## 5B1466, Fourier Analysis, KTH spring 2006.

## Brief notes from Lecture 5.

Hilbert spaces. An inner product space (Lecture 4) which is complete is called a Hilbert space.

Completeness means that the space contains all its limit points. Think of the rational numbers, which, when adding all their (finite) limits, yield the real numbers. In our case we could include all limits of continuous functions in the norm $\|f\|_{2}$, where $\|f\|_{2}^{2}=(f, f)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}|f(\theta)|^{2} d \theta$. The space obtained is denoted $L^{2}(-\pi, \pi)$, all square integrable functions on the interval $(-\pi, \pi)$.

We shall need the following variant of Parseval's formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(f, g)=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) \overline{\hat{g}(n)} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is a consequence of the identity

$$
(u, v)=\frac{1}{4}\left(\|u+v\|^{2}-\|u-v\|^{2}+i\left(\|u+i v\|^{2}-\|u-i v\|^{2}\right)\right),
$$

which is valid for any complex inner product.
The isoperimetric inequality. This first application of Fourier series relates the length of a curve $C$ in the plane to the area of the domain $D$ inscribed. The proof goes back to Hurwitz 1901.

We have

$$
l=\text { length of } C=\int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{\dot{x}(t)^{2}+\dot{y}(t)^{2}} d t=\int_{a}^{b}|\dot{r}(t)| d t .
$$

Here $\mathbf{r}(t)=(x(t), y(t)), a \leq t \leq b$, is a parametrisation of the $C^{1}$, say, curve. The length $l$ is independent of the parametrisation. In particular, we may choose the arc-length $s$ as parameter. Then $|\dot{r}(s)|=1$ for $0 \leq s \leq l$.

Assume now that $C$ is closed: $\mathbf{r}(0)=\mathbf{r}(l)$, and simple: the curve never intersects itself. Then the area of $D$ is by definition

$$
A=\text { area of } D=\frac{1}{2}\left|\int_{C} x d y-y d x\right|=\frac{1}{2}\left|\int_{0}^{l}(x(s) \dot{y}(s)-\dot{x}(s) y(s)) d s\right| .
$$

We shall prove that

$$
A \leq \frac{l^{2}}{4 \pi} \quad \text { with equality only if } C \text { is a circle. }
$$

Rescaling, we may assume that $l=2 \pi$. Then we have to show that $A \leq \pi$ with equality only if $C$ is a circle. Consider the Fourier series for $x$ and $y$ :

$$
x(s) \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_{n} e^{i n s}, \quad y(s) \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} b_{n} e^{i n s} .
$$

Then

$$
\dot{x}(s) \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} i n a_{n} e^{i n s}, \quad \dot{y}(s) \sim \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} i n b_{n} e^{i n s} .
$$

By Parseval's formula

$$
\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}|n|^{2}\left(\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\left(|\dot{x}(s)|^{2}+|\dot{y}(s)|^{2}\right) d s=1,
$$

since $|\dot{x}(s)|^{2}+|\dot{y}(s)|^{2}=|\mathbf{r}(s)|^{2}=1$ everywhere. By the general form of Parseval's formula (1) we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =\pi\left|\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left(a_{n} \overline{\overline{i n b_{n}}}-i n a_{n} \overline{b_{n}}\right)\right|=\pi\left|\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left(-2 i n a_{n} \overline{b_{n}}\right)\right| \\
& \leq \pi \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}|n|\left(\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}\right) \leq \pi \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}|n|^{2}\left(\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}\right)=\pi,
\end{aligned}
$$

using the elementary inequality $2\left|a_{n} b_{n}\right| \leq\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}$. Thus $A \leq \pi$. It remains to analyse when equality holds. If equality holds then this is the case in the last inequality: $\pi \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}|n|\left(\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}\right) \leq \pi \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty}|n|^{2}\left(\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}\right)$. Since $|n|<|n|^{2}$ if $|n|>1$, we must have $a_{n}=b_{n}=0$ for $|n|>1$. Thus

$$
x(s)=a_{-1} e^{-i s}+a_{0}+a_{1} e^{i s} \quad \text { and } \quad y(s)=b_{-1} e^{-i s}+b_{0}+b_{1} e^{i s} .
$$

Since $x$ and $y$ are real-valued, $a_{-1}=\bar{a}_{1}$ and $b_{-1}=\bar{b}_{1}$ must hold. Furthermore, $a_{0}$ and $b_{0}$ are both real. We also know that $2\left(\left|a_{1}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{1}\right|\right)^{2}=1$, and $\left|a_{1}\right|=\left|b_{1}\right|$ (from equality in $2\left|a_{n} b_{n}\right| \leq\left|a_{n}\right|^{2}+\left|b_{n}\right|^{2}$ ). Some further manipulation leads to $x(s)-a_{0}=\cos (\alpha+s)$ and $y(s)-b_{0}= \pm \sin (\alpha+s)$. Then $\left(x(s)-a_{0}\right)^{2}+$ $\left(y(s)-b_{0}\right)^{2}=1$, proving the claim.

Weyl's equidistribution theorem. A sequence $\left(\xi_{n}\right)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ of numbers in the interval $[0,1)$ is equidistributed if for every $0 \leq a \leq b<1$, the number $N_{n}(a, b)$ of points $\xi_{k} \in[a, b]$, for $k \leq n$ satisfies

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N_{n}(a, b)}{n}=b-a .
$$

Suppose we fix a number $\gamma \in[0,1)$ and look at the sequence $\gamma_{n}=n \gamma(\bmod 1)$ ( $n=1,2, \ldots$ ), i.e. we only consider the part of $n \gamma$ that falls into our interval. For instance, if $\gamma=2 / 7$, the sequence becomes
$(2 / 7,4 / 7,6 / 7,1 / 7,3 / 7,5 / 7,0,2 / 7,4 / 7,6 / 7, \ldots)$.
This periodic behaviour occurs if and only if $\gamma$ is a rational number. One could think of the $\gamma_{n}$ as coming from a probability distribution on the points $0,1 / 7,2 / 7, \ldots .6 / 7$, with equal probability $1 / 7$ for each point. If $\delta_{a}$ denotes a point mass at the point a, then the invariant measure is $\frac{1}{7} \sum_{k=0}^{6} \delta_{k / 7}$, the equidistribution on the points $0,1 / 7,2 / 7, \ldots .6 / 7$.

Suppose now that $\gamma$ is irrational. We may form the probability distributions $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \delta_{\gamma_{k}}$. Weyl's equidistribution theorem says that this sequence converge to the 'length', or rectangular distribution, on $[0,1)$, the invariant probability measure.
Theorem. For any rational $\gamma$, the sequence $\left(\gamma_{n}\right)_{1}^{\infty}$ is equidistributed in $[0,1)$. Proof. If $\phi$ is a function on $[0,1)$, we denote by $M_{n}(\phi)$ the mean-value

$$
M_{n}(\phi):=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi\left(\gamma_{j}\right) .
$$

We must show that for any interval $[a, b] \subset[0,1)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} M_{n}(\phi)=\int_{0}^{1} \phi(t) d t \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $\phi=1_{[a, b]}$, the indicator function of $[a, b]$, which is 1 on $[a, b]$ and 0 otherwise. One can easily see that the indicator function $\phi$ can be approximated arbitrarily well by continuous functions: given $\varepsilon>0$, there are continuous functions $\phi_{ \pm}$such that $\phi_{-} \leq \phi \leq \phi_{+}$and $\int_{0}^{1}\left|\phi_{ \pm}-\phi\right| d t<\varepsilon$. Hence it is sufficient to show (2) when $\phi$ is a continuous function on $[0,1]$. We may view $\phi$ as a 1-periodic function. We know that the Cesàro means $\sigma_{N}(\phi)=F_{N} * \phi$ tends to $\phi$ uniformly, i.e. $\max _{0 \leq t \leq 1}\left|\sigma_{N}(\phi)(t)-\phi(t)\right| \rightarrow 0$, as $N \rightarrow \infty$. The $\sigma_{N}(\phi)$ are trigonometric polynomials, i.e. finite linear combinations of $e_{k}$ for $|k| \leq N$, where $e_{k}(t)=\exp (2 \pi i k t)$. Hence it suffices to prove (2) for any $e_{k}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $M_{n}(\phi)=$

$$
M_{n}\left(e_{k}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} e_{k}\left(\gamma_{j}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} e^{2 \pi i j k \gamma}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(e^{2 \pi i k \gamma}\right)^{j}=\frac{\omega\left(1-\omega^{n}\right)}{n(1-\omega)},
$$

where $\omega=e^{2 \pi i k \gamma} \neq 1$, since $\gamma$ is irrational. Clearly, this tends to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The theorem follows.

The heat equation on the circle. We want to solve

$$
\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}=\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}, \quad t>0, x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad u(0, x)=f(x)
$$

where $f$ is a given, continuous $2 \pi$-periodic function. We make the Ansatz

$$
u(t, x)=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_{n}(t) e^{i n x}
$$

We note that $t=0$ yields $\sum c_{n}(0) e^{i n x}=u(0, x)=f(x)$, so $c_{n}(0)=\hat{f}(n)$. Differentiating under the summation sign leads to

$$
\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_{n}^{\prime}(t) e^{i n x}=\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}=\frac{\partial^{2} u}{\partial x^{2}}=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_{n}(t)(i n)^{2} e^{i n x}=-\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} n^{2} c_{n}(t) e^{i n x}
$$

so

$$
c_{n}^{\prime}(t)=-n^{2} c_{n}(t) \Longrightarrow c_{n}(t)=c_{n}(0) e^{-n^{2} t}=\hat{f}(n) e^{-n^{2} t}
$$

i.e.

$$
u(t, x)=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{-n^{2} t}(t) e^{i n x}=H_{t} * f(x)
$$

where

$$
H_{t}(x)=\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-n^{2} t}(t) e^{i n x}, \quad t>0, x \in \mathbb{R}
$$

This is a good kernel. It is related to Jacobi's theta function, to be encountered later.

