

Tower series

Complex inner products and orthogonal systems

Definition: Complex inner product

Let V be a complex vector space. Then a mapping $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is called an **inner product** if the following assumptions are satisfied

1) **Linearity in the first argument**:

$$\langle \lambda f + \mu g, h \rangle = \lambda \langle f, h \rangle + \mu \langle g, h \rangle$$

for all $\lambda, \mu \in \mathbb{C}$ and $f, g, h \in V$.

2) **Conjugate symmetry**

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \overline{\langle g, f \rangle} \quad \forall f, g \in V$$

3) **Positive definiteness**

$$\langle f, f \rangle \geq 0 \text{ and } \langle f, f \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow f = 0.$$

Example: Let V be the space of complex, continuous 2π periodic functions. Then

$$\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f \bar{g} dx$$

is a complex inner product on V .

Observation: As for a real vector space, a complex inner product induces a norm on V via

$$\|f\| := \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}.$$

• We have $|\langle f, g \rangle| \leq \|f\| \|g\|$, Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

Definition: Let V be a complex vector space with an inner product.

A sequence / family $\{ \phi_n \}_n$ is called

orthogonal if $\langle \phi_n, \phi_m \rangle = \begin{cases} c_n \neq 0 & \text{if } n=m \\ 0 & \text{if } n \neq m, \end{cases}$

orthonormal if in addition $c_n = \langle \phi_n, \phi_n \rangle = \|\phi_n\|^2 = 1$. We then write $\langle \phi_n, \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$ Kronecker delta.

• Example: $\{ e^{inx} \}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthogonal

system since

$$\begin{aligned} \langle e^{inx}, e^{imx} \rangle &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{inx} \overline{e^{imx}} dx = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{inx} e^{-imx} dx \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i(n-m)x} dx = \begin{cases} 2\pi & n=m \\ \frac{1}{i(n-m)} e^{i(n-m)x} \Big|_{x=-\pi}^{x=\pi} & n \neq m \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{2 \cdot 1}{2i(n-m)} \begin{pmatrix} i(n-m)\pi & i(n-m)\pi \\ e & -e \end{pmatrix} = \frac{2}{(n-m)} \sin(n-m)\pi = 0.$$

• By the previous calculations we see that

$\left\{ \frac{e^{inx}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ is an orthonormal system.

Example: $\{\sin nx\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \cup \{\cos nx\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$

is an orthogonal system. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \sin nx, \sin mx \rangle &= \langle \cos nx, \cos mx \rangle \\ &= \begin{cases} \pi & \text{if } n=m \\ 0 & \text{else,} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } \langle \cos nx, \sin mx \rangle = 0 \quad \forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Proof: See exercise set 1, problem 3. ■

• Last time we considered the vector spaces

$$V_N = \left\{ f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^N (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx), \right. \\ \left. a_n, b_n \in \mathbb{C} \right\} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\tilde{V}_N = \left\{ f(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^N c_n e^{inx} \mid c_n \in \mathbb{C} \right\}.$$

Note that $\tilde{V}_N = V_N$ thanks to Euler's formula.

Orthogonal projection (again)

Questions: For a given $f \notin V_N$, can we find an $f_N \in V_N$ which is 'close' to f ? Or ask differently, which $f_N \in V_N$ is the closest one to f , regarding all choices in V_N we have? How to compute them e.g. c_n or a_n, b_n ?

Let's start with the simple example, assuming that f is already in V !

Assumptions for remaining lecture: V complex vector space with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$, $\{\phi_n\} \subseteq V$ orthogonal system, $V_N := \{ f_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n \phi_n \}$ N -dimensional subspace spanned by the first N members of $\{\phi_n\}$.

Proposition: Let V be complex vector space with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. Let $\{\phi_n\}$ be an orthogonal family. Assume that f is given by

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n \phi_n. \quad \text{Then } c_n = \frac{\langle f, \phi_n \rangle}{\|\phi_n\|^2}.$$

In particular if $\{\phi_n\}$ is an

orthonormal system then $c_n = \langle f, \phi_n \rangle$.

Proof: Take inner product between f and ϕ_w :

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f, \phi_w \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_{n=1}^N c_n \phi_n, \phi_w \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N c_n \langle \phi_n, \phi_w \rangle \\ &= c_w \underbrace{\langle \phi_w, \phi_w \rangle}_{= \|\phi_w\|^2} \\ &= c_w \langle \phi_w, \phi_w \rangle\end{aligned}$$

thanks to the orthogonality property $\blacksquare$

Definition: For an orthogonal system $\{\phi_n\}$ and given vector / function $f \in V$, the coefficients

$$c_w := \frac{\langle f, \phi_w \rangle}{\|\phi_w\|^2} \text{ are called the (general)}$$

Fourier coefficients. Sometimes we write $\hat{f}(w) := c_w$.

Definition (Orthogonal projection)

For $f \in V$ we define the projection $\pi_N f \in V_N$ by

$$\pi_N f := \sum_{n=1}^N c_n \phi_n \quad \text{with } c_w := \frac{\langle f, \phi_w \rangle}{\|\phi_w\|^2}.$$

Observations:

• π_N is a linear mapping, $\forall f \mapsto \pi_N f \in V_N$.

• π_N is indeed a projection, that is

$\pi_N f = f$ whenever f is already in V_N , thanks to the previous proposition.

• $\pi_N f$ is orthogonal in the sense that

$$\langle f - \pi_N f, g \rangle = 0 \quad \forall g \in V_N, \text{ that is}$$

the error $f - \pi_N f$ is orthogonal to V_N .

Proof: Since $\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^N$ is a basis for V_N it is

enough to show that $\langle f - \pi_N f, \phi_w \rangle = 0 \quad w=1, \dots, N$.

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f - \pi_N f, \phi_w \rangle &= \left\langle f - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\langle f, \phi_n \rangle}{\|\phi_n\|^2} \phi_n, \phi_w \right\rangle \\ &= \langle f, \phi_w \rangle - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\langle f, \phi_n \rangle}{\|\phi_n\|^2} \langle \phi_n, \phi_w \rangle\end{aligned}$$

$\{\phi_n\}$ is orthogonal.

$$= \langle f, \phi_w \rangle - \frac{\langle f, \phi_w \rangle}{\langle \phi_w, \phi_w \rangle} \cdot \langle \phi_w, \phi_w \rangle = 0. \quad \blacksquare$$

Theorem: (Best approximation property)

let $f \in V$. Then $\pi_w f$ satisfies

$$\|f - \pi_w f\| = \min_{g \in V_w} \|f - g\|.$$

Proof: Exactly the same as in lecture 1, but we repeat it here to extract an important corollary.
let $g \in V_w$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|f - \pi_w f\|^2 &= \langle f - \pi_w f, f - \pi_w f \rangle \\ &= \langle f - \pi_w f, f - g \rangle + \underbrace{\langle f - \pi_w f, g - \pi_w f \rangle}_{= 0} \\ &= \langle f - \pi_w f, f - g \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$\pi_w f$ is orthogonal projection

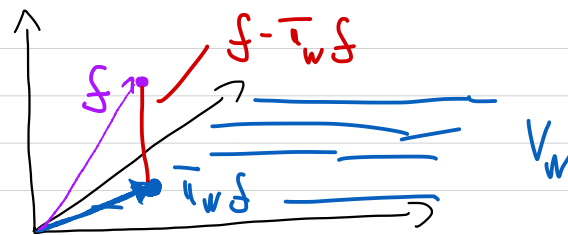
Cauchy
 $\leq$
Schwarz

$$\|f - \pi_w f\| \|f - g\|. \text{ Divide by } \|f - \pi_w f\|$$

(if not 0, otherwise trivial since $\|f - \pi_w f\| = 0$ is clearly the minimum.)
and get

$$\|f - \pi_w f\| \leq \|f - g\| \text{ no matter what } g \in V_w$$

we chose. $\square$



Proposition: $\|\pi_w f\| \leq \|f\|$.

Intuitively $f = \pi_w f + f - \pi_w f$ and

$f - \pi_w f \perp \pi_w f$ so Pythagorean theorem $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ gives

$$\|f\|^2 = \|\pi_w f\|^2 + \|f - \pi_w f\|^2 \geq \|\pi_w f\|^2.$$

A proof in the spirit of the previous proof is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \underbrace{\langle f, f \rangle}_c &= \langle \pi_w f + (f - \pi_w f), \pi_w f + (f - \pi_w f) \rangle \\ &= \underbrace{\langle \pi_w f, \pi_w f \rangle}_{= \|\pi_w f\|^2 = a^2} + \underbrace{\langle f - \pi_w f, f - \pi_w f \rangle}_{= \|f - \pi_w f\|^2 = b^2} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\langle \pi_w f, f - \pi_w f \rangle}_{= 0} + \underbrace{\langle f - \pi_w f, \pi_w f \rangle}_{= 0} \end{aligned}$$

Since $\pi_w f$ is orthogonal.

Corollary (Bessel's inequality)

Let $\{\phi_n\}$ be an orthonormal system, then for any N we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^N |\hat{f}(n)|^2 \leq \|f\|^2.$$

Proof: Thanks to the last proposition we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|f\|^2 &\geq \|\pi_N f\|^2 \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{f}(n) \phi_n, \sum_{m=1}^N \hat{f}(m) \phi_m \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{m=1}^N \hat{f}(n) \overline{\hat{f}(m)} \underbrace{\langle \phi_n, \phi_m \rangle}_{= \delta_{nm}} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^N |\hat{f}(n)|^2 \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Corollary (Riemann-Lebesgue)

If $\|f\| < \infty$ and $\{\phi_n\}$ be an orthonormal family, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{f}(n) = 0.$$

Proof: Since $\|f\| < \infty$ we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^N |\hat{f}(n)|^2 \leq \|f\|^2 < \infty \quad \text{for any } N > 0,$$

thus $\sum_{n=1}^N |\hat{f}(n)|^2$ converges to some finite

number which means that $|\hat{f}(n)|^2 \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and thus $|\hat{f}(n)| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Real and complex Fourier series

Definition (General Fourier series for an orthog. system)

Let $\{\phi_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ be an orthogonal system. Then the formal expansion

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) \phi_n$ is called a general Fourier series.

Remark: Since $\Pi_N f = \sum_{n=1}^N \hat{f}(n) \phi_n$ is made up from partial sums of the general Fourier series, we often write

$$S_N f := \Pi_N f$$

After the general considerations, we return to our original questions.

• We define now $V := \{f: [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f|^2 < \infty\}$

where we assumed that the integral $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f|^2$ exists.

Such functions are said to be "square-integrable".

The set V is thus the set of all square-integrable functions, which is in fact a vector space

(Exercise: Prove this). This vector space is also denoted by $L^2(-\pi, \pi)$, read "L two".

Definition (complex trigonometric series / Fourier series)

Let f be a complex, 2π periodic function and consider the orthogonal system

$$\{e^{inx}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}.$$

The formal series

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$

is called the (complex) Fourier series associated with f ,

we write:

$$f \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$

Often, we denote $\hat{f}(n)$ for the complex Fourier series as c_n ; that is,

$$c_n := \hat{f}(n) = \frac{\langle f, e^{inx} \rangle}{\|e^{inx}\|^2}$$

$$= \frac{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f \overline{e^{inx}} dx}{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |e^{inx}|^2 dx} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx =: c_n$$

Definitions (real Fourier series)

Now we consider the orthogonal system on $(-\pi, \pi)$

$\{1\} \cup \{\cos nx\}_{n=1}^{\infty} \cup \{\sin nx\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ instead,

and compute the corresponding (general)

Fourier coefficients:

$$a_0 := \frac{\langle f, 1 \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx$$

$$a_n := \frac{\langle f, \cos nx \rangle}{\langle \cos nx, \cos nx \rangle} = \frac{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx}{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos nx)^2 dx}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx$$

and similarly,

$$b_n := \frac{\langle f, \sin nx \rangle}{\langle \sin nx, \sin nx \rangle} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin nx dx$$

Note that if f is real then $a_n, b_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

The expression

$$f \sim a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos nx + b_n \sin nx)$$

is called the (real) Fourier series of f .

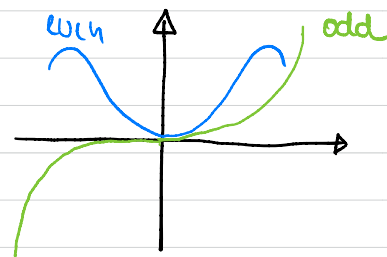
Before we start to look at a number of examples we introduce the concept of even and odd functions

Definition: (odd and even functions)

A function f on a symmetric interval $J = [-a, a]$

is called even if $f(x) = f(-x) \quad \forall x \in J$, and

is called odd if $f(-x) = -f(x) \quad \forall x \in J$.



Observation: For the product $f \cdot g$ of two functions, we have

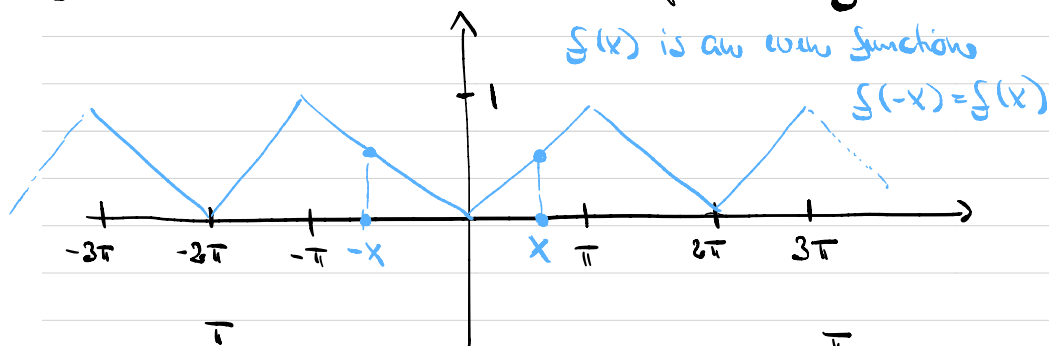
f	g	$f \cdot g$
even	even	even
odd	even	odd
even	odd	odd
odd	odd	even

Exercise. Show that

$$f \text{ even} \Rightarrow \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx, \quad f \text{ odd} \Rightarrow \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0.$$

Example 1.

$f(x) = |x|$ on $[-\pi, \pi]$ and periodically extended



$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \left(\int_{-\pi}^0 (-x) dx + \int_0^{\pi} x dx \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \left(-\frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{-\pi}^0 + \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^{\pi} \right) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2\pi^2}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \cos nx dx$$

f and $\cos nx$ are even functions

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^0 -x \cos nx dx + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} x \cos nx dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} x \cos nx dx$$

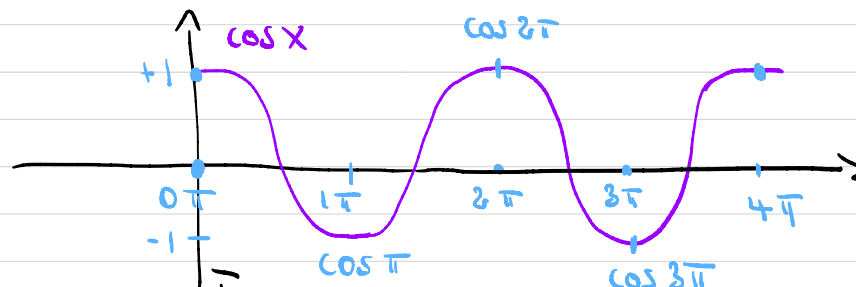
How to compute $\int_a^b x \cos nx dx$? Integration by parts!

$$\int_a^b x \cos nx = \left. x \frac{\sin nx}{n} \right|_a^b - \int_a^b \frac{\sin nx}{n}$$

$$= \left. \frac{x}{n} \sin nx \right|_a^b + \left. \frac{\cos nx}{n^2} \right|_a^b$$

Thus

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



$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \sin nx$$

Note that $\sin x$ is an 'odd' function, i.e.

$\sin(-x) = -\sin(x)$, and so is $\sin(nx)$ and thus $|x| \sin(nx)$. Thus

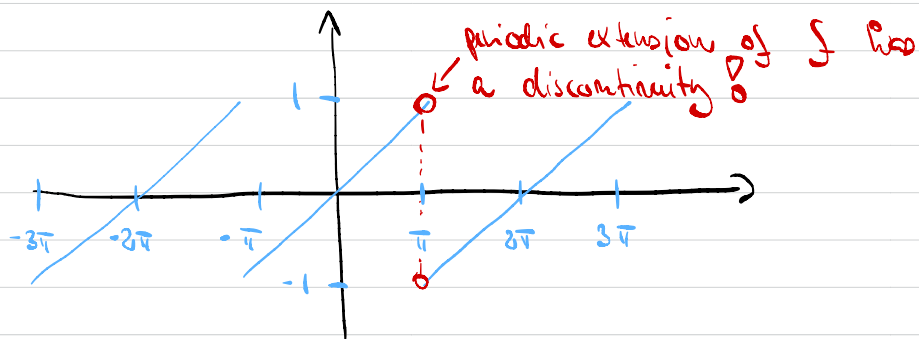
$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |x| \sin nx = 0.$$

Fourier series for $f(x) = |x|$:

$$f \sim \frac{\pi}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{\pi n^2} ((-1)^n - 1).$$

• For a plot of the partial sums $S_N f$ we refer to the supplemental jupyter notebook.

Example 2: $f(x) = x$ on $[-\pi, \pi]$, extended periodically to entire real line.



a) Complex Fourier series

$$c_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x \cdot 1 dx = 0$$

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x e^{-inx} dx$$

Integration by parts $\downarrow$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\left. \frac{x e^{-inx}}{-in} \right|_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{e^{-inx}}{-in} dx}_{=0} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\frac{e^{-in\pi}}{-in} + \frac{e^{in\pi}}{-in}}{-2\pi} = -\frac{\cos n\pi}{in} = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{in}$$

$$\Rightarrow f \sim \sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{in} e^{inx}$$

• We can write this Fourier series as follows

$$\sum_{\substack{n=-\infty \\ n \neq 0}}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{in} e^{inx} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{in} (e^{inx} - e^{-inx})$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \cdot 2 \sin nx \quad \text{(*)}$$

b) Exercise. Now compute the real Fourier series

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x dx = \dots$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x \cos nx dx = \dots$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x \sin nx dx = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} x \sin nx dx$$

and verify that you end up with (*).

• When you plot the partial sums $S_N f$, you see that approximate $f(x)$ quite well for increasing N except for close to the interval endpoints, where $S_N f$ overshoots / show large oscillation. This phenomena is called **Gibbs phenomenon** and caused by the discontinuity of the function.

Example 3 Consider the Heaviside function

$$u(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ 1 & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Consider this as a function on $[-\pi, \pi]$ and extend it to $\mathbb{R}$ periodically.



Compute the real Fourier series

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u(x) dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} 1 dx = \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u(x) \cos nx dx = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \cos nx dx$$

$$= 0$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} u(x) \sin nx dx = \int_0^{\pi} \sin nx dx$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{\cos nx}{n} \Big|_0^{\pi} \right)$$

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{n\pi} (1 + (-1)^{n+1}) = \begin{cases} 0 & n \text{ even} \\ \frac{2}{n\pi} & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow u(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\pi} (1 + (-1)^{n+1}) \sin nx$$

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

Complex vs. real Fourier series

If f is a real function, then

$$\cdot c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx$$

$$- \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \overline{e^{inx}} dx$$

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

$$= \overline{c_{-n}}$$

Thus all sums

$$c_n e^{inx} + c_{-n} e^{-inx}$$

$$= c_n e^{inx} + \overline{c_n e^{inx}}$$

$$= z + \bar{z} = \operatorname{Re}(z)$$

are real, so entire "complex" F.S. is a real function

• Transition between real and complex form

$$c_n + c_{-n} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) (e^{-inx} + e^{inx}) dx \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos nx dx = a_n$$

$$c_n - c_{-n} = -i \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin nx dx = -i b_n$$

$$c_n + c_{-n} = a_n$$

$$c_n - c_{-n} = -i b_n$$

$$c_n = \frac{a_n - i b_n}{2}$$

$$c_{-n} = \frac{a_n + i b_n}{2}$$

Convergence of Fourier series

Question: We introduced formal Fourier series

$$f \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$

$$\text{with } \hat{f}(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx \quad \underbrace{=: S_N f(x)}$$

When / for which x does

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$

hold?

• We start by rewriting $S_N f$. To do so we define

the so-called n -th Dirichlet-kernel

$$\begin{aligned} D_N(x) &:= \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{inx} = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^N (e^{inx} + e^{-inx}) \\ &= 1 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^N \cos nx \end{aligned}$$

Note that $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(x) dx = 2\pi \quad \forall N.$

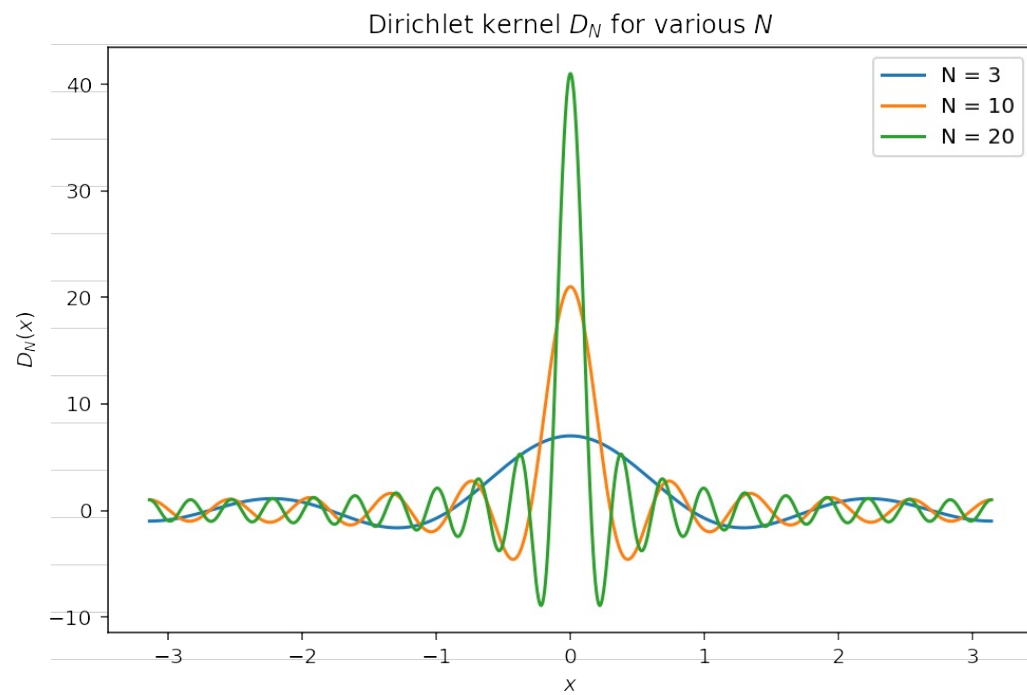
• Because of this, one sometimes normalizes the Dirichlet kernel:

$$\tilde{D}_N(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} D_N(x), \quad \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tilde{D}_N(x) dx = 1.$$

• We can write D_N further

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{inx} &= \sum_{n=0}^{2N} e^{inx} e^{-inx} \\ &= e^{-iNx} \sum_{n=0}^{2N} q^n \quad \text{geometric sum with } q = e^{ix} \\ &= e^{-iNx} \cdot \frac{1 - q^{2N+1}}{1 - q} = e^{-iNx} \frac{1 - e^{i(2N+1)x}}{1 - e^{ix}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-iNx} - e^{i(N+\frac{1}{2})x}}{1 - e^{ix}} \cdot \frac{e^{i\frac{x}{2}}}{e^{i\frac{x}{2}}} \cdot \frac{e^{-i\frac{x}{2}}}{e^{-i\frac{x}{2}}} \\ &= \frac{e^{-i(N+\frac{1}{2})x} - e^{i(N+\frac{1}{2})x}}{e^{-i\frac{x}{2}} - e^{i\frac{x}{2}}} =: \frac{\sin((N+\frac{1}{2})x)}{\sin(\frac{x}{2})} = D_N(x) \end{aligned}$$

• look at plots for $D_N(x)$



• Now we rewrite the partial sum $S_N f(x)$ as follows

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_N f(x) &= \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}(n) e^{inx} \\
 &= \sum_{n=-N}^N \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) e^{-iny} dy e^{inx} \\
 &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{in(x-y)}}_{= \tilde{D}_N(x-y)} dy \\
 &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) \tilde{D}_N(x-y) dy.
 \end{aligned}$$

This kind of representation of some functions via such integral is so common in mathematics that it deserves its own name: "Convolution".

Definition: For two 2π -periodic functions f, g the convolution $f * g$ is defined by

$$(f * g)(x) := \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) g(x-y) dy.$$

Lemma (Commutativity of convolution)

For two 2π periodic functions it holds that

$$\begin{aligned}
 (f * g)(x) &:= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) g(x-y) dy \\
 &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y) g(y) dy =: (g * f)(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (f * g)(x) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) g(x-y) dy \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Substitution rule } t = x-y \\ \text{that is } t(y) = x-y \text{ and} \\ y = y(t) = x-t \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \int_{t(-\pi)}^{t(\pi)} f(x-t) g(t) \frac{dy}{dt} dt \\
 &= - \int_{x+\pi}^{x-\pi} f(x-t) g(t) dt \\
 &= - \int_{\pi}^{-\pi} f(x-t) g(t) dt \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Since integrand is } 2\pi \text{ periodic,} \\ \text{so it doesn't matter on which interval} \\ \text{of length } 2\pi \text{ we integrate} \end{array} \right) \\
 &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-t) g(t) dt \\
 &= (g * f)(x). \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

Interlude: Understanding Convolutions

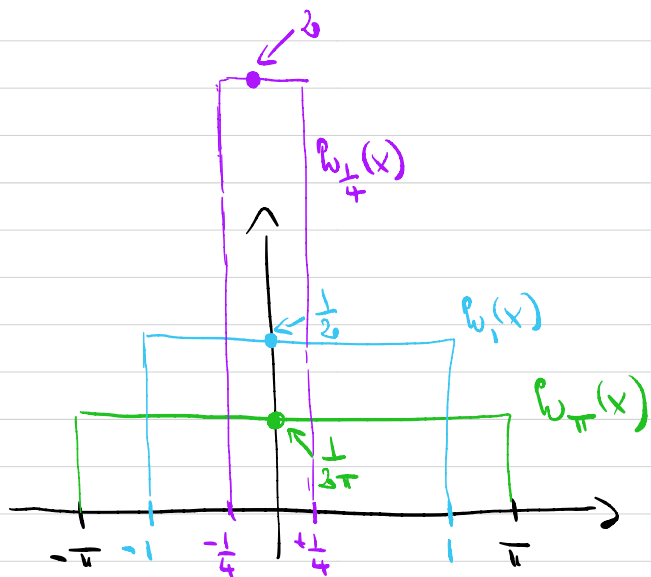
At first, convolutions might be a difficult operation to grasp. We thus pause here to investigate the meaning of taking convolutions further.

Let's take a look at the meaning of

$$g * w_\varepsilon$$

where for $0 < \varepsilon \leq \pi$ we define

$$w_\varepsilon(x) = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \cdot \chi_{[-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2\varepsilon}, & |x| \leq \varepsilon \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$



Note that we always have that

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w_\varepsilon(x) dx = 1 \quad \forall \varepsilon \in (0, \pi]$$

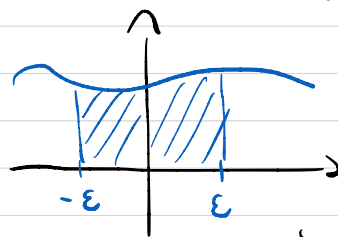
so the "total mass" under the integral is always 1.

Now we have a look at $g * w_\varepsilon$; specifically we look at

$$(g * w_\varepsilon)(0) = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) w_\varepsilon(0-y) dy$$

Since w_ε is even = $\frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) \chi_{[-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]}(y) dy$

Definition of $\chi_{[-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]}$ = $\frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \int_{-\varepsilon}^{\varepsilon} g(y) dy$



So we integrate

$g(y)$ over an interval of length 2ε centered at 0

and then we divide by the length of the interval.

So $g * w_\varepsilon(0)$ represents a sort of an average value of g taken over an interval centered at 0.

• For a 'nice' function g , we actually expect that $(g * w_\epsilon)(0) \rightarrow g(0)$, $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, that is average values over smaller and smaller intervals centered at 0 should converge to $g(0)$, if, e.g. g is continuous at 0. This is just the classical fundamental theorem of calculus: if g is continuous, then

$$\int_a^b g(y) dy = G(b) - G(a) \text{ where } G'(y) = g(y).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} g(y) dy &= \frac{1}{2\epsilon} (G(\epsilon) - G(-\epsilon)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{G(\epsilon) - G(0)}{\epsilon} + \frac{G(-\epsilon) - G(0)}{-\epsilon} \right) \xrightarrow{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} (G'(0) + G'(0)) \\ &= g(0). \end{aligned}$$

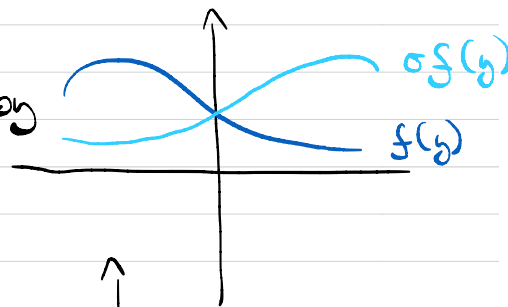
• Now look at

$$(g * w_\epsilon)(x) = \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} g(y) w_\epsilon(x-y) dy$$

• Introduce mirror operator

$\sigma : f \mapsto \sigma f$ defined by

$$\sigma f(y) = f(-y)$$



• Translation operator

$f \mapsto \tau_x f$ given

by

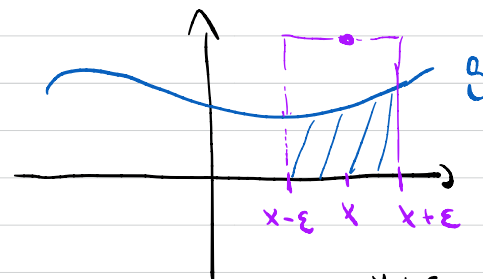
$$\tau_x f(y) := f(y-x)$$



Now we realize that $w_\epsilon(x-y)$ as a function of y is just

$$\begin{aligned} w_\epsilon(x-y) &= w_\epsilon(-(y-x)) \\ &= \sigma w_\epsilon(y-x) \\ &= \tau_x \sigma w_\epsilon(y) \end{aligned}$$

So $w_\epsilon(x-y)$ is just w_ϵ mirrored first and then translated to x . In pictures



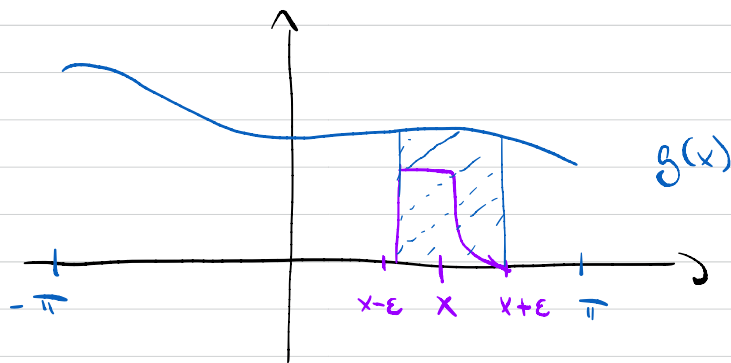
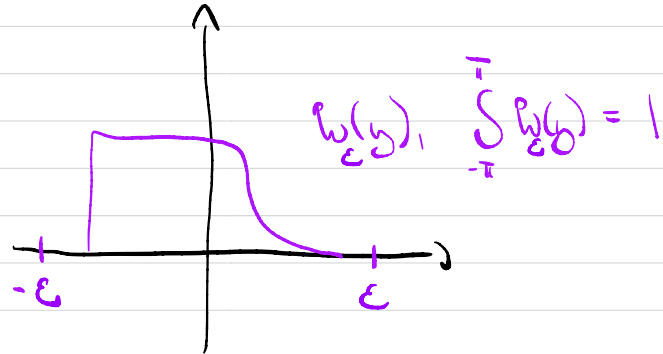
Thus

$$g * w_\epsilon(x) = \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_{x-\epsilon}^{x+\epsilon} w(y) dy$$

So $g * w_\epsilon(x)$ represents a sort of an average value of g taken over an interval centered at x .

- As in the case for $x=0$, we can show that $g * \rho_\varepsilon(x) \rightarrow g(x)$ if g is continuous at x .

- Let's consider a more general case



Here the function $\rho_\varepsilon(x)$ does not weight all contributions to f close to x in the same way,

here we put more weight towards the left contributions.

and not all values of $g(y)$ are weighted the same way.

After this introduction we return to:

We observed that the partial sums

$$S_N f(x) = \tau_N f(x) := \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$

are nothing else but a convolution of f with the (normalized) Dirichlet kernel

$$\mathcal{D}_N(y) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{iny}$$

$$\text{For any } N: \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \mathcal{D}_N(y) dy = 1$$

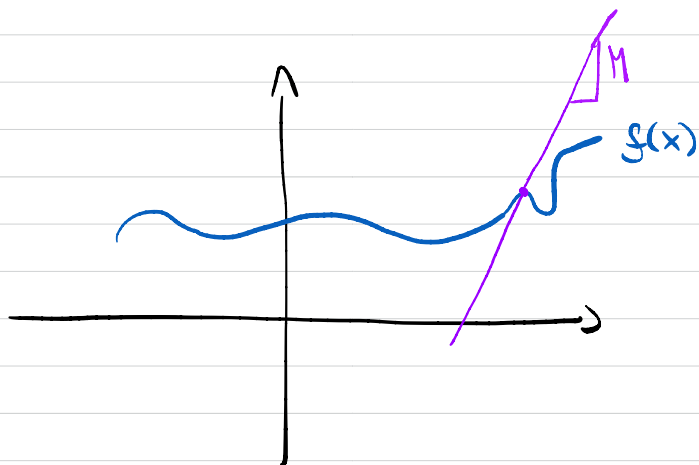
and for $N \rightarrow \infty$, the 'mass' concentrates more and more around 0. Thus it might come as a complete surprise, the so 'nice' functions

$$f \text{ we have that } \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N f(x) = f(x).$$

Warning: The Dirichlet kernel is quite nasty, in particular it is very oscillatory for large N . In particular, there exists example of functions f where f is continuous at x , but $S_N f$ does not converge to f at x .

But if we assume a slightly stronger condition one can prove convergence: We say that f is Lipschitz continuous in x if

$$|f(x-y) - f(x)| \leq M|y| \quad \forall y \in (-2\pi, 2\pi)$$



Remark: The condition above implies that f is continuous at x , since $f(x-y) \rightarrow f(x)$ if $y \rightarrow 0$.

Theorem (Pointwise convergence of Fourier series for Lipschitz continuous functions)

Let f be a 2π periodic function which is square-integrable and let $x \in (-\pi, \pi)$ be a point such that

$$|f(x-y) - f(x)| \leq M|y| \quad \forall y \in (-2\pi, 2\pi)$$

for some constant M . Then

$$S_N f(x) := \sum_{n=-N}^N c_n e^{inx} \rightarrow f(x) \quad \text{for } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof: A detailed proof for the mathematically inclined can be found on the next two pages.

Note: Proof is not relevant for exam!

Proof: We want to show that $f(x) - S_N f(x) \rightarrow 0, N \rightarrow \infty$.

let's start from there:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) - S_N f(x) &= f(x) - f * \tilde{D}_N(x) \\ &= f(x) - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) \tilde{D}_N(x-y) dy \end{aligned}$$

(using lemma 1)

(using $1 = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tilde{D}_N(y) dy$
for all N)

$$\begin{aligned} &= f(x) - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y) \tilde{D}_N(y) dy \\ &= \underbrace{f(x) \cdot \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \tilde{D}_N(y) dy}_{=1} - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y) \tilde{D}_N(y) dy \end{aligned}$$

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x) - f(x-y)) \tilde{D}_N(y) dy$$

(Representation of normalized Dirichlet kernel, see page 1)

$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \boxed{(f(x) - f(x-y)) \frac{\sin((N+\frac{1}{2})y)}{\pi \cdot \sin \frac{y}{2}}} dy =: g(y)$$

let's pause for a moment and have a closer look at

$$g(y) := \frac{f(x) - f(x-y)}{\pi \sin \frac{y}{2}}.$$

Away from the origin, this function is "nice" since $\sin \frac{y}{2}$ is not zero on $(-\pi, \pi) \setminus \{0\}$. The question is whether $g(y)$ blows up for $y \rightarrow 0$ since $\frac{1}{\sin \frac{y}{2}} \rightarrow \infty$ for $y \rightarrow 0$.

But thanks to our condition, we have that

$$\pi |g(y)| = \frac{|f(x) - f(x-y)|}{|\sin \frac{y}{2}|} \leq \frac{M |y|}{|\sin \frac{y}{2}|} \leq C$$

for some constant, since we know (using de l'Hospital's rule) that $\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{y}{\sin \frac{y}{2}} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2} \cos \frac{y}{2}} = 2$.

So we proceed with

$$f(x) - S_N f(x) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) \sin((N+\frac{1}{2})y) dy$$

(using $\sin(a+b) = \sin a \cos b + \cos a \sin b$)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \boxed{g(y) \cos \frac{y}{2}} \sin Ny dy \quad \text{I} \\ &\quad + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \boxed{g(y) \sin \frac{y}{2}} \cos Ny dy \quad \text{II} \end{aligned}$$

We want to show that both I and II $\rightarrow 0$ for $N \rightarrow \infty$. Looking closer at I, we realize that it is (modulo a factor 2π) the real part of the Fourier coefficient c_n associated with g_1 :

$$2\pi \cdot \text{I} = \text{Re}(c_n(g_1)). \quad \text{Similarly}$$

$$2\pi \cdot \text{II} = \text{Im}(c_n(g_2)).$$

Because of the nice behavior of g_1 , both g_1 and g_2 are square-integrable ($\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |g_1|^2 dx < \infty$, $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |g_2|^2 dx < \infty$) so by Bessel's inequality and our observations on p.3, $c_n(g_1) \rightarrow 0$, $c_n(g_2) \rightarrow 0$ for $n \rightarrow \infty$ and so do I and II. $\square$

Theorem (Pointwise convergence of Fourier series for function with jumps).

Let f be piecewise continuously differentiable function on $[-\pi, \pi]$, where both the left and right derivative exist at any point of discontinuity.

If f is continuous at a point x , then

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx} = f(x).$$

If f is not continuous at x , the Fourier series

converges to the mean-value of the left-hand-side and right-hand-side limit of f at x , i.e.,

$$\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx} = \frac{f_+(x) + f_-(x)}{2} \quad \text{where}$$

$$f_+(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} f(x+h), \quad f_-(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} f(x-h).$$

If f is C^1 (=continuously differentiable) on

$(-\pi, \pi)$ (excluding endpoints) then $f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$
 $\forall x \in (-\pi, \pi)$. If f is C^1

on the entire real-line and 2π -periodic, then the Fourier series converges to f also at $-\pi$ and π .

Proof: Omitted.

• Note that the last 3 theorems were about

pointwise convergence. But if we can also talk about convergence in the $\|\cdot\| = \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f|^2 dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

This is an integral norm and doesn't look at pointwise convergence.

$V = \{ f: [-\pi, \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \|f\| = \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} < \infty \}$
 $= L^2((-\pi, \pi))$ = "space of all square-integrable functions", $\|f\|$ are called L^2 -norms

Theorem 3

Let $f \in L^2((-\pi, \pi))$ then $S_N f = T_N f \rightarrow f$ in the L^2 -norm, that is

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|f - S_N f\| = 0.$$

Proof: Omitted 

Todo: Add outline for the mathematical interest, needs approximation result by Weierstrass.

Fourier series on $[-d, d]$

We now consider $J = [-d, d]$ instead of $[-\pi, \pi]$.

Then $[-\pi, \pi]$, $\sin x$ $[-d, d]$, $\sin \frac{\pi}{d} x$
 $\{ e^{in\pi x/d} \}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and $\left\{ \cos \frac{n\pi x}{d} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty} \cup \left\{ \sin \frac{n\pi x}{d} \right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$

are orthogonal systems with respect to the scalar product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-d}^d f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx.$$

Exercise: Verify this.

The corresponding complex Fourier series is defined by

$$f \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{\frac{in\pi x}{d}} \text{ with } c_n = \frac{1}{2d} \int_{-d}^d f(y) e^{-\frac{in\pi y}{d}} dy.$$

Similarly we have

$$f \sim a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(a_n \cos \frac{n\pi x}{d} + b_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{d} \right) \text{ with}$$

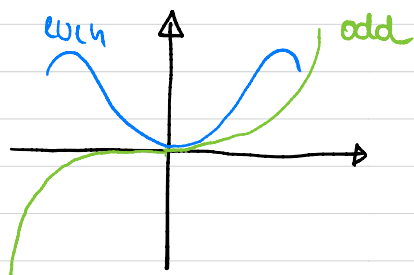
$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2d} \int_{-d}^d f(y) dy, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{d} \int_{-d}^d f(y) \cos \frac{n\pi y}{d} dy$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{d} \int_{-d}^d f(y) \sin \frac{n\pi y}{d} dy.$$

3. Even and odd extension

Definition:

A function f on a symmetric interval $J = [-a, a]$ is called even if $f(x) = f(-x) \quad \forall x \in J$, and is called odd if $f(-x) = -f(x) \quad \forall x \in J$.



Observation: For the product $f \cdot g$ of two functions, we have

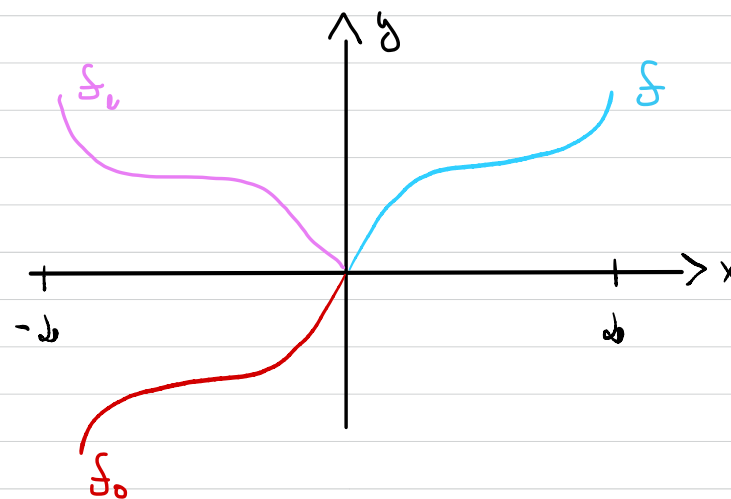
f	g	$f \cdot g$
even	even	even
odd	even	odd
even	odd	odd
odd	odd	even

Definition:

If $f: [0, a) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we define its even extension f_e and its odd extension f_o by

$$f_e(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in [0, a) \\ f(-x) & x \in (-a, 0) \end{cases}$$

$$f_o(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \in [0, a) \\ -f(-x) & x \in (-a, 0) \end{cases}$$



Note: Both f_e and f_o extend f from the original domain of definition $[0, a)$ to $(-a, a)$.

Observations: We can now compute the Fourier series for f_0 and f_e . Since $f_0 = f_e = f$ on $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ they Fourier series must converge to f .

For f_0 we have that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} f_0(y) \cos \frac{n\pi}{\frac{1}{2}} y dy = 0$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} f_0(y) \sin \frac{n\pi}{\frac{1}{2}} y dy = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) \sin \frac{n\pi}{\frac{1}{2}} y dy$$

so we obtain a sinus series for f .

For f_e we get

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} f_e(y) dy = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) dy$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} f_e(y) \cos \frac{n\pi}{2} y dy = \frac{2}{2} \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} f(y) \cos \frac{n\pi}{2} y dy$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2}} \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} f_e(y) \sin \frac{n\pi}{2} y dy = 0$$

Thus we obtain a cosinus series for f .

Exercise: Compute the cosinus series to $f(x) = x$ on $(0, \frac{1}{2})$. or equivalently,

Hint: This should be same as the Fourier series for $f(x) = |x|$.

See also Example 3.23 in Norton's lecture notes.

Parseval' identity

Theorem

Assume that $\int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |f(x)|^2 dx$ exists and is finite,

i.e. $f \in L^2((-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}))$. Let

$$f \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{in\pi \frac{x}{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

$$\sim a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos n\pi \frac{x}{\frac{1}{2}} + b_n \sin n\pi \frac{x}{\frac{1}{2}}). \text{ Then}$$

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

Proof: We only prove the first identity, the second can be derived in the same way or via the relation between a_n, b_n and c_n and c_{-n} .

Since $f \in L^2((-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}))$, we know that

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|f - S_N f\| = 0 \text{ and therefore } \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|S_N f\| = \|f\|.$$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|S_N f\|^2 = \|f\|^2 = \int_{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} |f|^2 dx.$$

Now,

$$\|S_N f\|^2 = \int_{-b}^b \overbrace{\left(\sum_{n=-N}^N c_n e^{i n x \frac{\pi}{2b}} \right)}^{S_N f} \overbrace{\left(\sum_{m=-N}^N \overline{c_m} e^{-i m x \frac{\pi}{2b}} \right)}^{\overline{S_N f}} dx$$

$$= \sum_{n, m=-N}^N c_n \overline{c_m} \underbrace{\int_{-b}^b e^{i n x \frac{\pi}{2b}} e^{-i m x \frac{\pi}{2b}} dx}_{2 \cdot b \cdot \delta_{nm}}$$

$$= \sum_{n=-N}^N |c_n|^2 \cdot 2 \cdot b$$

$$N \rightarrow \infty \rightarrow \|f\|^2 = \int_{-b}^b |f|^2 dx. \quad \blacksquare$$

Remark

Riesz's identity is just an infinite dimensional version of what we already have seen for $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Here we write $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ which is just the coordinate representation of

$$\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \vec{e}_i, \quad \vec{e}_i \text{ are our standard unit basis vectors.}$$

$$\text{Now } \|\vec{x}\| = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{x} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2.$$

(an infinite dimensional space)
For $L^2((-b, b))$, the orthonormal system $\left\{ \frac{e^{i n \frac{\pi}{2b} x}}{\sqrt{2b}} \right\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ plays a similar role as $\{\vec{e}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Applications: Computation of infinite series

Take $w(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$ Heaviside function.

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

$w(x)$ is smooth in $x = \frac{1}{2}$ satisfying assumptions of Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } 1 &= w\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n-1} \sin\left((2n-1)\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n-1} \cdot \underbrace{\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}_{1}, \underbrace{\sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right)}_{-1}, \underbrace{\sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{2}\right)}_{1}, \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n-1} \cdot (-1)^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus } \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

Spectrum of periodic functions

- We started with a 2ω periodic function $f: (-\omega, \omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and defined its corresponding Fourier series

$$f \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx \frac{\pi}{\omega}}$$

where $\hat{f}(n) = \frac{1}{2\omega} \int_{-\omega}^{\omega} f(x) e^{-inx \frac{\pi}{\omega}} dx \in \mathbb{C}$.

So we can now associate with f a sequence of pairs $(c_n, \frac{n}{2\omega})_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ which is called the **spectrum of f** .

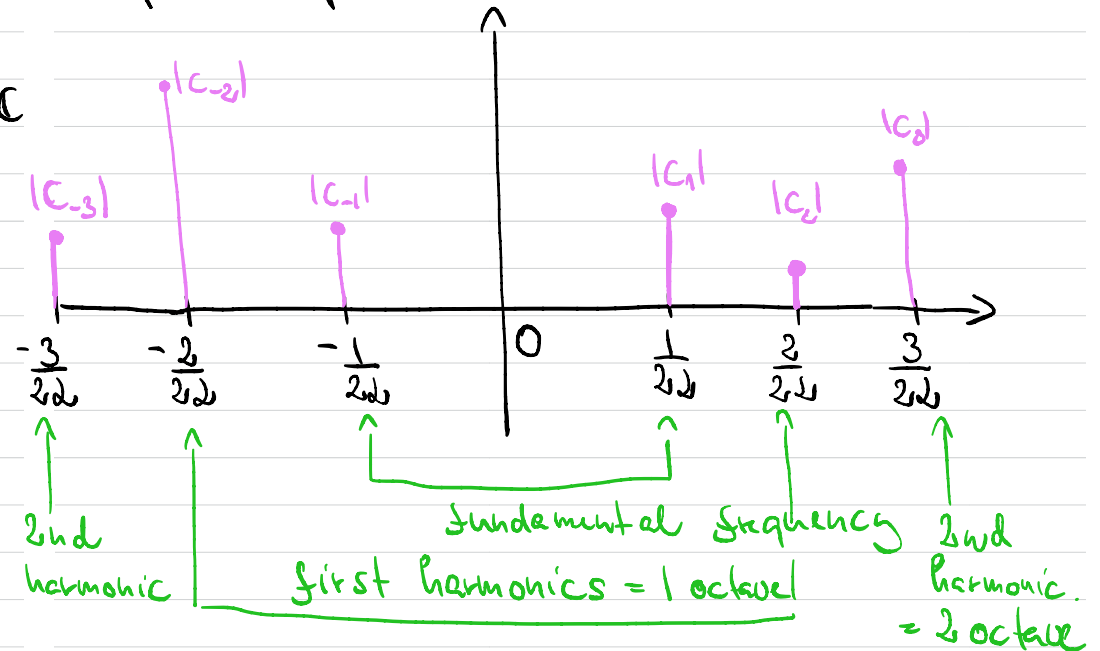
- Note that $\hat{f}(n) = c_n \in \mathbb{C}$ can also be written as $c_n = |c_n| e^{i\theta_n}$ where

$|c_n| \in \mathbb{R}$ is the **amplitude** and

$\theta_n \in [-\pi, \pi)$ is the **phase**

- $\frac{1}{2\omega} = \frac{1}{\text{fundamental period}}$ is called the **fundamental frequency**.

Amplitude spectrum



Phase spectrum

