

## Lecture 2

# Introduction to Some Convergence theorems

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### 2.1 Recap

Recall that for  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , we had defined

$$\hat{f}(r) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(t) e^{-irt} dt$$

and we were trying to *reconstruct*  $f$  from  $\hat{f}$ . The classical theory tries to determine if/when the following is true (for an appropriate definition of equality).

$$f(t) \stackrel{??}{=} \sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(r) e^{irt}$$

In the last lecture, we proved Fejér's theorem  $f * k_n \rightarrow f$  where the  $*$  denotes convolution and  $k_n$  (Fejér kernels) are trigonometric polynomials that satisfy

1.  $k_n \geq 0$
2.  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} k_n = 1$
3.  $k_n(s) \rightarrow 0$  uniformly as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  outside  $[-\delta, \delta]$  for any  $\delta > 0$ .

If  $X$  is a finite abelian group, then the space of all functions  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  forms an algebra with the operations  $(+, *)$  where  $+$  is the usual pointwise sum and  $*$  is convolution. If instead of a finite abelian group, we take  $X$  to be  $\mathbb{T}$  then there is no unit in this algebra (i.e., no element  $h$  with the property that  $h * f = f$  for all  $f$ ). However the  $k_n$  behave as *approximate units* and play an important role in this theory. If we let

$$S_n(f, t) = \sum_{r=-n}^n \hat{f}(r) e^{irt}$$

Then  $S_n(f, t) = f * D_n$ , where  $D_n$  is the Dirichlet kernel that is given by

$$D_n(x) = \frac{\sin\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) s}{\sin \frac{s}{2}}$$

The Dirichlet kernel does not have all the nice properties of the the Fejér kernel. In particular,

1.  $D_n$  changes sign.
2.  $D_n$  does not converge uniformly to 0 outside arbitrarily small  $[-\delta, \delta]$  intervals.

*Remark.* The choice of an appropriate kernel can simplify applications and proofs tremendously.

## 2.2 The Classical Theory

Let  $G$  be a locally compact abelian group.

**Definition 2.1.** A character on  $G$  is a homomorphism  $\chi : G \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ . Namely a mapping satisfyin  $\chi(g_1 + g_2) = \chi(g_1)\chi(g_2)$  for all  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ .

If  $\chi_1, \chi_2$  are any two characters of  $G$ , then it is easily verified that  $\chi_1\chi_2$  is also a character of  $G$ , and so the set of characters of  $G$  forms a commutative group under multiplication. An important role is played by  $\hat{G}$ , the group of all continuous characters. For example,  $\hat{\mathbb{T}} = \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\hat{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R}$ .

For any function  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , associate with it a function  $\hat{f} : \hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  where  $\hat{f}(\chi) = \langle f, \chi \rangle$ . For example, if  $G = \mathbb{T}$  then  $\chi_r(t) = e^{irt}$  for  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then we have  $\hat{f}(\chi_r) = \hat{f}(r)$ . We call  $\hat{f} : \hat{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  the Fourier transform of  $f$ . Now  $\hat{G}$  is also a locally compact abelian group and we can play the same game backwards to construct  $\hat{\hat{f}}$ . Pontryagin's theorem asserts that  $\hat{\hat{G}} = G$  and so we can ask the question: Does  $\hat{\hat{f}} = f$ ? While in theory Fejér answered the question of when  $\hat{f}$  uniquely determines  $f$ , this question is still left unanswered.

For the general theory, we will also require a normalized nonnegative measure  $\mu$  on  $G$  that is translation invariant:  $\mu(S) = \mu(a + S) = \mu(\{a + s \mid s \in S\})$  for every  $S \subseteq G$  and  $a \in G$ . There exists a unique such measure which is called the Haar measure.

## 2.3 $L_p$ spaces

**Definition 2.2.** If  $(X, \Omega, \mu)$  is a measure space, then  $L_p(X, \Omega, \mu)$  is the space of all measurable functions  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\|f\|_p = \left[ \int_X |f|^p \cdot d\mu \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty$$

For example, if  $X = \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\Omega$  is the set of all finite subsets of  $X$ , and  $\mu$  is the counting measure, then  $\|(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots)\|_p = (\sum |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ . For  $p = \infty$ , we define

$$\|x\|_\infty = \sup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} |x_i|$$

*Symmetrization* is a technique that we will find useful. Loosely, the idea is that we are averaging over all the group elements.

Given a function  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , we symmetrize it by defining  $g : G \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  as follows.

$$g(x) = \int_G f(x + a) d\mu(a)$$

We will use this concept in the proof of the following result.

**Proposition 2.1.** *If  $G$  is a locally compact abelian group, with a normalized Haar measure  $\mu$ , and if  $\chi_1, \chi_2 \in \hat{G}$  are two distinct characters then  $\langle \chi_1, \chi_2 \rangle = 0$ . i.e.,*

$$I = \int_X \chi_1(x) \overline{\chi_2(x)} d\mu(x) = \delta_{\chi_1, \chi_2} = \begin{cases} 0 & \chi_1 \neq \chi_2 \\ 1 & \chi_1 = \chi_2 \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* For any fixed  $a \in G$ ,  $I = \int_X \chi_1(x) \overline{\chi_2(x)} d\mu(x) = \int_X \chi_1(x+a) \overline{\chi_2(x+a)} d\mu(x)$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_X \chi_1(x+a) \overline{\chi_2(x+a)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \int_X \chi_1(x) \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(x) \chi_2(a)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(a)} \int_X \chi_1(x) \overline{\chi_2(x)} d\mu(x) \\ &= \chi_1(a) \overline{\chi_2(a)} I \end{aligned}$$

This can only be true if either  $I = 0$  or  $\chi_1(a) = \chi_2(a)$ . If  $\chi_1 \neq \chi_2$ , then there is at least one  $a$  such that  $\chi_1(a) \neq \chi_2(a)$ . It follows that either  $\chi_1 = \chi_2$  or  $I = 0$ .  $\square$

By letting  $\chi_2$  be the character that is identically 1, we conclude that  $\chi \in \hat{G}$  with  $\chi \neq 1$  for any  $\int_G \chi(x) d\mu(x) = 0$ .

## 2.4 Approximation Theory

Weierstrass's theorem states that the polynomials are dense in  $L_\infty[a, b] \cap C[a, b]$ <sup>1</sup> Fejér's theorem is about approximating functions using trigonometric polynomials.

**Proposition 2.2.**  *$\cos nx$  can be expressed as a degree  $n$  polynomial in  $\cos x$ .*

*Proof.* Use the identity  $\cos(u+v) + \cos(u-v) = 2 \cos u \cos v$  and induction on  $n$ .  $\square$

The polynomial  $T_n(x)$  where  $T_n(\cos x) = \cos(nx)$  is called  $n^{\text{th}}$  Chebyshev's polynomial. It can be seen that  $T_0(s) = 1$ ,  $T_1(s) = s$ ,  $T_2(s) = 2s^2 - 1$  and in general  $T_n(s) = 2^{n-1}s^n$  plus some lower order terms.

**Theorem 2.3 (Chebyshev).** *The normalized degree  $n$  polynomial  $p(x) = x^n + \dots$  that approximates the function  $f(x) = 0$  (on  $[-1, 1]$ ) as well as possible in the  $L_\infty[-1, 1]$  norm sense is given by  $\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}T_n(x)$ . i.e.,*

$$\min_{p \text{ a normalized polynomial}} \max_{-1 \leq x \leq 1} |p(x)| = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$$

This theorem can be proved using linear programming.

<sup>1</sup> This notation is intended to imply that the norm on this space is the sup-norm (clearly  $C[a, b] \subseteq L_\infty[a, b]$ )

### 2.4.1 Moment Problems

Suppose that  $X$  is a random variable. The simplest information about  $X$  are its moments. These are expressions of the form  $\mu_r = \int f(x)x^r dx$ , where  $f$  is the probability distribution function of  $X$ . A *moment problem* asks: Suppose I know all (or some of) the moments  $\{\mu_r\}_{r \in \mathbb{N}}$ . Do I know the distribution of  $X$ ?

**Theorem 2.4 (Hausdorff Moment Theorem).** *If  $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are two continuous functions and if for all  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , we have*

$$\int_a^b f(x)x^r dx = \int_a^b g(x)x^r dx$$

*then  $f = g$ . Equivalently, if  $h : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function with  $\int_a^b h(x)x^r dx = 0$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $h \equiv 0$ .*

*Proof.* By Weierstrass's theorem, we know that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a polynomial  $P$  such that  $\|\bar{h} - P\|_\infty < \epsilon$ . If  $\int_a^b h(x)x^r dx = 0$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{N}$ , then it follows that  $\int_a^b h(x)Q(x) dx = 0$  for every polynomial  $Q(x)$ , and so in particular,  $\int_a^b h(x)P(x) dx$ . Therefore,

$$0 = \int_a^b h(x)P(x) dx = \int_a^b h(x)\overline{h(x)} dx + \int_a^b h(x) \left( P(x) - \overline{h(x)} \right) dx$$

Therefore,

$$\langle h, \bar{h} \rangle = - \int_a^b h(x) \left( P(x) - \overline{h(x)} \right) dx$$

Since  $h$  is continuous, it is bounded on  $[a, b]$  by some constant  $c$  and so on  $[a, b]$  we have  $\left| h(x) \left( P(x) - \overline{h(x)} \right) \right| \leq c \cdot \epsilon \cdot |b - a|$ . Therefore, for any  $\delta > 0$  we can pick  $\epsilon > 0$  so that so that  $\|h\|_2^2 \leq \delta$ . Hence  $h \equiv 0$ .  $\square$

### 2.4.2 A little Ergodic Theory

**Theorem 2.5.** *Let  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous and  $\gamma$  be irrational. Then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{r=1}^n f(e^{2\pi i r}) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(t) dt$$

*Proof.* We show that this result holds when  $f(t) = e^{ist}$ . Using Fejér's theorem, it will follow that the result holds for any continuous function. Now, clearly  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{ist} dt = 0$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{r=1}^n e^{2\pi i r s \gamma} - \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{T}} e^{ist} dt \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{n} \sum_{r=1}^n e^{2\pi i r s \gamma} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1}{n} e^{2\pi i s \gamma} \right| \left| \frac{1 - e^{2\pi i n s \gamma}}{1 - e^{2\pi i s \gamma}} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{2}{n \cdot (1 - e^{2\pi i s \gamma})} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\gamma$  is irrational,  $1 - e^{2\pi i s \gamma}$  is bounded away from 0. Therefore, this quantity goes to zero, and hence the result follows.  $\square$



Figure 2.1: Probability of Property v. p

This result has applications in the evaluations of integrals, volume of convex bodies. It is also used in the proof of the following result.

**Theorem 2.6 (Weyl).** *Let  $\gamma$  be an irrational number. For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we denote by  $\langle x \rangle = x - [x]$  the fractional part of  $x$ . For any  $0 < a < b < 1$ , we have*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|\{1 \leq r \leq n : a \leq \langle r\gamma \rangle < b\}|}{n} = b - a$$

*Proof.* We would like to use Theorem 2.5 with the function  $f = 1_{[a,b]}$ . However, this function is not continuous. To get around this, we define functions  $f^+ \geq 1_{[a,b]} \geq f^-$  as shown in the following diagram.

$f^+$  and  $f^-$  are continuous functions approximating  $f$ . We let them approach  $f$  and pass to the limit. □

This is related to a more general ergodic theorem by Birkhoff.

**Theorem 2.7 (Birkhoff, 1931).** *Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, p)$  be a probability measure and  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  be a measure preserving transformation. Let  $X \in L_1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, p)$  be a random variable. Then*

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X \circ T^k \rightarrow E[X; \mathcal{I}]$$

Where  $\mathcal{I}$  is the  $\sigma$ -field of  $T$ -invariant sets.

## 2.5 Some Convergence Theorems

We seek conditions under which  $S_n(f, t) \rightarrow f(t)$  (preferably uniformly). Some history:

- DuBois Raymond gave an example of a continuous function such that  $\limsup S_n(f, 0) = \infty$ .
- Kolmogorov [1] found a Lebesgue measurable function  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $t$ ,  $\limsup S_n(f, t) = \infty$ .

- Carleson [2] showed that if  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a continuous function (even Riemann integrable), then  $S_n(f, t) \rightarrow f(t)$  almost everywhere.
- Kahane and Katznelson [3] showed that for every  $E \subseteq \mathbb{T}$  with  $\mu(E) = 0$ , there exists a continuous function  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  such that  $S_n(f, t) \not\rightarrow f(t)$  if and only if  $t \in E$ .

**Definition 2.3.**  $\ell_p = L_p(\mathbb{N}, \text{Finite sets, counting measure}) = \{\mathbf{x} | (x_0, \dots)^p < \infty\}$ .

**Theorem 2.8.** Let  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be continuous and suppose that  $\sum_{r \in \mathbb{Z}} |\hat{f}(r)| < \infty$  (so  $\hat{f} \in \ell_1$ ). Then  $S_n(f, t) \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{T}$ .

*Proof.* See lecture 3, theorem 3.1. □

## 2.6 The $L_2$ theory

The fact that  $e(t) = e^{ist}$  is an orthonormal family of functions allows to develop a very satisfactory theory. Given a function  $f$ , the best coefficients  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  so that  $\|f - \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j e_j\|_2$  is minimized is given by  $\lambda_j = \langle f, e_j \rangle$ . This answer applies just as well in any inner product normed space (Hilbert space) whenever  $\{e_j\}$  forms an orthonormal system.

**Theorem 2.9 (Bessel's Inequality).** For every  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ ,

$$\left\| f - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\|^2 \geq \|f\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle^2$$

with equality when  $\lambda_i = \langle f, e_i \rangle$

*Proof.* We offer a proof here for the real case, in the next lecture the complex case will be done as well.

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| f - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\|^2 &= \left\| \left( f - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i \right) + \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right) \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| f - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i \right\|^2 + \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\|^2 + \text{cross terms} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{cross terms} = 2 \left\langle f - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i, \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\rangle$$

Observe that the terms in the cross terms are orthogonal to one another since  $\forall i \langle f - \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i, e_i \rangle = 0$ . We write

$$2 \sum \langle f, e_i \rangle \left\langle f - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle f, e_j \rangle e_j, e_i \right\rangle - \sum_i \lambda_i \left\langle f - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle f, e_j \rangle e_j, e_i \right\rangle$$

Observe that each inner product term is 0. Since if  $i = j$ , then we apply  $\forall i \langle f - \langle f, e_i \rangle e_i, e_i \rangle = 0$ . If  $i \neq j$ , then they are orthogonal basis vectors.

We want to make this as small as possible and have only control over the  $\lambda_i$ s. Since this term is squared and therefore non-negative, the sum is minimized when we set  $\forall i \lambda_i = \langle f, e_i \rangle$ . With this choice,

$$\begin{aligned} \left\| f - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\|^2 &= \left\langle f - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i, f - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i e_i \right\rangle \\ &= \langle f, f \rangle - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \langle f, e_i \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2 \\ &= \|f\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \langle f, e_i \rangle^2 \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality is obtained by setting  $\lambda_i = \langle f, e_i \rangle$ . □

## References

- [1] A. N. Kolmogorov, *Une série de Fourier-Lebesgue divergente partout*, CRAS Paris, 183, pp. 1327-1328, 1926.
- [2] L. Carleson, *Convergence and growth of partial sums of Fourier series*, Acta Math. 116, pp. 135-157, 1964.
- [3] J-P Kahane and Y. Katznelson, *Sur les ensembles de divergence des séries trigonométriques*, Studia Mathematica, 26 pp. 305-306, 1966