finds ||v||, and ||v|| must be real, as discussed above.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \qquad A^{H} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \bar{a}_{21} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n1} \\ \bar{a}_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \bar{a}_{1n} & \bar{a}_{2n} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$

– Define an arbitrary vector  $x_i$  and matrix A, along with their conjugate transposes (or Hermitian versions). Note that the diagonal entries of  $A^{\rm H}$  aren't shown as conjugated because their conjugates equal themselves.

$$Ax_1 = \lambda_1 x_1$$
 $x_2^H A x_1 = \lambda_1 x_2^H x_1$ 
 $Ax_2 = \lambda_2 x_2$ 
 $(Ax_2)^H = (\lambda_2 x_2)^H$ 
 $x_2^H A^H = \lambda_2 x_2^H$ 
 $x_2^H A x_1 = \lambda_2 x_2^H x_1$ 

 $-\lambda_1 x_2^H x_1 = \lambda_2 x_2^H x_1$  implies that, since  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ ,  $x_2^H x_1$  must equal 0, proving orthogonality.

# Complex Diagonalization

4/15: • Diagonalize the following matrix A.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find the characteristic polynomial.

$$0 = \begin{vmatrix} 0.9 - \lambda & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.9 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$
$$= (0.9 - \lambda)^2 - (-0.4)(0.1)$$
$$= 0.81 - 1.8\lambda + \lambda^2 + 0.04$$
$$= \lambda^2 - 1.8\lambda + 0.85$$

- Find the eigenvalues<sup>[7]</sup>.

$$\lambda = \frac{-(-1.8) \pm \sqrt{(-1.8)^2 - 4(1)(0.85)}}{2(1)}$$

$$= 0.9 \pm \frac{\sqrt{-0.16}}{2}$$

$$= 0.9 \pm \frac{\sqrt{-1}\sqrt{0.16}}{2}$$

$$= 0.9 \pm \frac{0.4i}{2}$$

$$= 0.9 \pm 0.2i$$

$$\lambda_1 = 0.9 + 0.2i$$
  $\lambda_2 = 0.9 - 0.2i$ 

 $<sup>^{7}</sup>$ It is interesting that the eigenvalues are complex conjugates of each other.

- Find the eigenvectors<sup>[8]</sup>.

$$(A - (0.9 + 0.2i))x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 - (0.9 + 0.2i) & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.9 - (0.9 + 0.2i) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1_1} \\ x_{1_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -0.2i & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & -0.2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(A - (0.9 - 0.2i))x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 - (0.9 - 0.2i) & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.9 - (0.9 - 0.2i) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1_1} \\ x_{1_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0.2i & -0.4 \\ 0.1 & 0.2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -2i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2i \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Compile the diagonalization.

$$A = \frac{1}{4i} \begin{bmatrix} 2i & -2i \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 + 0.2i & 0 \\ 0 & 0.9 - 0.2i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2i \\ -1 & 2i \end{bmatrix}$$

## Real versus Complex

4/16: Real Complex

 $\mathbb{R}^n$ : vectors with n real components length:  $||x||^2 = x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2$ 

transpose:  $(A^{\mathrm{T}})_{ij} = A_{ji}$ 

product rule:  $(AB)^{\mathrm{T}} = B^{\mathrm{T}}A^{\mathrm{T}}$ 

dot product:  $x^{\mathrm{T}}y = x_1y_1 + \dots + x_ny_n$ 

reason for  $A^{\mathrm{T}}$ :  $(Ax)^{\mathrm{T}}y = x^{\mathrm{T}}(A^{\mathrm{T}}y)$ 

orthogonality:  $x^{\mathrm{T}}y = 0$ 

symmetric matrices:  $A = A^{\mathrm{T}}$ 

 $A = Q \Lambda Q^{-1} = Q \Lambda Q^{\mathrm{T}} \text{ (real } \Lambda)$ 

skew-symmetric matrices:  $k^{\mathrm{T}} = -K$ 

orthogonal matrices:  $Q^{\mathrm{T}} = Q^{-1}$ 

orthonormal columns:  $Q^{\mathrm{T}}Q = I$ 

 $(Qx)^{T}(Qy) = x^{T}y \text{ and } ||Qx|| = ||x||$ 

 $\mathbb{C}^n$ : vectors with n complex components

length:  $||z||^2 = |z_1|^2 + \dots + |z_n|^2$ 

conjugate transpose:  $(A^{H})_{ij} = \overline{A_{ji}}$ 

product rule:  $(AB)^{H} = B^{H}A^{H}$ 

inner product:  $u^{\mathrm{H}}v = \bar{u}_1u_1 + \cdots + \bar{u}_nv_n$ 

reason for  $A^{\mathrm{H}}\colon\thinspace (Au)^{\mathrm{H}}v=u^{\mathrm{H}}(A^{\mathrm{H}}v)$ 

orthogonality:  $u^{H}v = 0$ .

Hermitian matrices:  $A = A^{H}$ 

 $A = U \Lambda U^{-1} = U \Lambda U^{\rm H} \ ({\rm real} \ \Lambda)$ 

skew-Hermitian matrices:  $K^{H} = -K$ 

unitary matrices:  $U^{H} = U^{-1}$ 

orthonormal columns:  $U^{\mathrm{H}} = U^{-1}$ 

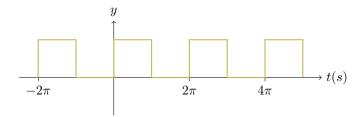
 $(Ux)^{\mathrm{H}}(Uy) = x^{\mathrm{H}}y$  and ||Uz|| = ||z||

• Note that the columns and eigenvectors of Q and U are orthonormal, and all of their eigenvalues  $\lambda$  satisfy  $|\lambda| = 1$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>It is interesting that the eigenvectors are *also* complex conjugates of each other.

### Fourier Series

4/21: • Consider the square wave f(t).

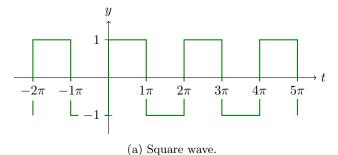


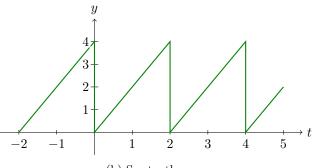
- Its period is  $2\pi \frac{\text{sec}}{\text{cycle}}$ , and its frequency is  $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ Hz.
- Can we write f(t) as a sum of sines and cosines?

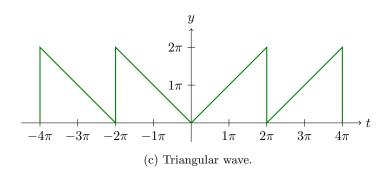
$$f(t) = a_0 + a_1 \cos(t) + b_1 \sin(t) + a_2 \cos(2t) + b_2 \sin(2t) + a_3 \cos(3t) + b_3 \sin(3t) + \cdots$$

- Be general.
- Since  $T=2\pi$ , it makes sense to use some functions with  $T=2\pi$  to model it.
- The weighting coefficients account for how much each function contributes to the whole.
- Historically studied by Fourier, who studied differential equations. Differential equations were often easy to solve for sines and cosines, so if a function could be modeled by a sum of sines and cosines, a related differential equation would be easier to solve.
- Fourier series, transforms, and analysis also tell us how much of each frequency a function contains (as measured by the weight coefficients).

## Wave Type Sketches







- Square wave:  $f(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < t < \pi \\ -1 & \pi < t < 2\pi \end{cases}$  where periodicity is defined by  $f(t + 2\pi) = f(t)$ .
- Sawtooth wave: f(t) = 2t 0 < t < 2 where periodicity is defined by f(t+2) = f(t).
- Triangular wave: f(t) = |t|  $0 < t < 2\pi$  where periodicity is defined by  $f(t + 2\pi) = f(t)$ .

1) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)dt = \left[ -\frac{1}{n} \cos(nt) \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = \frac{1}{n} \left( -\cos(n\pi) + \cos(n\pi) \right) = 0, n \neq 0$$

2) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt) dt = \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sin(nt) \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = 0, n \neq 0$$

3) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_0 dt + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} a_n \cos(nt) dt + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_n \sin(nt) dt \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ a_0 t \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (0+0)$$

$$\therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)dt = \frac{1}{2} (2a_0 \pi) \to a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)dt \to \frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)dt$$

4) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)\cos(mt)dt = \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(n+m)tdt + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(n-m)tdt \right) = \frac{1}{2} (0+0) = 0 \text{ using the results from problems 1 and }$$

2 since if n is an integer and m is an integer then n+m and n-m are also integers.

5) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt) \cos(mt) dt = \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(n+m)t dt + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(n-m)t dt \right) = \frac{1}{2} (0+0) = 0 \text{ when } n \neq m$$

6) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(nt) dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( 1 + \cos(2n)t \right) dt = \frac{1}{2} \left[ t + \frac{1}{2n} \sin(2n)t \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} = \pi \text{ when } n \neq 0$$

7) 
$$\pi - (-\pi) = 2\pi$$

8) a) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)\sin(mt)dt = 0$$

b) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2(nt)dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1 - \cos(2nt))dt = \pi$$

c) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt) \sin(mt) dt = 0$$

For integers m, n:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)\cos(mt)dt = 0$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt)\cos(mt)dt = \begin{cases} 0, n \neq m \\ \pi, n = m \neq 0 \\ 2\pi, n = m = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)\sin(mt)dt = \begin{cases} 0, n \neq m, n = m = 0 \\ \pi, n = m \end{cases}$$

#### **FOURIER SERIES**

- We have shown that when  $v^T w = 0$ , then vectors v and w are orthogonal.
- Fourier series ask us to think of continuous functions as vectors.
- Let  $f(t) = \cos(t)$  and let  $g(t) = \sin(t)$
- To find  $f \cdot g$  of these two function "vectors" would be asking us to take a dot product that has infinitely many terms. All vectors we have used have had a finite number of components. Because these "vectors" would have infinitely many terms, it would be like asking us to take an integral!
- $f \cdot g = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(t) \sin(t) dt$  (We limit the domain because these are sinusoidal periodic functions and thus they repeat after a period of  $2\pi$ .)

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(t) \sin(t) dt$$
Let  $u = \cos(t)$  and  $du = -\sin(t)$ 

$$-\int_{1}^{1} u du$$

$$\left[ -\frac{u^{2}}{2} \right]_{1}^{1}$$

$$0$$

OR

$$\left[ -\frac{1}{2}\cos^2(t) \right]_0^{2\pi}$$
$$-\frac{1}{2}(\cos^2 2\pi - \cos^2 0)$$
$$-\frac{1}{2}(1-1) =$$

• Therefore  $\cos t \cdot \sin t = 0$ , therefore these function "vectors" are orthogonal, therefore they serve as basis vectors for the function space of continuous periodic functions in  $F^2$ , therefore any continuous function also in this space can be written as a linear combination of  $\cos(t)$  and  $\sin(t)$ !!!

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + a_1 \cos(t) + b_1 \sin(t) + a_2 \cos(2t) + b_2 \sin(2t) + \cdots$$
$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt) \right)$$

\*Why divide the constant term by 2?

#### CALCULATING THE FOURIER COEFFICENTS

As sine and cosine can serve as an orthogonal basis for periodic functions, consider the Fourier Series for a function

$$f(t)$$
 of period  $2\pi$  to be  $f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \cos(nt) + b_n \sin(nt) \right)$ 

In problem 3 from your handout you already found a formula for  $a_0$ , the constant term.

$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) dt$$

To obtain the coefficients  $a_n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  , multiply both sides of the equation by  $\cos(mt)$  where  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  and m > 0 and integrate both sides from  $-\pi$  to  $\pi$  since this is a periodic function of period  $2\pi$ .

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)\cos(mt)dt = \frac{a_0}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(mt)dt + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt)\cos(mt)dt + b_n \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt)\cos(mt)dt \right)$$

Simplify this result using the integrals on the right side of this equation from the handout problems 5-7. The only nonzero integral results from  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(mt) dt = \pi$  in the case where n = m.

$$\therefore \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(mt) dt = a_m \pi$$

Sine this is the case where n=m, replacing m with n and solving for  $a_n$  we obtain:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt$$
,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n > 0$ 

To obtain the coefficients  $b_n b \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 0$ , multiply both sides of the equation by  $\sin(mt)$  where  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  and m > 0 and integrate both sides from  $-\pi$  to  $\pi$  since this is a periodic function of period  $2\pi$ .

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \sin(mt) dt = \frac{a_0}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(mt) dt + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(nt) \sin(mt) dt + b_n \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt) \sin(mt) dt \right)$$

Simplify this result using the integrals on the right side of this equation using the handout problems you did for 8. The only nonzero integral results from  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} b_m \sin^2(mt) dt = b_m \pi$  in the case where n = m. Relabeling m as n and solving for  $b_n$  we obtain:

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \sin(nt) dt$$
 ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n > 0$ 

### Square Wave

- **Hilbert space**: An infinite-dimensional vector space extends a lot of the ideas of linear algebra to functions in infinite dimensions.
  - Recall that functions behave with linearity  $(\alpha f(t) + \beta g(t))$  is still a function).
  - Square wave (period  $2\pi$ ):  $f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & -\pi < t < 0 \\ 1 & 0 < t < \pi \end{cases}$  and  $f(t+2\pi) = f(t)$ .
  - Find  $\frac{a_0}{2}$  term:

$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{0} (0) dt + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} (1) dt$$

$$= 0 + \left[ \frac{t}{2\pi} \right]_{0}^{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2\pi}$$

$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

- Makes sense because  $\frac{a_0}{2}$  is like the sinusoidal axis and  $\frac{1}{2}$  is half way between 0 and 1.
- Find  $a_n$  terms:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{0} (0) \cos(nt) dt + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} (1) \cos(nt) dt$$

$$= 0 + \left[ \frac{1}{n\pi} \sin(nt) \right]_{0}^{\pi}$$

$$\boxed{a_n = 0}$$

• Find  $b_n$  terms:

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \sin(nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{0} (0) \sin(nt) dt + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} (1) \sin(nt) dt$$

$$= 0 - \frac{1}{n\pi} [\cos(nt)]_{0}^{\pi}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\pi} [\cos(n\pi) - \cos(0)]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{n\pi} [\cos(n\pi) - 1]^{[9]}$$

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 2, 4, 6, \dots \\ \frac{2}{n\pi} & n = 1, 3, 5, \dots \end{cases}$$

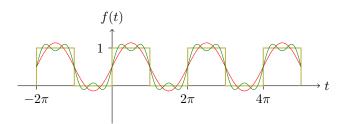
 $<sup>{}^{9}\</sup>cos(n\pi)$  equals 1 when n is even and -1 when n is odd.

• Assemble the Fourier series for the square wave function:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi}\sin(t) + \frac{2}{3\pi}\sin(3t) + \frac{2}{5\pi}\sin(5t) + \cdots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi}\left(\frac{1}{1}\sin(t) + \frac{1}{3}\sin(3t) + \frac{1}{5}\sin(5t) + \cdots\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n-1}\sin((2n-1)t)$$



Given:

$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2\pi} f(t)dt$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt$$
 ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n > 0$ 

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \sin(nt) dt$$
 ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n > 0$ 

Change the variable t to  $x = \frac{2\pi}{P}t$ . In this case  $x = \pi$  corresponds to  $t = \frac{P}{2}$  and  $x = -\pi$  corresponds to  $t = -\frac{P}{2}$ .

Therefore regarded as a function of t, this is a function with period P. When we make the substitution  $x = \frac{2\pi}{R}t$  and  $dx = \frac{2\pi}{R} dt$  into the expressions for  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  we arrive at:

$$a_n = \frac{2}{P} \int_{-\frac{P}{2}}^{\frac{P}{2}} f(t) \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi t}{P}\right) dt, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \ge 0$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{P} \int_{-\frac{P}{2}}^{\frac{P}{2}} f(t) \sin\left(\frac{2n\pi t}{P}\right) dt, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 0$$

 $b_n = \frac{2}{P} \int_{P}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} f(t) \sin\left(\frac{2n\pi t}{P}\right) dt, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 0$ 

These integrals will give the Fourier coefficients from a function of period P whose Fourier Series

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi t}{P}\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{2n\pi t}{P}\right) \right)$$

Note: In Differential Equations it is often convenient to write the period P as  $2\ell$  and in Physics and Engineering it is often written in terms of angular frequency  $\omega$  as  $P = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$ . Those substitutions would result in the following formulas:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\ell} \int_{-\ell}^{\ell} f(t) \cos \left( \frac{n \pi t}{\ell} \right) dt, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \ge 0 \text{ for Fourier Series } f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \cos \left( \frac{n \pi t}{\ell} \right) + b_n \sin \left( \frac{n \pi t}{\ell} \right) \right)$$

And

$$a_n = \frac{\omega}{\pi} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{\omega}}^{\frac{\pi}{\omega}} f(t) \cos \left(n\omega t\right) dt, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \ge 0 \text{ for Fourier Series } f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos \left(n\omega t\right) + b_n \sin \left(n\omega t\right)\right)$$

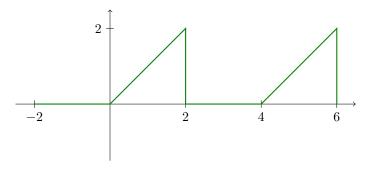
Any convenient integration range of length P ,  $2\ell$  , or  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$  can be used, and formulas for  $b_n$  would follow similarly for those for  $a_n$  as shown above.

\*Why divide the constant term by 2? To account for the fact that the formula for  $a_n$  could be true for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \ge 0$  (which would include the constant term) depending upon how the formula for the Fourier coefficients are written. Recall from problems 6 and 7 for the integration problems combined that  $\int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(nt) dt = \pi$  when  $n \ne 0$  but  $\int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(nt) dt = 2\pi \text{ when } n = 0 \text{ . Using the formula } a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt \text{ we could write the Fourier Series as}$   $f(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nt) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(nt) \text{ but in this case } a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int\limits_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \cos(nt) dt = \begin{cases} 2a_0, n = 0 \\ a_n, n \ne 0 \end{cases}$  . To compensate for this the constant term is customarily written as  $\frac{a_0}{2}$ .

#### Modified Sawtooth Wave

4/30:

• Modified sawtooth wave (period 4):  $f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & -2 < t < 0 \\ t & 0 < t < 2 \end{cases}$  and f(t+4) = f(t).



- Period is 4:  $P = 2\ell \Rightarrow \ell = 2$ .
- Use this Fourier model:

$$f(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{\ell}\right) + b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{\ell}\right) \right)$$

- $\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$  (think of it as a weighted average of where the function spends the most time note that this is actually exactly what the integral computes).
- Find  $a_n$  terms:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-2}^{2} f(t) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$
$$= 0 + \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2} t \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$u = t$$
 
$$dv = \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$du = dt$$
 
$$v = \frac{2}{n\pi}\sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right)$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left[ (t) \left( \frac{2}{n\pi} \sin \left( \frac{n\pi t}{2} \right) \right) \right]_0^2 - \int_0^2 \frac{2}{n\pi} \sin \left( \frac{n\pi t}{2} \right) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \left( \frac{4}{n\pi} \sin(n\pi) - 0 \right) + \frac{4}{n^2 \pi^2} \left[ \cos \left( \frac{n\pi t}{2} \right) \right]_0^2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( 0 + \frac{4}{n^2 \pi^2} (\cos(n\pi) - \cos(0)) \right)$$

$$= \frac{2}{n^2 \pi^2} (\cos(n\pi) - 1)^{[9]}$$

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 2, 4, 6, \dots \\ -\frac{4}{n^2 \pi^2} & n = 1, 3, 5, \dots \end{cases}$$

• Find  $b_n$  terms:

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-2}^{2} f(t) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$= 0 + \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2} t \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$u = t \qquad dv = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$du = dt \qquad v = -\frac{2}{n\pi} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2} \left( \left[ \left(t\right) \left(-\frac{2}{n\pi} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right)\right) \right]_{0}^{2} + \frac{2}{n\pi} \int_{0}^{2} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \left(-\frac{4}{n\pi} \cos(n\pi) - 0\right) + 0 \right)$$

$$b_n = \begin{cases} -\frac{2}{n\pi} & n = 2, 4, 6, \dots \\ \frac{2}{n\pi} & n = 1, 3, 5, \dots \end{cases}$$

• Assemble the Fourier series for this modified sawtooth wave function:

$$a_n = -\frac{2}{n^2 \pi^2} + (-1)^n \frac{2}{n^2 \pi^2}$$

$$b_n = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{2}{n\pi}$$

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \left( -\frac{2}{n^2 \pi^2} + (-1)^n \frac{2}{n^2 \pi^2} \right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) + \left( (-1)^{n+1} \frac{2}{n\pi} \right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi t}{2}\right) \right)$$