

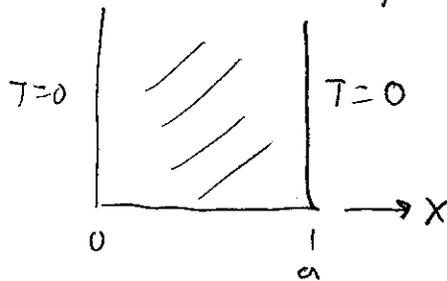
Fourier TRANSFORMS

We first encountered Fourier Series when we had a periodic

$$f(t) = \sum_n b_n \sin n\omega_0 t \quad (\omega_0 = 2\pi/T)$$

We encountered them again, just now when solving Laplace's Eq'n with a rectangular plate :

The periodic boundary condition of our example problem



led to solutions of the form $\delta(x) = \sin \frac{n\pi x}{a}$, and thus to a Fourier series.

In Fourier series, there is a "base" frequency ω_0 , and an infinite set of other higher frequencies $n\omega_0$, but not all frequencies are present.

- What if that plate was not finite in x, but extended forever?
- Or similarly, what if our oscillator is driven by an $f(t)$ that has "infinite period" (i.e., it is not periodic)

How do we deal with such situations? Since $\omega_0 = 2\pi/T$, then if $T \rightarrow \infty$, it hints that perhaps there is no "base ω_0 ", + we will need to start from $\omega = 0$, and include all ω 's.

This leads to an integral over ω , not a sum, Fourier Transforms
(See Boas 7.12)

COMPARISONS:

Fourier Series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos n\omega_0 x + b_n \sin n\omega_0 x$$

or, using $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{in\omega_0 x}$$

• Fourier's trick tells us

$$C_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(x) e^{-in\omega_0 x} dx$$

Note this sign

• Given $f(x)$, you can (thus) find

$$\{C_0, C_1, C_{-1}, C_2, C_{-2}, \dots\}$$

(This ∞ set of #'s "represents" f , and vice versa)

• n is a dummy index.

(could use any name for it)

• The C_n 's are called the "Fourier Coefficients for $f(x)$ "

Fourier Transform

→ think of letting $\omega_0 \rightarrow 0$, + this sum over discrete $n\omega_0$'s becomes an integral over continuous α 's:

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\alpha) e^{i\alpha x} d\alpha$$

Analogy to Fourier's trick gives

$$g(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\alpha x} dx$$

Note this sign

• Given $f(x)$, you can (thus) find

$$g(\alpha)$$

(This ∞ set of #'s, i.e. this function, "represents" f , and vice versa)

• α is a dummy variable.

(could use any name for it)

• $f(x)$ and $g(\alpha)$ are called "Fourier Transforms" of each other

(or, $g(\alpha)$ is the Four. Transform of f and $f(x)$ is the inverse " " of g .)

In Fourier TRANSFORMS:

So $g(\alpha)$ corresponds to C_n

← continuous function rather than discrete set

α corresponds to n
(or maybe $n\omega$)

← continuous frequencies now, rather than just integers

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ corresponds to $\sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$

← continuous integration, rather than discrete sums.

The factor $\frac{1}{2\pi}$ in front of the Fourier Transform is subtle, I didn't derive it for you. Some texts have different conventions! E.g., sometimes you see $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ in both formulas for $f(x)$ + $g(x)$.

Note: If $f(x)$ is an odd function, we get only $b_n \sin n\omega x$ terms.

With TRANSFORMS: $g(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\alpha x} dx$ Use Euler's theorem

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{odd}} \underbrace{\cos \alpha x}_{\text{even}} dx - \frac{i}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{odd}} \underbrace{\sin \alpha x}_{\text{odd}} dx$$

so replace with $2 \int_0^{\infty} \dots$

vanishes!

Pure sin integral.

Also, this $g(\alpha) = -\frac{i}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \sin \alpha x dx$ is itself an odd function (convince yourself, let $\alpha \rightarrow -\alpha$!)

$$\text{so } f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\alpha) e^{i\alpha x} d\alpha = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\alpha) [\underbrace{\cos \alpha x}_{\text{odd}} + \underbrace{i \sin \alpha x}_{\text{even}}] d\alpha = 2i \int_0^{\infty} g(\alpha) \sin \alpha x d\alpha$$

vanishes

Summarizing, for ODD functions, we get Fourier sine Transform

$$f(x) = 2i \int_0^{\infty} g(\alpha) \sin(\alpha x) d\alpha$$

and the Fourier sine transform of $f(x)$ is

$$g(\alpha) = -\frac{i}{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} f(x) \sin \alpha x dx$$

As before, there are various conventions regarding the constants.

For instance, if I define $g_s(\alpha) \equiv i\sqrt{2\pi} g(\alpha)$

← Just a simple rescaling

then (convince yourself!) $f_{\text{odd}}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} g_s(\alpha) \sin \alpha x d\alpha$

and $g_s(\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} f_{\text{odd}}(x) \sin \alpha x dx$

Looks nicer,
more symmetric,
and all real!

Similarly, if you have an EVEN function $f(x)$, you'll get

$$f_{\text{even}}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} g_c(\alpha) \cos \alpha x d\alpha$$

and $g_c(\alpha) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} f_{\text{even}}(x) \cos \alpha x dx$

Lastly, if f is a function of time $f(t)$, the story is basically the same (just swap $t \leftrightarrow x$). In this case, it's quite common to rename α back to " ω ", which seems very natural!

Summarizing that last point

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$$

← Looks a lot like Fourier series!

$$\text{where } g(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt$$

← Looks a lot like Fourier coefficients

here, $g(\omega)$ is the Fourier transform of $f(t)$

and $f(t)$ is the inverse Fourier transform of $g(\omega)$.

As mentioned, different texts have different conventions which amount to multiplying through by a convenient constant.

For instance, we can make the eq'ns look more symmetric if

$$\text{we redefine } \tilde{g}(\omega) \equiv \sqrt{2\pi} g(\omega). \quad (\text{or, } g(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \tilde{g}(\omega))$$

Plug this in at the top of the page + convince yourself that

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{g}(\omega) e^{i\omega t} d\omega$$

$$\text{where } \tilde{g}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt$$

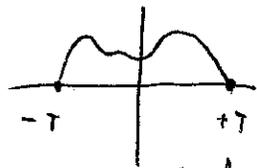
} Nice + symmetric!

24.5
PDE - ~~23~~ - OPTIONAL SIDE NOTE

Here's a crude sketch (not proof!) of the Fourier transform formulas

Recall

For Fourier series:



$$f(t) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} C_n e^{in\omega_0 t}, \quad \omega_0 = \frac{2\pi}{T}$$

see figure!

and, as usual, $C_n = \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T f(t) e^{-in\omega_0 t} dt$

As $T \rightarrow \infty$, let's define a variable $\alpha \equiv n\omega_0 = n\pi/T$

As $T \rightarrow \infty$, this α becomes continuous, + as n marches from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$, α continuously marches from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$.

C_n should now be considered $C(n)$, or better yet, $C(\alpha)$ (a function.)

Finally, note that $\Delta\alpha \equiv \alpha_{n+1} - \alpha_n = (n+1)\omega_0 - n\omega_0 = \omega_0 = \pi/T$

so, $T \frac{\Delta\alpha}{\pi} = 1$. OK, we're set, go back to the usual expressions above

$$f(t) = \sum_{\alpha=-\infty}^{\infty} C(\alpha) e^{i\alpha t} = \sum_{\alpha=-\infty}^{\infty} C(\alpha) e^{i\alpha t} \frac{\Delta\alpha T}{\pi} \quad \text{this is just 1!}$$

As $T \rightarrow \infty$, $\Delta\alpha \rightarrow d\alpha \rightarrow 0$, + this is basically

$$f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{T}{\pi} C(\alpha) e^{i\alpha t} d\alpha$$

C_n
From top
of page

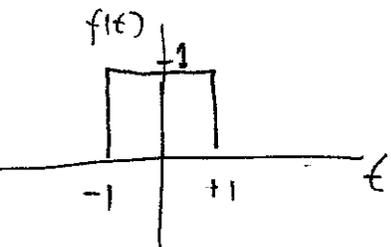
Let's define $g(\alpha) \equiv \frac{T}{\pi} C(\alpha) = \frac{T}{\pi} C_n = \frac{T}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T f(t) e^{-i\alpha t} dt$

Look at what we have: $g(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\alpha t} dt$

and, recapping, $f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\alpha) e^{+i\alpha t} d\alpha$

OUR expressions
we claimed
earlier, with
the 2π 's now
at least somewhat
justified!

Example: we initially suggested that Fourier transforms would be useful if we have a non-periodic (i.e. one-time-only) impulsive force. Let's work this out using our new Fourier transform formulas.



Let's suppose $f(t) = 1$ for $|t| < 1$
 0 for $|t| > 1$

This is not periodic, it's a single blip.

It's even, so we can use our Fourier-cosine expressions, or we can just stick with the full complex form (it's all the same). Let's do the latter,

& we'll stick with Boas's "2π" convention:

$$g(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-1}^{1} e^{-i\omega t} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{-i\omega} e^{-i\omega t} \Big|_{t=-1}^{t=+1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{-2\pi i \omega} (e^{-i\omega} - e^{+i\omega})$$

Because $f(t)$ vanishes everywhere else
 By Euler, this is $-2i \sin \omega$

$$\underline{\underline{g(\omega) = + \frac{\sin \omega}{\pi \cdot \omega}}}$$

Remember, ω is a dummy index. This function is the continuous version

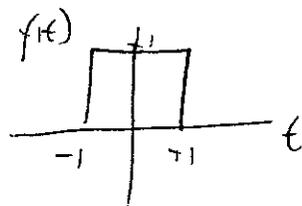
of our old C_n 's. Before, we had $f(t) = \sum_n C_n e^{in\omega t}$

now we have $f(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(\alpha) e^{i\alpha t} d\alpha$

Before, we had $C_n = \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} f(t) e^{-in\omega t} dt$

Now we have $g(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\alpha t} dt$

Continuing with this example:

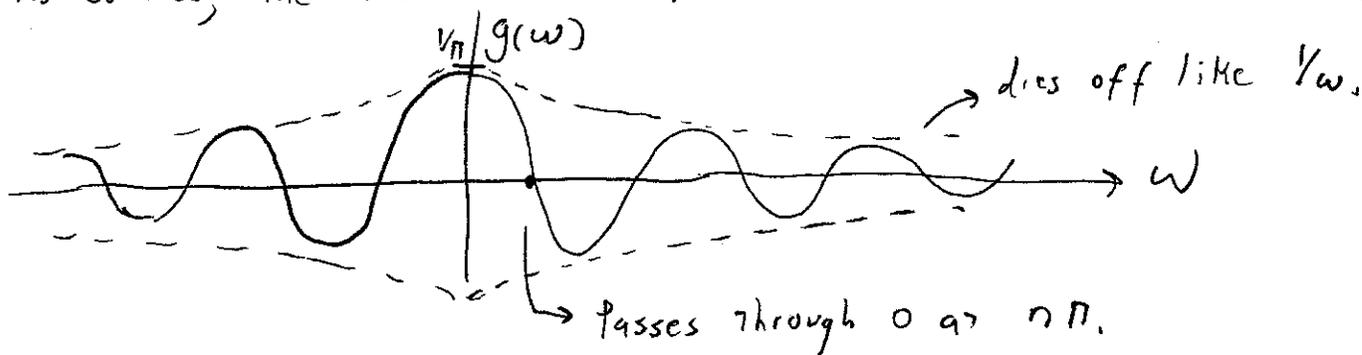


we found $g(\omega) = \frac{\sin \omega}{\pi \omega}$. Let's sketch this.

As $\omega \rightarrow 0$, need L'Hopital's rule, $g(\omega) \Big|_{\omega \rightarrow 0} = \frac{\frac{d}{d\omega} \sin \omega}{\frac{d}{d\omega} \pi \omega} \Big|_{\omega \rightarrow 0} = \frac{\cos \omega}{\pi} \Big|_{\omega \rightarrow 0} = \frac{1}{\pi}$

(That's a surprise,!))

As $\omega \rightarrow \infty$, the $1/\omega$ kills us off. So here is



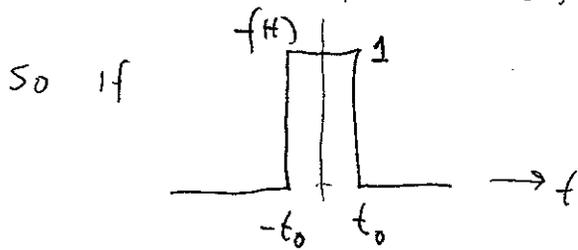
Our $f(t)$ was localized in time. But when we think of it as a sum of sinusoids $e^{i\omega t}$, with strength $g(\omega)$ i.e. $\int g(\omega) e^{i\omega t}$

we see that $g(\omega)$ is spread out, you need many ω 's (all, in fact!)

Now, $g(\omega)$ is dominated (big amplitude) for ω up to, oh, the 1st or 2nd zero, i.e. out to $\omega \sim \text{couple} \times \pi$, before it fades away.

Let's pursue this by considering an $f(t)$ that's more limited in time^o

PDE -27-



$$\begin{aligned} \text{In this case, } g(\omega) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-t_0}^{t_0} e^{-i\omega t} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi\omega} \sin \omega t_0 \end{aligned}$$

Nearly same as before, but $g(\omega)$ hits zero first when $\omega = \pi/t_0$

So if t_0 gets smaller, $g(\omega)$'s first zero gets bigger, i.e. $g(\omega)$ is getting wider.

Mathematically (or physically!) this says you need more ω 's, more "strength at higher frequency" to build up a narrower $f(t)$.

It's a very general feature of Fourier TRANSFORMS that

$$\text{width of } f(t) \propto \frac{1}{\text{width of } g(\omega)}$$

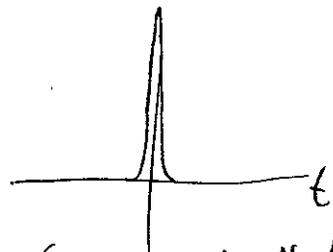
This has many consequences!

To get a signal that's a quick blip, you need many frequencies

(so e.g. short laser pulses have many "colors" involved)

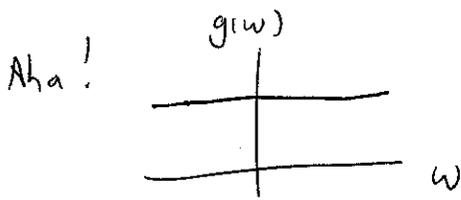
As we'll see, the Heisenberg uncertainty principle also arises from this!

Example: Consider $f(t) = f_0 \delta(t)$



This is the skinniest, most localized function of all!

Let's find $g(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_0 \delta(t) e^{-i\omega t} dt = \frac{f_0}{2\pi}$



this is a constant!

Infinitely narrow $f(t) \iff$ infinitely wide $g(\omega)$!

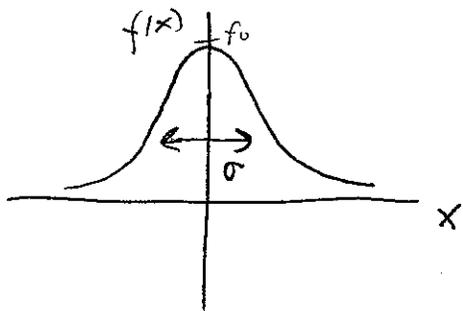
you need all frequencies (equally strong) to "build up" a δ function.

\Rightarrow Short laser pulses have no definite color (!)

Short percussive claps have no definite pitch.

Example: Consider the Gaussian function $f(x) = f_0 e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2}$

- Note I'm going back to $f(x)$, + this will reverse to $g(\alpha)$



σ is called the standard deviation, + it

directly tells you the width of this function.

you can compute $g(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-i\alpha x} dx$

This would make a nice homework problem! I'll show you some

tricks to help find the answer

$$g(\alpha) = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} f_0 e^{-\alpha^2 \sigma^2 / 2}$$

PDE - ~~28.5~~ - ~~28.5~~ - Aside -

The trick to this integral is called "completing the square".

$$\text{We have } g(\alpha) = \frac{f_0}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} - i\alpha x} dx = \frac{f_0}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\left(\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + i\alpha x\right)} dx$$

The thing is, I happen to know $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$

you can look this up, or ask me for a clever proof!



So the trick is to "complete the square" + do a u-sub. First

$$\text{Write } \left(\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + i\alpha x\right) = \left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} + \text{something}\right)^2 - \text{something}^2$$

By inspection (check for yourself!) this is

$$\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} + \frac{i\alpha\sigma}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 + \frac{\alpha^2\sigma^2}{2}$$

so letting $u = \left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} + i\frac{\alpha\sigma}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$, so $du = \frac{dx}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}$, you get $g(\alpha)$ as claimed

PDE -29-

$$\text{So } g(x) = \frac{\sigma f_0}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2 \sigma^2 / 2}$$

This is also a Gaussian. The standard deviation is $\frac{1}{\sigma}$ (!!)

So this is consistent with our pattern: narrow in $f(x) \Leftrightarrow$
wide in $g(x)$ (+vice versa)

In quantum mechanics, we will find that

$$\underbrace{\Psi(x)} \propto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \underbrace{\Phi(p)} e^{2\pi i p x / h} dp$$

The wave fn

this looks mathematically just like "g",
the fourier transform (except for some
unit sneakiness)

$\Phi(p)$ is the wave function too, in terms of momentum.

Narrow $\Psi(x)$ (well defined x) \Leftrightarrow wide $\Phi(p)$
(poorly defined momentum)

+ vice-versa, the Heisenberg Uncertainty principle!

Physics is filled with applications of Fourier transforms!

When light scatters from an object



e.g. a slit, or pair of slits, or lattice ...

The transmitted light is a sum of waves (this is Huygen's principle)

The intensity of detected light \propto |Fourier transform of $f(x)$ |²

where $f(x)$ describes the spacial distribution of scatterers / holes ...

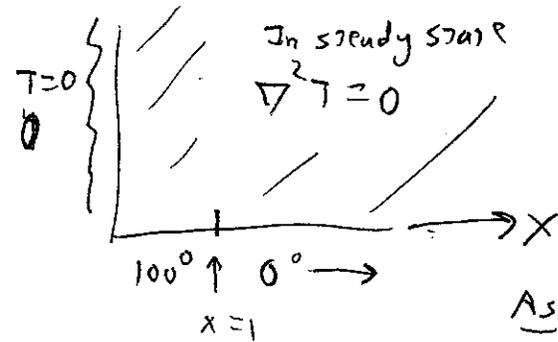
So you see the Fourier transform of the crystal lattice or slits!

(For a crystal, this requires a 2-D generalization of what we've done)

But again, a smaller hole / slit / scatterer \Rightarrow a wider pattern
(more diffraction!)

Example Back to our square plate. Let it be ∞ big now!

Let's set $T(x, y=0) = f(x) = \begin{cases} 100^\circ & 0 < x < 1 \\ 0^\circ & x > 1 \end{cases}$, all the way ...



$$T(x=0, y) = 0$$

As before, try $T(x) = \sum (x) y(y)$

As before, $\nabla^2 T = 0 \Rightarrow \sum''(x) = -k^2 \sum(x) \Rightarrow A \sin kx + B \cos kx$
 $y''(y) = +k^2 y(y) \Rightarrow C e^{ky} + D e^{-ky}$

As before, ambiguity of sign choice on k , but ~~this~~ this will work out.

As before, $T(y \rightarrow \infty) = 0 \Rightarrow C$ vanishes, no growing exponential

As before, $T(0, y) = 0 \Rightarrow B = 0$, only $\sin kx$ vanishes at $x=0$.

But now, no second B.C. in x , no period, all possible k 's are OK!

So, instead of summing over solns, we integrate over all k

$$T(x, y) = \int_0^\infty B(k) \sin kx e^{-ky} dk$$

The B.C. at $y=0$ will help, $T(x, 0) = f(x) = \int_0^\infty B(k) \sin kx dk$

This is just our Fourier sin expression, + from early (p.23)

we can read off the sol'n for $B(k)$.

PDE -32-

Letting α become "K", and using the "g_s" convention (p.23)

$$\text{If } f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} g_s(K) \sin Kx \, dK$$

$$\text{Then } g_s(K) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} f(x) \sin Kx \, dx$$

$$\text{Here, letting } B(K) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} g_s(K) \text{ we get } f(x) = \int_0^{\infty} B(K) \sin Kx \, dK,$$

+ so

$$B(K) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} g_s = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\infty} f(x) \sin Kx \, dx \quad \text{That's it! I can find } B(K) \text{ for any } f(x)$$

For the given one, I get

$$B(K) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^1 100 \sin Kx \, dx = \frac{200}{\pi} \frac{\cos Kx}{-K} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{200}{\pi K} (1 - \cos K)$$

+ thus,

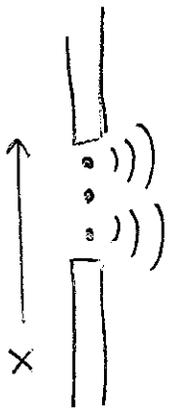
$$T(x, y) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{200}{\pi} \left(\frac{1 - \cos K}{K} \right) e^{-Ky} \sin Kx \, dK.$$

It's a 1-D integral, just compute it. If you can't do it analytically, it's a definite integral, so you can always compute it numerically for any desired x, y .

This ends our (first!) treatment of Fourier Transforms: their power is clear, Fourier series limit us to periodic functions, transforms do not!

Fourier supplement #1

Slit



Each point x is a

source of outgoing rays that superpose!

"Huygen's principle"



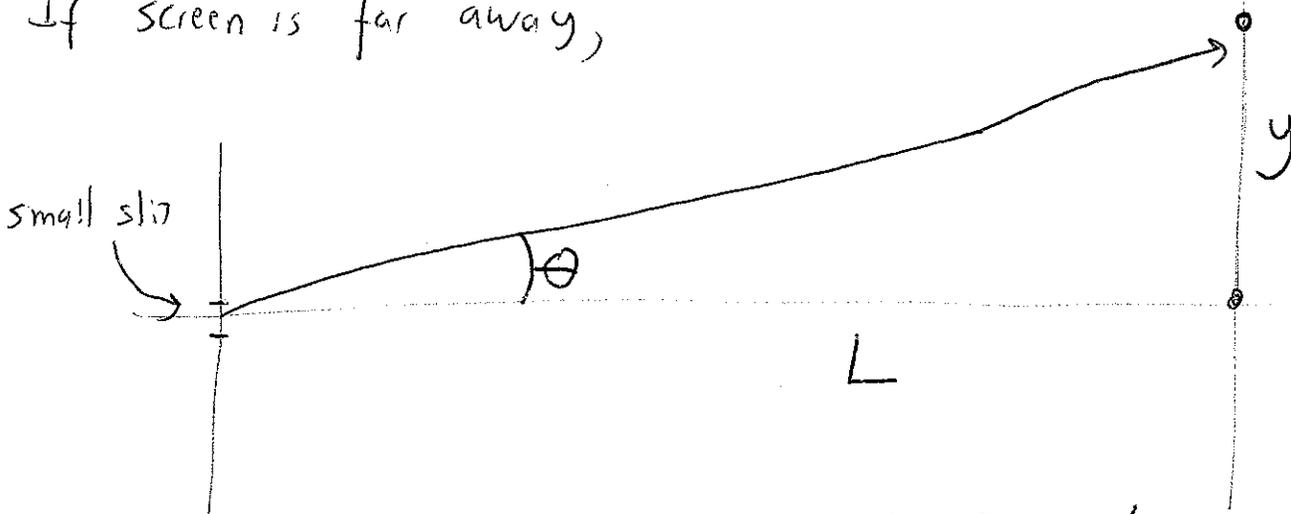
some E field pattern given by $A(x)$, the ^{"spatial"} distribution of slits

Screen, where you detect $E(y)$ (or in

fact, $|E(y)|^2 = \text{"brightness"}$)

- At a given point y , where does $E(y)$ come from? It's the superposition, the sum, of all the E 's arriving from all the different x 's.

If screen is far away,

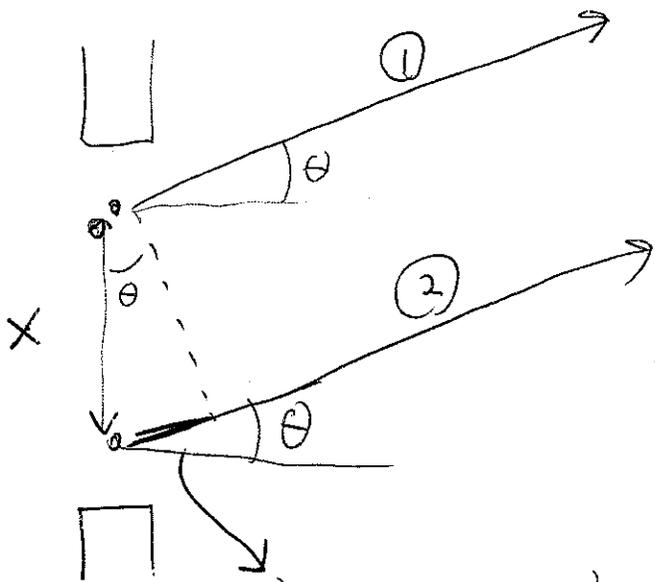


$$\text{Big distance } L \Rightarrow \theta \approx y/L$$

so y is just a measure of the ray direction θ

Fourier Supplement #2

Back to the slit, blown up.



If L is big
 These two "parallel" rays both
 reach the same point y (!)
 (parallel rays converge at ∞)

This extra path length is $x \sin \theta \approx x \theta$

It's the extra distance one ray goes compare to the other.

So the E fields of the two rays (which we add)

are $E_1 + E_2 = E_1 (1 + e^{i\delta})$

↑
 a phase shift caused by that extra
 path length

I claim $\delta = 2\pi$ for each λ ~~at~~ extra that the path length represents

so $\delta = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} * (\text{extra distance})$

$= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} x \theta$

so $E = E_1 (1 + e^{i\delta_{x_2}} + e^{i\delta_{x_3}} + e^{i\delta_{x_3}} + \dots)$

Fourier supplement #3

Thus $E(y) \propto \int dx \underbrace{A(x)}_{\substack{\text{Sum over all} \\ \text{sources}}} \cdot e^{i \delta \theta}$

The ~~spatial~~ spatial distribution of slits

$$= \int dx A(x) e^{i \frac{2\pi x \theta}{\lambda}}$$

$$= \int dx A(x) e^{i \frac{2\pi x y}{L}}$$

$$= \int dx A(x) e^{i x \left(\frac{2\pi y}{L}\right)}$$

This is thus saying that $E(y)$ at the screen is the Fourier Transform (with constants, $2\pi/L$) of $A(x)$ (and vice versa)

The pattern (image) on screen ($E(y)$)

is the F.T. of the slit pattern $A(x)$!

So e.g. narrow slits \Rightarrow wide patterns, + vice versa.