

CHAPTER VI

Fourier series

§ 1. Introduction and recapitulation

First let us recall that a periodic function $f(x)$, of period 2π , defined on the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$ can be expanded in the well known Fourier series giving us

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = a_0 + a_1 \cos(x) + a_2 \cos(2x) + \cdots + a_n \cos(nx) + \cdots \\ + b_1 \sin(x) + b_2 \sin(2x) + \cdots + b_n \sin(nx) + \cdots \end{aligned} \quad (6.1)$$

The formula for the coefficients a_n and b_n is that

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \\ b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

If $f(x)$ is not periodic then it can be redefined to be periodic outside the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$ and so the same formula still applies and we can still write (more concisely this time)

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin(nx) \quad (6.3)$$

with the same formula for the coefficients, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \\ b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (6.4)$$

This expansion technique is not limited to functions defined on an interval $[-\pi, \pi]$ —it can be applied to functions defined on *any* interval $[a, b]$. In this latter case the formulae above become

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{b-a}\right) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{b-a}\right) \quad (6.5)$$

and the new coefficients are given by

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad a_n = \frac{2}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \cos\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{b-a}\right) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \\ b_n &= \frac{2}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi nx}{b-a}\right) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (6.6)$$

It can readily be verified that these new coefficient formulae revert to the old ones when $[a, b] = [-\pi, \pi]$.

§ 2. Convergence properties of Fourier series

In general the convergence of Fourier series is quite fast and the rate of convergence is related to how *smooth* the function $f(x)$ is; by this we mean how many derivatives of $f(x)$ exist.

We begin our study of convergence by supposing that the first k derivatives $f(x)$ exist—we also denote this more briefly by saying f is C^k . In addition, without loss of generality, we can just deal with the case where $[a, b] = [-\pi, \pi]$.

Now we take the expression for the coefficients a_n and integrate by parts giving us

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[f(x) \frac{\sin(nx)}{n} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(x) \frac{\sin(nx)}{n} dx \\ &= 0 - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f'(x) \frac{\sin(nx)}{n} dx \end{aligned} \quad (6.7)$$

But we can repeatedly integrate by parts, *as long as the derivatives of $f(x)$ exist*. So let us do it once more giving

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \left[f'(x) \frac{\cos(nx)}{n^2} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f''(x) \frac{\cos(nx)}{n^2} dx \\ &= 0 - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f''(x) \frac{\cos(nx)}{n^2} dx \end{aligned} \quad (6.8)$$

where the vanishing of the surface term requires a little more thought this time: it vanishes because $f'(x)$, being the derivative of a periodic function is itself periodic and so $f'(-\pi) = f'(\pi)$ hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left[f'(x) \frac{\cos(nx)}{n^2} \right]_{-\pi}^{\pi} &= \left\{ f'(\pi) \frac{\cos(n\pi)}{n^2} - f'(-\pi) \frac{\cos(-n\pi)}{n^2} \right\} \\ &= \frac{f'(\pi)}{n^2} \{ \cos(n\pi) - \cos(-n\pi) \} \\ &= 0, \quad \text{since } \cos(n\pi) = \cos(-n\pi) \end{aligned} \quad (6.9)$$

To see that $f(x)$ periodic $\Rightarrow f'(x)$ periodic one just differentiates both sides of the Fourier series for $f(x)$, this gives one a Fourier series for $f'(x)$ proving that $f'(x)$ is also periodic. Now we just repeat the integration by parts as many times as we are allowed to do and that is k times if f is C^k . The surface terms will always vanish, as we have just seen, because all derivatives of $f(x)$ are also periodic. Hence after k integrations by parts we find that

$$a_n = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^{(k)}(x) \frac{T_k(nx)}{n^k} dx, \quad \text{when } f \text{ is } C^k$$

$$\text{where } T_k(nx) = \begin{cases} (-1)^{k/2} \cos(nx), & \text{if } k \text{ is even} \\ (-1)^{(k+1)/2} \sin(nx), & \text{if } k \text{ is odd} \end{cases} \quad (6.10)$$

Finally we want to estimate the size of the integral giving a_n . To do this we make use of the fact that for any function $g(x)$ it is clear that

$$\left| \int_a^b g(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |g(x)| dx \quad (6.11)$$

So, taking $g(x) = f^{(k)}(x)T_k(nx)$, and using the further fact that

$$|f^{(k)}(x)T_k(nx)| \leq |f^{(k)}(x)|, \quad \text{because } |T_k(x)| \leq 1, \quad (\text{see its definition}) \quad (6.12)$$

we have the inequality

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{|f^{(k)}(x)|}{n^k} dx, \quad \text{when } f \text{ is } C^k \quad (6.13)$$

The point now is that if we write

$$C_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f^{(k)}(x)| dx \quad (6.14)$$

then we have shown that

$$|a_n| \leq \frac{C_k}{n^k}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (6.15)$$

An almost identical calculation shows that

$$|b_n| \leq \frac{C_k}{n^k}, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \quad (6.16)$$

i.e. the Fourier coefficients a_n and b_n decrease at least as fast as n^{-k} as $n \rightarrow \infty$; this provides excellent and rapid convergence of the Fourier series as long as $k \geq 2$ which is usually the case.

§ 3. Convergence and the Gibbs' phenomenon

There is a very interesting phenomenon of Fourier series which applies to the case where $f(x)$ has a jump discontinuity. This is known as the Gibbs' phenomenon and we shall now give a short account of it.

We begin with a certain function* ϕ which has the simple definition

$$\phi(x) = \begin{cases} -(\pi + x)/2, & -\pi \leq x < 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \\ (\pi - x)/2, & 0 < x \leq \pi \end{cases} \quad (6.17)$$

We draw attention to the fact that $\phi(x)$ is discontinuous at $x = 0$ and jumps there from $-\pi$ to π ; the graph of $\phi(x)$ is displayed in fig. 1 below.

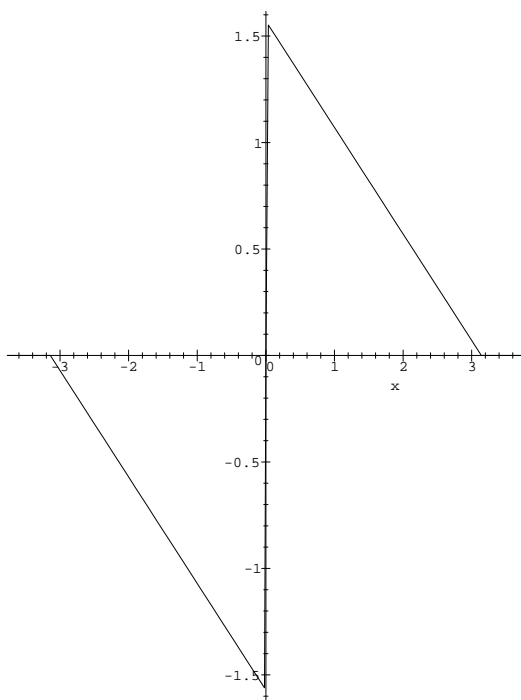


Fig. 1: The function $\phi(x)$

* We shall only give the details for this function $\phi(x)$. It is easy to see that this discussion of $\phi(x)$ also applies to a discontinuity of an arbitrary function $f(x)$. We shall show why this is so at the end.

Now it is straightforward to compute the Fourier series for $\phi(x)$ (but we simply quote it here) the result is that

$$\phi(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \quad (6.18)$$

Consider the *partial sums* of this series i.e. replace the infinite sum for $\phi(x)$ by the finite sum $S_n(x)$ where

$$S_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \quad (6.19)$$

The Gibbs' phenomenon requires us to develop a rather special formula for $S_n(x)$ which we will set about doing.

The next few algebraic steps are somewhat out of the blue but their purpose is to obtain a simple form for $S_n(x)$ and so the reader must be a little patient.

Adding $x/2$ to $S_n(x)$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x}{2} + S_n(x) &= \frac{x}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} \\ &= \int_0^x \left[\frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \cos(kt) \right] dt \\ \Rightarrow S_n(x) &= -\frac{x}{2} + \int_0^x \left[\frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \cos(kt) \right] dt \end{aligned} \quad (6.20)$$

Leaving this expression 6.20 temporarily we now quote the elementary trigonometrical fact (following from the usual formula for $\sin(A) - \sin(B)$) that

$$\sin(k + 1/2)s - \sin(k - 1/2)s = 2 \sin(s/2) \cos(ks) \quad (6.21)$$

Now summing both sides 6.21 from $k = 1$ to $k = n$ we find that all except two terms on the LHS mutually cancel (the reader should write out the first few terms to verify this) and we obtain

$$\sin(n + 1/2)s - \sin(1/2)s = 2 \sin(s/2) \sum_{k=1}^n \cos(ks) \quad (6.22)$$

This we rearrange to give

$$\frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \cos(ks) = \frac{\sin(n + 1/2)s}{2 \sin(s/2)} \quad (6.23)$$

But we can now use 6.23 in 6.20 to give

$$S_n(x) = -\frac{x}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{\sin(t/2)} dt \quad (6.24)$$

Next we add and subtract the quantity $\sin(n+1/2)t/(t/2)$ under the integral and write

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{\sin(t/2)} dt &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x \left\{ \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{(t/2)} + \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{\sin(t/2)} - \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{(t/2)} \right\} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\int_0^x \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{t} dt + \int_0^x \left\{ \frac{1}{\sin(t/2)} - \frac{1}{(t/2)} \right\} \sin(n+1/2)t dt \right] \end{aligned} \quad (6.25)$$

Now we substitute $u = (n+1/2)t$ in the first integral above and the second we simply define to be the function $F(n, x)$. In this way we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x \frac{\sin(n+1/2)t}{(t/2)} dt &= \int_0^{(n+1/2)x} \frac{\sin u}{u} du \\ F(n, x) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x \left\{ \frac{1}{\sin(t/2)} - \frac{1}{(t/2)} \right\} \sin(n+1/2)t dt \end{aligned} \quad (6.26)$$

So we have finally,

$$S_n(x) = -\frac{x}{2} + \int_0^{(n+1/2)x} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt + F(n, x) \quad (6.27)$$

We are now ready to examine what happens at the point of discontinuity, namely at $x = 0$. We make x tend to zero by the special choice

$$x = \frac{h}{n}, \quad \text{where } h \text{ is a small positive constant} \quad (6.28)$$

Thus $x \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. With this value of x we have

$$\begin{aligned} S_n\left(\frac{h}{n}\right) &= -\frac{h}{2n} + \int_0^{(n+1/2)h/n} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt + F\left(n, \frac{h}{n}\right) \\ &= -\frac{h}{2n} + \int_0^{(h+h/2n)} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt + F\left(n, \frac{h}{n}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (6.29)$$

We shall now *assume* (though it is true but we do not require the proof here) that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F\left(n, \frac{h}{n}\right) = 0, \quad \text{uniformly in } n \quad (6.30)$$

(The reader need not worry about the precise meaning of the term uniform here; the main point for us is that the limit contains no term in h .) Performing the limit on the partial sum $S_n(h/n)$ itself we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n\left(\frac{h}{n}\right) &= \int_0^h \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \\ &= A(h), \text{ say}\end{aligned}\tag{6.31}$$

The first point to note is that $A(h)$ which represents the value of $\phi(x)$ at $x = 0$ is not unique but depends on h . This is not too surprising since it is precisely at $x = 0$ that $\phi(x)$ has a discontinuity causing it to jump by the amount π . The Gibbs' phenomenon is the fact the Fourier series for $\phi(x)$ jumps by *more* than $\phi(x)$ does itself.

Let us now see how to establish this: We have seen that the Fourier series for $\phi(x)$ has the value $A(h)$ at $x = 0$ and this depends on h . Hence we define the jump in the Fourier series to be the difference between the *maximum* and *minimum* values of $A(h)$ as h varies. It is convenient to define what is called the Gibbs' interval I by writing

$$\begin{aligned}I &= [\min A, \max A] \\ \text{where } \begin{cases} \min A = & \text{minimum value of } A(h) \\ \max A = & \text{maximum value of } A(h) \end{cases}\end{aligned}\tag{6.32}$$

The Gibbs' interval

Routine calculus will provide us with the numbers $\min A$ and $\max A$: we have

$$\begin{aligned}A(h) &= \int_0^h \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dh} A(h) &= \frac{\sin h}{h} \\ \text{and } \frac{\sin h}{h} = 0 &\Rightarrow h = \mp n\pi\end{aligned}\tag{6.33}$$

One then checks that if $\begin{cases} h = \pi & \text{we have a maximum} \\ h = -\pi & \text{we have a minimum} \end{cases}$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}I &= \left[\int_0^{-\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt, \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \right] \\ &= \left[- \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt, \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \right]\end{aligned}\tag{6.34}$$

But we can numerically evaluate the integral above and, when we do so we find that

$$\int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \frac{\pi}{2}(1.1789 \dots)\tag{6.35}$$

where we have deliberately stated the answer with a factor of $\pi/2$ for convenience below.

Now the function ϕ has a jump at zero of size π and so it is customary to define the quantity G by

$$G = \frac{\text{length of the Gibbs' interval } I}{\text{size of jump in } \phi} \quad (6.36)$$

But the length of I is clearly $2 \int_0^h \sin t/t, dt$ so we find that

$$G = \frac{2 \int_0^\pi \frac{\sin t}{t} dt}{\pi} = 1.1780\dots \quad (6.37)$$

The relevant point is that $G > 1$ and so the Fourier series at the discontinuity jumps more, or overshoots, at the discontinuity than the function ϕ itself.

At the beginning of this section we said in a footnote that we would show why our discussion of the discontinuity of the rather special function $\phi(x)$ also applies to a discontinuity of any function $f(x)$. Let us now present the argument.

Suppose $f(x)$ is a function on $[-\pi, \pi]$ which has a jump discontinuity at some point x_0 , say of size J . Then we can define a new function $g(x)$ by writing

$$f(x) = g(x) + \frac{J}{\pi} \phi(x - x_0) \quad (6.38)$$

The reader can see that we have isolated the discontinuity of $f(x)$ in the second term on the RHS of 6.38; but this means that the function $g(x)$ is *continuous* and therefore the Fourier series of $g(x)$ will have no Gibbs' phenomenon. This in turn means that the only part of $f(x)$ that needs to be expanded in a Fourier series (to understand its Gibbs' phenomenon) is the term $J\phi(x - x_0)/\pi$; but this only involves the function ϕ whose Gibbs' phenomenon we have already analysed.

We finish by showing some plots of $S_n(x)$ and $\phi(x)$ which illustrate well the Gibbs' phenomenon.

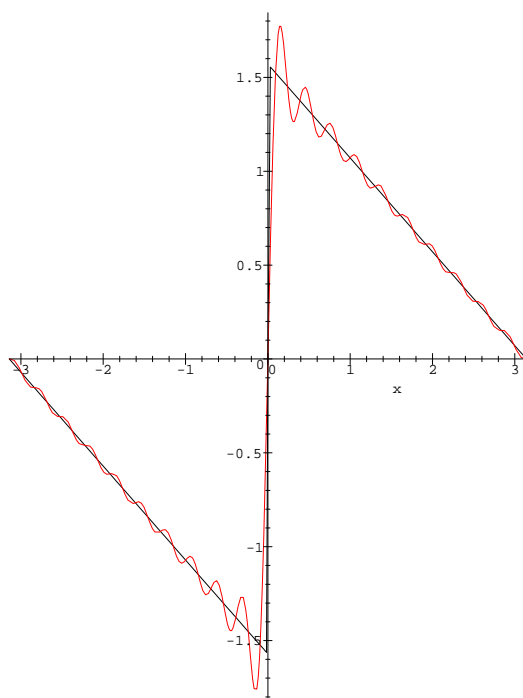


Fig. 2. The partial sum $S_{20}(x)$ and the function $\phi(x)$.

Note that already with only 20 terms of the Fourier series included the function $S_n(x)$ follows the graph of $\phi(x)$ quite well except near $x = 0$.

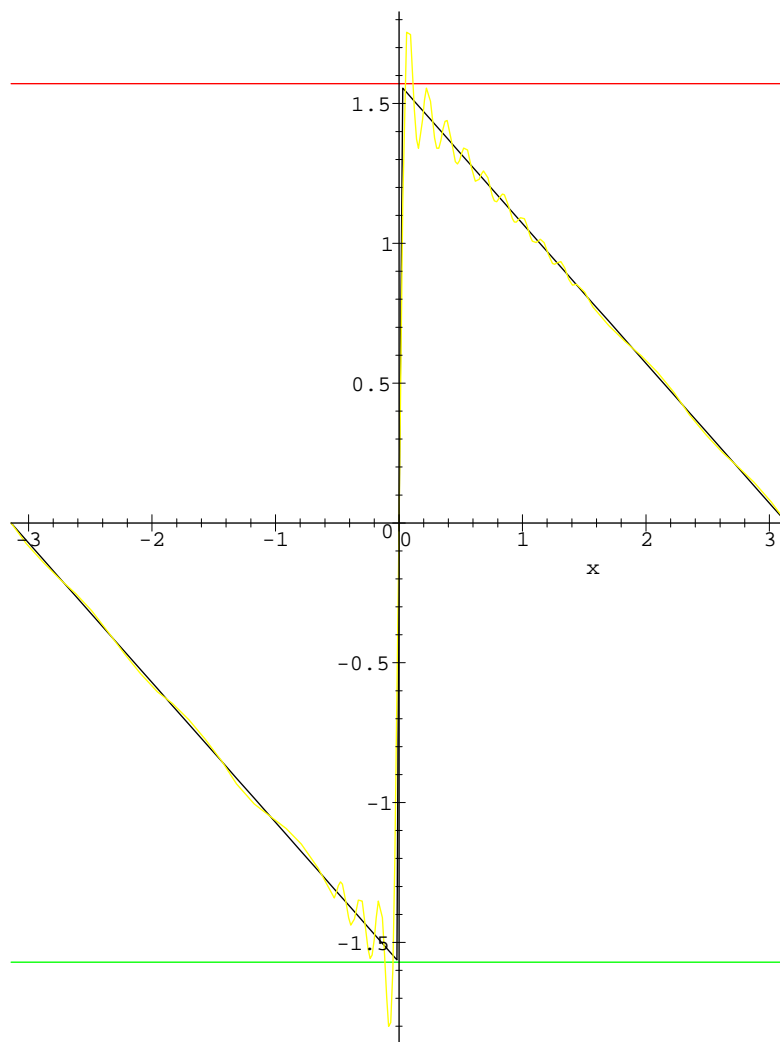


Fig. 3. The partial sum $S_{40}(x)$ and the function $\phi(x)$.

Here that we have included two horizontal lines at $x = \mp\pi/2$; this allows one to see that the Gibbs' overshooting at $x = 0$ is quite plain and is consistent in size with the value given in 6.37.

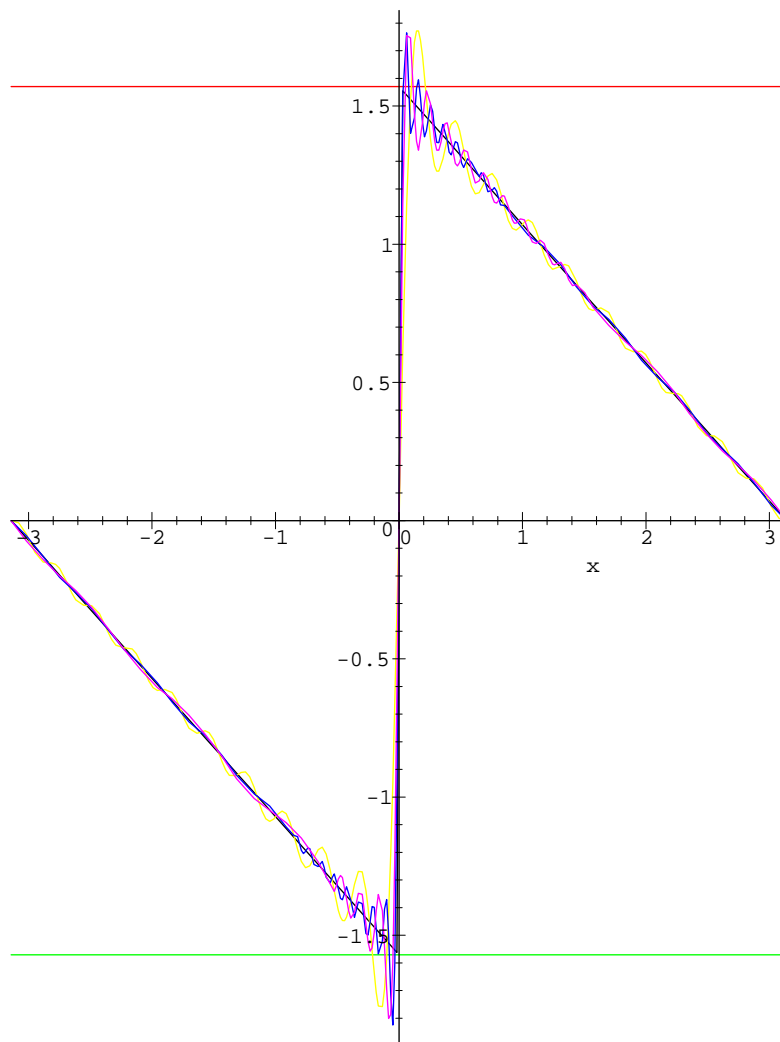


Fig. 4. The function $\phi(x)$ and the partial sums $S_{20}(x)$, $S_{40}(x)$, and $S_{60}(x)$.

In this figure we show a simultaneous plot of several partial sums together with $\phi(x)$. We can see from the graph how the accuracy with which $S_n(x)$ represents $\phi(x)$ improves as n increases; indeed it is very good when $n = 60$. We see too how the Gibbs'

phenomenon does not fade away when n increases but persists and gets bigger, tending towards the value given in 6.37.

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