Partial summary of work done in summer of 2016

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1 Heating a disc

Laplace equation. Solution to Laplace equation with the appropriate boundary conditions leads naturally to Fourier series. Questions of convergence raised. Must be answered in pieces.

2 The fourier series

Rather than dealing with regular convergence, dealt with Abel summability of the fourier series. Poisson kernel.

3 Digression: All about kernels

Convolution operation. Kernels. Dirac sequences of kernels. Proved that $f * D_n$ converges uniformly to f.

4 Weaker notions of convergence

Master theorem showed that the fourier series is Abel summable. Now create similar kernels for finite fourier series (Dirichlet kernel) and averages of first n terms (Fejér kernel). Fejér kernels form a Dirac sequence, hence the fourier series is Cesàro summable.

5 Orthonormal basis for C(T)

Proved exponential polynomials dense in C(T): two different proofs using Poisson and Fejér kernels (Fejér kernel gives explicit approximation). Two line proof using Stone-Weirstrass, and a much nastier proof using Weirstrass approximation.

6 Strengthening the conditions on f

Used density result to show $\lim_{n\to\infty} \hat{f}(n) = 0$ for a continuous f (Riemann-Lebesgue lemma). Proved the principle of localisation. Then showed that if $\hat{f}(n)$ is $O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$, then the fourier series converges. Subsequently showed that if $f \in C^1(T)$, then $\hat{f}(n)$ is $O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

7 Computing the zeta function for positive even integers

Used the result that $x^2 \in C^1(T)$, hence it's fourier series converges at x = 0 to get

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{8}$$

And a consequence of this result is that $\zeta(2) = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$. Similarly, by computing the fourier coefficients of x^{2k} , one can compute $\zeta(2k)$.

8 Alternative formula for $\zeta(s)$ where s > 1

An alternative formula for $\zeta(s)$ when s > 1 is given by

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}}$$

where \mathcal{P} is the set of prime numbers.

One can prove this using the fundamental theorem of arithmetic.

9 Proving Weirstrass approximation theorem from Fejér's theorem

From Fejér's theorem we got that trigonometric polynomials are dense in C(T). It will then suffice to show that $\cos(n\theta)$ and $\sin(n\theta)$ can be approximated using polynomials on T. Consider the m^{th} Taylor polynomial for these functions and look at the remainder. For sufficiently large m, the remainder can be made smaller than a given $\varepsilon > 0$. This gives a polynomial approximation for the function and proves the proposition.

10 Showing \bar{z} cannot be uniformly approximated by polynomials in z in a compact set in $\mathbb C$

Without loss of generality, assume the compact set in question contains the unit circle (if it doesn't, rescaling and translation should do the trick). Now assume some polynomial $p \in approximates \bar{z}$ where $\varepsilon < 0.5$. In that case

$$|zp(z) - z\bar{z}| < |z|\varepsilon$$

In particular, on the unit circle, the inequality reduces to

$$|zp(z)-1|<\varepsilon$$

This would mean for all points x on the circle, the real part of xp(x) lies between 0.5 and 1.5. But notice that if take 2(n!) equally spaced points on the circle, where n is the degree of zp(z), then the sum of zp(z) over those points is 0, which means the real part of zp(z) on at least one of those points must be less than or equal to 0. We have a contradiction.

11 Poisson summation of the normal distribution

The task was to show

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2} + i\lambda x\right) dx = \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2}{2}\right)$$

Denote the value of the integral by $I(\lambda)$. The integral can be evaluated by first noting the imaginary part of the function inside the integral is odd; it goes to 0. Performing integration by parts on the real part of the function, one notices that $I(\lambda)$ satisfies the following differential equation:

$$\frac{dI}{d\lambda} = -\lambda I$$

This gives the required expression.

12 Hausdorff moment theorem

The Hausdorff moment theorem states that if for continuous function f and g and a compact interval I, the following equation holds:

$$\int_{I} x^{n} f(x) dx = \int_{I} x^{n} g(x) dx$$

for all non-negative integers n, then $f \equiv g$ on I.

This problem is equivalent to showing $k \equiv 0$ where k = q - f which can be done by showing

$$\int_{I} k^{2}(x)dx = 0$$

Let p be an ε polynomial approximation of k. Then

$$\left| \int_{I} k^{2}(x)dx - \int_{I} p(x)k(x)dx \right| < |I|\varepsilon$$

But by the hypothesis, $\int_I p(x)k(x)dx = 0$ for all polynomials p. This completes the proof.

13 Filler

Fill missing stuff here

14 Roth's Theorem

In very loose terms, Roth's theorem states that for a given number $0 < \delta \le 1$, also called density, there exists a natural number N such that any subset A of $[N]^1$ which has cardinality more than or equal to δN contains a three term AP.

Clearly, if the density is 1, then the statement is quite obvious. What the following proof does is given a set [N] and its subset A, it tries to find a large enough subset N' of [N] such that N' is also an AP, and the density of $A \cap N'$ in N' is more than δ by some fixed multiplicative factor. Once we have this capability, we iterate until the density of A in some subprogression exceeds 1, in which case we're done.

What we do first is identify the set [N] with the group $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ in the natural way. This way, we can also identify the subset A as the subset of the group. Consider the function $\mathbf{1}_A$ from $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ to \mathbb{C} which is 1 is the argument is in A, otherwise 0. Now we can do some fourier analysis since we have an L_2 function.

Consider all the elements x, y, z of A such that x + z = 2y. Clearly, these form a 3-AP in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$. These $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progressions need not be \mathbb{Z} progressions. But let's find a way of counting these $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progressions nevertheless.

Consider the following function:

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i}{N}(x - 2y + z)k\right)$$

Clearly, this function will be 1 if (x, y, z) form a $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progression, otherwise it will be 0. Hence the number of such progressions is given by:

$$\begin{split} S_0 &= \sum_{x,y,z \in A} f(x,y,z) \\ &= \sum_{x,y,z \in A} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i}{N} (x-2y+z)k\right) \\ &= \sum_{x,y,z \in [N]} \mathbf{1}_A(x) \mathbf{1}_A(y) \mathbf{1}_A(z) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i}{N} (x-2y+z)k\right) \end{split}$$

Since the sums are finite, with appropriate rearrangement, we get:

$$S_0 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(k)^2 \widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(-2k)$$

 $^{^{1}[}N]$ is shorthand for the set $\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$.

where $\widehat{f}(k)$ is the k^{th} fourier coefficient of f, which is defined by:

$$\widehat{f}(k) = \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} f(x) \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i}{N}kx\right)$$

It is then obvious that $\widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(0) = \delta N$. The original sum then becomes:

$$S_0 = \delta^3 N^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(k)^2 \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(-2k)$$

Without loss of generality, assume that N is odd so that -2k is never 0, as k goes from 1 to N-1. If the $\widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(k)$ are bounded by a small enough number, then perhaps we can say something about the number of $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progressions in A. Notice that the sum S_0 also counts the trivial progressions. Hence the number of non-trivial progressions is $S_0 - \delta N$.

Clearly, the bound on $\widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(k)$ depends upon $\mathbf{1}_A$, which in turn depends upon the set A. We call a set ε -uniform if $\widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(k) \leq \varepsilon N$ for all non-zero k. Also, define M_A to be the set $\left[\frac{N}{3}, \frac{2N}{3}\right) \cap A$. Clearly, if x and y belong to M_A , and x, y, z form a $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progression, then they also form a \mathbb{Z} progression.

Now assume A is ε -uniform for $\varepsilon < \frac{\delta^2}{8}$ and if $|M_A| \ge \frac{\delta N}{4}$, then the number of \mathbb{Z} progressions S is at least $\frac{\delta^3 N^2}{32}$. Doing the same thing as we did for computing S_0 , we get:

$$S \ge \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{M_A}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{A}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{M_A}(-2k)$$
$$= \delta |M_A|^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{M_A}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{A}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}}_{M_A}(-2k)$$

Let's try to bound the second term in the sum above.

$$\begin{split} \left| \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(-2k) \right| &\leq \varepsilon N \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \left| \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(k) \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(-2k) \right| \\ &\leq \varepsilon N \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \left| \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(k) \right|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \left| \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(-2k) \right|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \text{(Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)} \\ &\leq \varepsilon N \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \left| \widehat{\mathbf{1}_{M_A}}(k) \right|^2 \\ &= \varepsilon N^2 \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |\mathbf{1}_{M_A}(k)|^2 & \text{(Plancherel's equality)} \\ &= \varepsilon N^2 |M_A| \end{split}$$

Now we use the inequalities we took for our hypotheses, and we get:

$$S \ge \delta |M_A|^2 - \varepsilon N|M_A| \ge \frac{\delta^3 N^2}{32}$$

However, note that S also counts the trivial progressions. There are exactly δN trivial progressions. Hence if $\frac{\delta^3 N^2}{32} - \delta N > 0$, only then will the set contain a 3-AP. That means if $N > \frac{32}{\delta^2}$, then the set contains a three term AP.

We have shown that if $N > \frac{32}{\delta^2}$, A is ε -uniform for $\varepsilon < \frac{\delta^2}{8}$, and $|M_A| \ge \frac{\delta N}{4}$, then A contains a three term \mathbb{Z} progression.

On the contrary, assume that A does not contain a 3-AP. Then one of the above conditions must be unsatisfied. We can ignore the first condition, since we can make N as large as we want, given a fixed δ . That leaves the other two conditions. We'll show if either of those conditions are unsatisfied, then [N] contains a sub-progression P, such that the $|P| \geq \frac{\delta^2 \sqrt{N}}{256}$ such that the density of $A \cap P$ is more than $\delta + \frac{\delta^2}{64}$.

If $|M_A| < \frac{\delta N}{4}$, then consider the sets L_A and R_A defined as follows:

$$L_A = A \cap \left[0, \frac{N}{3}\right)$$
$$R_A = A \cap \left[\frac{2N}{3}, N\right)$$

The density of A in one of these sets will be greater than or equal to $\frac{9\delta}{8}$, and these sets are subprogressions of [N] of length $\frac{N}{3}$. This proves the theorem if $|M_A| < \frac{\delta N}{4}$.

Now consider what happens if the second condition is not satisfied, i.e. if $|\widehat{\mathbf{1}}_A(r)| \ge \varepsilon N$, where $\varepsilon = \frac{\delta^2}{8}$ for some r. We'll need the following lemma to progress:

Lemma 14.1. If $|\widehat{\mathbf{1}_A}(r)| \ge \varepsilon N$, then there exists a non-overlapping $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ progression B such that $|B| > \frac{\sqrt{N}}{4}$ such that the density of $A \cap B$ in B is $\delta + \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$.

Proof. It's rather long, and I don't feel like writing it. It uses a bit of fourier analysis though. I'll write it formally soon. \Box

That does it, doesn't it?