

## Math 454/554 Notes 9/28

Damage Control: Contrary to what was stated towards the end of class last time, the functions  $\cos\left(\frac{\pi nx}{c}\right)$  and  $\sin\left(\frac{\pi nx}{c}\right)$  are not always orthogonal on  $[0, c]$ . For example,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\pi \sin(2x) \cos(2x) dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\pi \sin(4x) dx \\ &= \left. \left( \frac{\cos(4x)}{4} \right) \right|_0^\pi \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

but

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\pi \sin(2x) \cos(x) dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\pi \sin(3x) + \sin(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{-\cos(3x)}{3} - \cos(x) \right) \Big|_0^\pi \\ &= \frac{4}{3}\end{aligned}$$

In fact, the set  $\{\phi_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$  is a complete orthonormal set on  $[0, c]$ . We will prove this in a circuitous fashion. First, we expand our scope to the interval  $[-c, c]$  and observe that the system  $\{\Phi_n\}_{n=0}^\infty \cup \{\Gamma_m\}_{m=1}^\infty$  defined on  $[-c, c]$  by

$$\Phi_0(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2c}}$$

$$\Phi_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c}} \cos\left(\frac{\pi nx}{c}\right), \quad n \geq 1$$

$$\Gamma_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi mx}{c}\right)$$

is indeed orthonormal. Calculations similar to what we obtained in the  $[0, c]$  case show that  $\{\Phi_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$  and  $\{\Gamma_m\}_{m=1}^\infty$  are each orthonormal sets, and this time, your homework WILL show that

$$\int_{-c}^c \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{c}\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{c}\right) dx = 0.$$

for all natural numbers  $m$  and all nonnegative integers  $n$ . We then arrive at a definition.

**Definition:** The *Fourier Series* of a continuous function  $f$  on the interval  $[-c, c]$  is the series

$$a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \Phi_n + b_n \Gamma_n)$$

where  $a_n = \langle f, \Phi_n \rangle$  and  $b_n = \langle f, \Gamma_n \rangle$  and the convergence is in mean.

Written another way, this is

$$\frac{A_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( A_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n x}{c}\right) + B_n \sin\left(\frac{\pi n x}{c}\right) \right)$$

where  $A_0 = 2a_0$  and  $A_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c}}a_n$ ,  $B_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{c}}b_n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We shall then employ the following theorem to show that the Fourier orthonormal system is complete on  $[-c, c]$ .

**Completeness Theorem:** Let  $\{\psi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be an orthonormal sequence in  $C([a, b])$ . The following are equivalent:

- For every  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$  and all  $f \in C([a, b])$ , there exists a  $g$  in the linear span of the  $\psi_n$ 's with

$$\|f - g\|_2 < \varepsilon_0.$$

- $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \langle f, \psi_n \rangle^2 = \|f\|_2^2$  for all  $f \in C([a, b])$ .

Some comments before the proof.

1. The second equivalence is called *Parseval's Formula*.
2. A function  $g$  is in the linear span of the  $\psi_n$ 's if there are nonnegative integers  $n_0, \dots, n_k$  and scalars  $\alpha_i$  for  $0 \leq i \leq k$  with

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k \alpha_i \psi_{n_i}(x).$$

Note that the sum is finite and that, as a matter of definition,  $\alpha_i = \langle g, \psi_{n_i} \rangle$ .

3. The difficulty is that it is not *a priori* the case that we can choose  $\alpha_i = \langle f, \psi_{n_i} \rangle!$

We shall now prove the easy direction of the theorem. The harder direction is beyond the scope of this course.

PROOF: Suppose Parseval's Formula is satisfied for all  $f \in C([a, b])$ . Then given such an  $f$  and  $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\|f\|_2^2 - \sum_{n=0}^N \langle f, \psi_n \rangle^2 < \varepsilon_0^2.$$

Set  $g = \sum_{n=0}^N \langle f, \psi_n \rangle \psi_n$ . Recall from the proof of Bessel's Inequality that

$$\|f - g\|_2^2 = \|f\|_2^2 - \|g\|_2^2 = \|f\|_2^2 - \sum_{n=0}^N \langle f, \psi_n \rangle^2 < \varepsilon_0^2.$$

By taking square roots of both sides, we then arrive at

$$\|f - g\|_2 < \varepsilon_0.$$

This ends the proof of the easy direction.

Now we shall show how the first equivalence in the theorem is satisfied for all  $f \in C([-c, c])$ . In fact, we will do better and show the following:

**Theorem:** For every  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $f \in C([-c, c])$ , there is a  $g$  in the linear span of the the Fourier system with

$$\|f - g\|_\infty < \varepsilon.$$

We call such a  $g$  a *trigonometric polynomial*. The proof is appropriated from Rudin's *Real and Complex Analysis* and is, like most results in that text, pure magic.

PROOF: Define

$$Q_k(x) = c_k \left( \frac{1 + \cos(\frac{\pi x}{c})}{2} \right)^k$$

where  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and

$$c_k = \frac{2c}{\int_{-c}^c \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k dx}.$$

In your homework, you will show that  $\left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k$  is a trig polynomial. Now by definition,  $\frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c Q_k(x) dx = 1$ , as the constant  $c_k$  is chosen precisely to make this true. Since  $-1 \leq \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)$ , we have that  $Q_k(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x \in [-c, c]$ . Note also  $\cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)$  is an even function, and so  $Q_k(x)$  is even for all  $k \geq 1$ . Hence,

$$1 = \frac{c_k}{2c} \int_{-c}^c \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k dx = \frac{c_k}{c} \int_0^c \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k dx$$

Using the fact that  $1 \geq \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)$ ,

$$1 = \frac{c_k}{c} \int_0^c \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k dx \geq \frac{c_k}{c} \int_0^c \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right) dx.$$

By using the substitution  $u = \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)}{2}$ , we may evaluate this last integral as

$$\frac{2c_k}{\pi} \int_0^1 u^k dx = \frac{2c_k}{\pi} \left( \frac{u^{k+1}}{k+1} \right) \Big|_0^1 = \frac{2c_k}{\pi(k+1)},$$

and so  $1 \geq \frac{2c_k}{\pi(k+1)}$ , which implies

$$1 \leq \frac{\pi(k+1)}{2c_k} \tag{1}$$

Note the derivative of  $Q_k$  is

$$Q'_k(x) = -\frac{\pi k}{c} \frac{Q_{k-1}(x)}{c_{k-1}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)$$

and both  $Q_{k-1}$  and  $\sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{c}\right)$  are positive on  $[0, c]$ . Therefore,  $Q'_k \leq 0$  on  $[0, c]$ , and so  $Q_k$  is decreasing on  $[0, c]$ .

Since  $Q_k$  is decreasing on  $[0, c]$ , then if  $\delta \leq x \leq c$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_k(x) &\leq Q_k(\delta) = c_k \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k \\ &\leq \frac{\pi(k+1)}{2c_k} \cdot c_k \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k \\ &= \frac{\pi(k+1)}{2} \left( \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right)}{2} \right)^k. \end{aligned}$$

As  $\delta > 0$ , we have that  $\cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right) < 1$ , and so  $\frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right)}{2} < 1$ . Therefore, regardless of the value of  $\delta$ , if we set  $a = \frac{1 + \cos\left(\frac{\pi\delta}{c}\right)}{2}$ , we have for all  $\delta < x \leq c$ ,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Q_k(x) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Q_k(\delta) = \frac{\pi}{2} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(k+1)}{a^{-k}} = \frac{\pi}{2} \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{-\ln(a)a^{-k}} = 0 \quad (2)$$

by l'Hopital's rule. The fact that  $Q_k$  is even for all  $k$  implies that this result extends to show that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Q_k(-x) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Q_k(\delta) = 0$$

for all  $0 < \delta \leq x \leq c$ .

Unfortunately, the  $Q_k$ 's are not quite good enough to prove what we want since they have no obvious relationship to our given function  $f \in C([-c, c])$ . For the moment, extend  $f$  to all real numbers by setting  $h(x + 2nc) = f(x)$  for all integers  $n$  and  $x \in [-c, c)$ . This new function may have no resemblance to the original  $f$  outside the interval  $[-c, c)$ , but since we only care about the behavior of  $f$  inside the interval, this is justified. We further define, for all real numbers  $x$ ,

$$g_k(x) = \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c h(x-y)Q_k(y) dy.$$

for  $k \geq 1$ . Then by substituting  $u = x - y$ ,

$$g_k(x) = \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c h(x-y)Q_k(y) dy = -\frac{1}{2c} \int_{x+c}^{x-c} h(u)Q_k(x-u) du.$$

Now the integrand is a  $2c$  periodic function over an interval of length  $2c$ , and so it follows that

$$\int_{x+c}^{x-c} h(u)Q_k(x-u) du = \int_c^{-c} h(u)Q_k(x-u) du = - \int_{-c}^c h(u)Q_k(x-u) du.$$

Hence,

$$g_k(x) = -\frac{1}{2c} \int_{x+c}^{x-c} h(u)Q_k(x-u) du = \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c h(u)Q_k(x-u) du = \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c f(u)Q_k(x-u) du$$

by the definition of  $h$ .

Recall that the  $Q_k$ 's are trig polynomials, so for each  $k$ , there are non-negative integers  $n_{0,k}, \dots, n_{j_k,k}$  and scalars  $\alpha_{0,k}, \dots, \alpha_{j_k,k}$  and  $\beta_{1,k}, \dots, \beta_{j_k,k}$  satisfying

$$Q_k(x) = \alpha_{0,k} + \sum_{i=1}^{j_k} \left( \alpha_{i,k} \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) + \beta_{i,k} \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \right).$$

We may assume the same index set for both  $\beta$ 's and  $\alpha$ 's by a judicious use of zeros in the coefficients. Then

$$\begin{aligned} g_k(x) &= \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c f(u)Q_k(x-u) du \\ &= \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c f(u) \alpha_{0,k} + f(u) \sum_{i=1}^{j_k} \left( \alpha_{i,k} \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}(x-u)}{c}\right) + \beta_{i,k} \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}(x-u)}{c}\right) \right) du \\ &= \frac{1}{2c} \int_{-c}^c f(u) \alpha_{0,k} du \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2c} \sum_{i=1}^{j_k} \int_{-c}^c \left( \alpha_{i,k} \left( \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) \right) \right) du \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2c} \sum_{i=1}^{j_k} \int_{-c}^c \beta_{i,k} \left( \left( \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) \right) \right) du \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the identities  $\cos(A-B) = \cos(A)\cos(B) + \sin(A)\sin(B)$  and  $\sin(A-B) = \sin(A)\cos(B) - \cos(A)\sin(B)$ . Rewriting a single integral,

$$\int_{-c}^c \alpha_{i,k} \left( \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}x}{c}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k}u}{c}\right) \right) du$$

$$= \alpha_{i,k} \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k} x}{c}\right) \left(\int_{-c}^c \cos\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k} u}{c}\right) du\right) + \alpha_{i,k} \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k} x}{c}\right) \left(\int_{-c}^c \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_{i,k} u}{c}\right) du\right).$$

Since each integral with respect to  $u$  is just another constant, this shows that any individual integral in the first sum can be written as a trig polynomial, and a similar tedious calculation will show the same for the second sum. We conclude that  $g_k$  is a trig polynomial.