#### **ACM 100b**

#### Analysis of convergence of Fourier Series

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- We'll provide an argument that shows how this comes about.
- The argument is not terribly rigorous but shows what is happening near a discontinuity.
- Let S<sub>N</sub>(x) be the sum of the full periodic Fourier series after N terms:

$$S_{N}(x) = \frac{B_{o}}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ B_{n} \cos(nx) + A_{n} \sin(nx) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos(nt) \cos(nx) + \sin(nt) \sin(nx) \right] dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \left[ \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos(n(t-x)) \right] dt$$

Now look at the sum in the brackets of

$$\frac{1}{\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}f(t)\left[\frac{1}{2}+\sum_{n=1}^{N}\cos(n(t-x))\right]dt$$

- This sum can be performed in closed form
- Consider the expression

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} \exp(iny) = \frac{1 - \exp(i(N+1)y)}{1 - \exp(iy)}$$

- The sum on the left hand side is a geometric series.
- Now take the real part of both sides and do a little manipulation to show that

$$\frac{1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \cos(ny) = \frac{\sin[(N+1/2)y]}{2\sin(y/2)}$$



So our Fourier series is now expressed by

$$S_N(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) \left[ \frac{\sin[(N+1/2)(t-x)]}{2\sin((t-x)/2)} \right] dt$$

- The fact that this is a single integral will make it possible to understand various behaviors by approximating the integral.
- Shift the limits of integration to rewrite this as

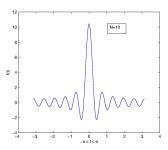
$$S_N(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{x-2\pi}^x f(x-t) \left[ \frac{\sin[(N+1/2)t]}{2\sin(t/2)} \right] dt$$

- Now we are interested in what happens as  $N \to \infty$ .
- As N gets large the function

$$f(t) = \frac{\sin[(N+1/2)t]}{2\sin(t/2)}$$

gets more and more peaked around t = 0.

• A plot of f(t) is shown below for N = 10



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- In fact you can see from L'Hopital's rule that the limit as  $t \to 0$  of this function is N+1/2
- Everywhere else within the limits of integration it's much smaller (typically oscillates around the value 1 or less).
- Now we apply a typical applied math argument (which can be made rigorous).
- As  $N \to \infty$ , if f(x) has bounded variation meaning it doesn't oscillate like say  $\sin(1/t)$ , almost all of the integral comes from the values near t = 0.
- So we can approximate  $S_N(x)$  as follows

$$S_N pprox rac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} f(x-t) rac{\sin[(N+1/2)t]}{2\sin(t/2)} dt.$$

where  $\epsilon$  is some arbitrarily small number.



- We can further approximate this integral
- ullet We notice that as long as  $\epsilon$  is very small we have that

$$\sin(t/2) \approx t/2$$
.

- You can't make this approximation in the numerator sin((N+1/2)t) because it oscillates. Remember N is large.
- Our interest here is typically in functions f(x t) that are smooth
- But we're particularly interested in what happens if f(x t) has a jump discontinuity near t = x.
- If it does, then f(x) would approach two different values  $f(x^+)$  and  $f(x^-)$
- $f(x^+)$  is the value you get approaching from the right
- $f(x^-)$  is the value you get approaching from the left.
- Other than the jump at x, f(x) is assumed to be smooth



So we can write

$$S_n(x) \approx \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_{-\epsilon}^0 f(x^+) \frac{\sin((N+1/2)t)}{t} dt + \frac{2}{2\pi} \int_0^{\epsilon} f(x^-) \frac{\sin((N+1/2)t)}{t} dt = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ f(x^+) + f(x^-) \right] \int_0^{\epsilon} \frac{\sin((N+1/2)t)}{t} dt$$

We still have to evaluate the integral

$$S_n(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left[ f(x^+) + f(x^-) \right] \int_0^{\epsilon} \frac{\sin((N+1/2)t)}{t} dt$$

to get the final answer.



- To do this recall we have  $N \to \infty$ .
- If we let s = (N + 1/2)t in the integral above we can rewrite it as follows:

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\epsilon} \frac{\sin((N+1/2)t)}{t} dt = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{(N+1/2)\epsilon} \frac{\sin(s)}{s} ds$$

• If we keep  $\epsilon$  fixed but let  $N \to \infty$  then the integral becomes

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin(s)}{s} ds = \frac{1}{2}$$

And so we have that

$$S_N(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ f(x^+) + f(x^-) \right] + \text{a remainder of size } 1/N$$

meaning that as  $N \to \infty$ , the Fourier series approaches the average of the two values on either side of the discontinuity.



 This is indeed what we got when we looked at the Fourier series of the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 < x < 1/2 \\ 1 & 1/2 < x < 1 \end{cases}$$

over the interval  $0 < x < \pi$ .

- The Fourier series gives us a value of 1/2 when we evaluate at  $x = \pi/2$
- This is exactly the average of the values you get as you approach  $x=\pi$  from the left and right.
- Note that if f(x) is continuous then this approach just gives us back the value of f(x) at the point of continuity.



 We usually don't want the value that a Fourier series converges to to depend on how we take the limits

$$x \to x_0$$
  $N \to \infty$ 

- If this happens it's called *nonuniform convergence*
- We stated in the theorem that if f(x) has a jump discontinuity at a point (say  $x = x_0$ ) then the convergence of the series was not uniform in any neighborhood that contains the point  $x = x_0$ .
- This means that the value we get will depend on how we approach the point  $x_0$ .
- For example if you tie the approach to  $x_0$  to the number of terms you keep in the series then you get one result
- The result could be different if you approach  $x_0$  a different way (like going directly to  $x_0$  and then letting the number terms  $N \to \infty$ .
- If we had uniform convergence then it doesn't matter how you take the limits  $x \to x_0$  and  $N \to \infty$ .

 To see that this really is an issue for the Fourier series near the discontinuity consider the following limit:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} S_N \left( x_0 + \frac{z}{N+1/2} \right)$$

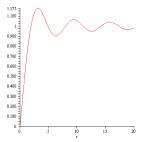
- This means you are approaching  $x_0$  and letting the number of terms  $N \to \infty$
- But you are also tying the approach to  $x_0$  to the number of terms you take in each partial sum.
- An analysis similar to the one we did above for  $S_N(z)$  will reveal that

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} S_N \left( x_0 + \frac{z}{N+1/2} \right) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left[ f(x_0^+) + f(x_0^-) \right] + \frac{2}{\pi} \left[ f(x_0^+) - f(x_0^-) \right] \operatorname{Si}(z)$$

 The function Si(z) is called the sine integral function and is defined by

$$\mathrm{Si}(z) = \int_0^z \frac{\sin s}{s} ds$$

The sine integral function has the following shape



- Note the first max at roughly 1.18
- This is the 18% overshoot you always see when you have Gibbs phenomenon

So returning to the limit we took:

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} S_N \left( x_0 + \frac{z}{N+1/2} \right) \approx \frac{1}{2} \left[ f(x_0^+) + f(x_0^-) \right] + \frac{2}{\pi} \left[ f(x_0^+) - f(x_0^-) \right] \operatorname{Si}(z)$$

You can see you will get a different result than the simple average

$$\frac{1}{2}\left[f(x_0^+)+f(x_0^-)\right]$$

depending on how you take the limit

- Note that as  $N \to \infty$ , the overshoots become more fine-grained but they are always there.
- So the mean square error still vanishes as  $N \to \infty$
- Note also that if there is no discontinuity, there is no overshoot.

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#### Results for Fourier sine and cosine series

- We just saw that for a fully periodic Fourier series the presence of a discontinuity led to nonuniform convergence.
- That's not too surprising since the function is not smooth.
- For Fourier sine and cosine series you can still get Gibbs phenomenon even if the function is completely smooth in its interval of definition
- This is because a sine series is really a periodic series for the *odd* extension of f(x)
- That is you are getting the full Fourier series for

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & 0 < x < \pi \\ -f(-x) & -\pi < x < 0 \end{cases}$$

- So even if f(x) is totally smooth the odd extension can have a discontinuity for example if  $f(x) \neq 0$  at x = 0 or  $x = \pi$
- This is what happened when we computed the sine transform of

#### Rate of convergence

- We have seen cases where the Fourier series converges incredibly fast
- This occurred for the cosine expansion of

$$f(x) = \exp(\cos(x)) \quad 0 \le x \le \pi$$

- We also saw a case where it converged uniformly but not very fast
- This occurred for the cosine expansion of

$$f(x) = x$$
  $0 \le x \le \pi$ 

 And finally we saw a case where we got nonuniform convergence for the sine series of

$$f(x) = 1 \qquad 0 \le x \le \pi$$



- Integration by parts can be used to find out how fast the Fourier series coefficients will decay.
- This is important in applications because we sometimes want to use Fourier series to approximate a function.
- The faster the coefficients decrease with increasing n, the fewer terms we would need to represent f(x) accurately.
- Suppose f(x) is periodic and has continuous derivatives of order p = 0, 1, 2, ..., k − 1,
- Suppose  $f^{(k)}(x)$  is integrable meaning the integral is finite.

 Now consider the coefficients of the full Fourier series as written in complex form:

$$C_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \exp(inx) dx$$

Then repeated integration by parts can be used to show that

$$C_n = \frac{1}{2\pi (in)^k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^{(k)}(x) \exp(inx) dx$$

- In other words, the number of continuous derivatives of f within the period determine the rate of decay of the Fourier coefficients
- If you have k-1 continuous derivatives the coefficients decay at least as fast as  $n^{-k}$
- In many cases the coefficients decay like  $n^{-(k+1)}$  but this is not guaranteed to always happen.



- This is consistent with the examples we presented
- For the cosine expansion of the function

$$f(x) = x$$
  $0 \le x \le \pi$ 

the even extension of f(x) is continuous but its first derivative is not

- We saw the coefficients decay like  $n^{-2}$
- For the sine expansion of

$$f(x) = 1 \qquad 0 \le x \le \pi$$

the odd extension of f(x) is discontinuous and the coefficients decay like  $n^{-1}$ 

• Finally for the cosine expansion  $f(x) = \exp(\cos(x))$  any derivative of the even extension exists so the coefficients decay faster than any power of n (that is exponentially or faster)

# The Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma

• The *Riemann-Lebesgue lemma* says that if g(x) is any integrable function then

$$\int_0^{2\pi} g(x) \exp(ikx) dx \to 0 \text{ as } k \to \infty$$

- We won't prove this result here.
- The upshot is that it tells you the integral goes to zero.
- It does not tell you how fast it goes to zero.

## Rate of decay of Fourier coefficients

So consider again

$$C_n = \frac{1}{2\pi (in)^k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^{(k)}(x) \exp(inx) dx$$

From the Riemann-Lebesgue lemma we can conclude that

$$C_k \to 0$$
 faster than  $\frac{1}{k^n}$ 

- So suppose you have a Fourier series where the coefficients  $C_k$  go to zero like  $k^{-n}$  as  $k \to \infty$ .
- And you determine that they decay no faster than this.
- Then you can conclude that  $f^{(n-1)}(x)$  is discontinuous.
- This means that if f(x) is infinitely differentiable and periodic, the Fourier series terms decay faster than any power of k.
- This is also consistent with the examples above.



- We have gotten estimates on how the coefficients of a Fourier series go to zero
- We can also obtain from those results the error in a Fourier series after you sum say K terms.
- From the discussion above, suppose x is a fixed distance away from a point of discontinuity  $x_0$  of  $f^{(n-1)}(x)$ .
- Now we want to consider

$$G_K(x) = \sum_{n=-K}^{K} C_n exp(inx)$$

• Then the difference between  $G_K(x)$  and the function f(x) goes to zero like  $K^{-n}$ .



• However, if you approach the point of discontinuity  $x_0$  in the following way

$$x-x_0=\frac{D}{K}$$

then  $|G_K(x) - f(x)|$  goes to zero like  $1/K^{n-1}$ .

- This is in keeping with what we found out about the Gibbs phenomenon.
- Suppose f(x) has a discontinuity (either because it is discontinuous or because you use a Fourier series with a certain symmetry)
- Then we see that the Fourier series coefficients decrease like 1/n.
- And the error between the Fourier series and the function decreases like 1/N where N is the number of terms you keep as long as you are a fixed distance from the point of discontinuity.
- If you approach the point of discontinuity as we did in the case of Gibbs phenomenon the error does not decrease as we saw.