

Chapter 8: Some Special Functions

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Supplement. Fourier coefficients in Definition 8.9.

(1) Write

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^N (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}$$

(as the textbook Rudin, Principles of Mathematical Analysis, Third Edition).

Then

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx.$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

(2) One might write in one different form,

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^N (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The only difference between the new one and the old one is a_0 , so a_0 should be

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx.$$

(3) Again, one might write in one different form,

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{2}} + \sum_{n=1}^N (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Similarly, a_0 should be

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{2}} dx.$$

(4) Recall $f(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^N c_n e^{inx}$ ($x \in \mathbb{R}$) where

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx.$$

The relations among a_n , b_n of this textbook and c_n are

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= a_0 \\ c_n &= \frac{1}{2}(a_n + ib_n), n \in \mathbb{Z}^+. \end{aligned}$$

- (5) In some textbooks (Henryk Iwaniec, Topics in Classical Automorphic Forms), it is convenient to consider periodic functions f of period 1. Define

$$e(n) = e^{2\pi i x} = \cos(2\pi x) + i \sin(2\pi x).$$

Any periodic and piecewise continuous function f has the Fourier series representation

$$f(x) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_n e(nx)$$

with coefficients given by

$$a_n = \int_0^1 f(x) e(-nx) dx.$$

Here is one exercise for this representation. *Show that the fractional part of x , $\{x\} = x - [x]$, is given by*

$$\{x\} = \frac{1}{2} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(2\pi nx)}{\pi n}.$$

Supplement. Parseval's theorem 8.16.

- (1) Given

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx = 2a_0^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2).$$

- (2) Given

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx = \frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2).$$

(3) Given

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{2}} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)), x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx = a_0^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n^2 + b_n^2).$$

Exercise 8.1. Define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} & (x \neq 0), \\ 0 & (x = 0). \end{cases}$$

Prove that f has derivatives of all orders at $x = 0$, and that $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$f(x)$ is an example of non-analytic smooth function, that is, infinitely differentiable functions are not necessarily analytic. In this exercise, we will show that Taylor series of f at the origin converges everywhere to the zero function. So the Taylor series does not equal $f(x)$ for $x \neq 0$. Consequently, f is not analytic at $x = 0$.

Proof.

(1) Show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = 0$$

for any rational function $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$.

- (a) Write $g(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ for some $p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, $g(x) \neq 0$.
- (b) Write $q(x) = b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_0$. $q(x)$ is not identically zero, that is, there exists the unique coefficient of the least power of x in $q(x)$ which is non-zero, say $b_M \neq 0$.
- (c) Thus,

$$g(x) = \frac{p(x)/x^M}{q(x)/x^M}.$$

The denominator of $g(x)$ tends to $b_M \neq 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0$. By the similar argument in Theorem 8.6(f), we have

$$\frac{p(x)}{x^M} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

Hence, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = 0$ for any $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$.

(2) Given any real $x \neq 0$, show that

$$f^{(n)}(x) = g_n(x) e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

for some rational function $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$.

- (a) Say $g_0(x) = 1 \in \mathbb{R}(x)$.
- (b) $\mathbb{R}(x)$ is a field. Show that $g'(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$ for any $g(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$. Write $g(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ for some $p(x), q(x) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$, $q(x) \neq 0$. Thus

$$g'(x) = \frac{p'(x)q(x) - p(x)q'(x)}{q(x)^2}.$$

The numerator of $g'(x)$ is in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ since the differentiation operator on $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is closed in $\mathbb{R}[x]$. Also, the denominator of $g'(x) = \frac{p'(x)q(x) - p(x)q'(x)}{q(x)^2} \neq 0$ since $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is an integral domain. Therefore, $g'(x) \in \mathbb{R}(x)$.

- (c) Induction on n . For $n = 1$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= g'_0(x)e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} + g_0(x) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right)' e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \\ &= \left(g'_0(x) + g_0(x) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right)'\right) e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \\ &= g_1(x)e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$g_1(x) = g'_0(x) + g_0(x) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right)' \in \mathbb{R}(x).$$

Now assume that the conclusion holds for $n = k$. As $n = k + 1$, similar to the case $n = 1$,

$$f^{(k+1)}(x) = g_{k+1}(x)e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

where

$$g_{k+1}(x) = g'_k(x) + g_k(x) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right)' \in \mathbb{R}(x).$$

By induction, the conclusion is true.

- (3) Induction on n . For $n = 1$, by (1) we have

$$f'(0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{t^2}} - 0}{t} = 0.$$

Now assume that the statement holds for $n = k$. As $n = k + 1$, by (1)(2) we have

$$f^{(k+1)}(0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f^{(k)}(t) - f^{(k)}(0)}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{g_k(t)e^{-\frac{1}{t^2}} - 0}{t} = 0.$$

Thus, $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

□

Exercise 8.6. Suppose $f(x)f(y) = f(x+y)$ for all real x and y .

(a) Assuming that f is differentiable and not zero, prove that

$$f(x) = e^{cx}$$

where c is a constant.

(b) Prove the same thing, assuming only that f is continuous.

Part (b) implies part (a). We prove part (b) directly.

Proof of (b).

- (1) Since $f(x)$ is not zero, there exists $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x_0) \neq 0$. So $f(0)f(x_0) = f(x_0)$, or $f(0) = 1$ by cancelling $f(x_0) \neq 0$.
- (2) Next, $f(\frac{n}{m}) = f(\frac{1}{m})^n$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Since f is continuous at $x = 0$, f is positive in the neighborhood of $x = 0$. That is, there exists $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $f(\frac{1}{m}) > 0$ whenever $|m| \geq N$. So, $f(\frac{n}{m}) = f(\frac{1}{m})^n > 0$. (Since $f(\frac{n}{m}) = f(\frac{kn}{km})$ for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, we can rescale m to km such that $|km| \geq N$.) That is, f is positive on \mathbb{Q} . Since \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} and f is continuous on \mathbb{R} , f is positive on \mathbb{R} .
- (3) Now let $c = \log f(1)$ (which is well-defined since $f > 0$). We write $f(1)$ in the two ways. Firstly, $f(1) = f(\frac{n}{n}) = f(\frac{1}{n})^n$ where $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Secondly, $f(1) = e^c = (e^{\frac{c}{n}})^n$. Since the positive n -th root is unique (Theorem 1.21), $f(\frac{1}{n}) = e^{\frac{c}{n}}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. By $f(x)f(-x) = f(0) = 1$ or $f(-x) = \frac{1}{f(x)}$, $f(-\frac{1}{n}) = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{c}{n}}} = e^{-\frac{c}{n}}$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Therefore,

$$f\left(\frac{1}{m}\right) = e^{\frac{c}{m}} \text{ where } m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

- (4) By using $f(\frac{n}{m}) = f(\frac{1}{m})^n$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ again, $f(\frac{n}{m}) = e^{c\frac{n}{m}}$ where $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, or

$$f(x) = e^{cx} \text{ where } x \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Since $g(x) = f(x) - e^{cx}$ vanishes on a dense set of \mathbb{Q} and g is continuous on \mathbb{R} , g vanishes on \mathbb{R} . Therefore, $f(x) = e^{cx}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

□

Supplement. *Proof of (a).*

- (1) Since $f(x)$ is not zero, there exists $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x_0) \neq 0$. So $f(0)f(x_0) = f(x_0)$, or $f(0) = 1$ by cancelling $f(x_0) \neq 0$.

- (2) Since f is differentiable, for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)f(h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= f(x) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h) - 1}{h} \\ &= f(x) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h) - f(0)}{h} \\ &= f(x)f'(0). \end{aligned}$$

Let $c = f'(0)$ be a constant. Then $f'(x) = cf(x)$. So $f(x) = e^{cx}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$. (To see this, let $g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{e^{cx}}$ be well-defined on \mathbb{R} . $g(0) = 1$. $g'(x) = 0$ since $f'(x) = cf(x)$. So $g(x)$ is a constant, or $g(x) = 1$ since $g(0) = 1$. Therefore, $f(x) = e^{cx}$ on \mathbb{R} .)

□

Supplement. Cauchy's functional equation.

- (1) (*Cauchy's functional equation.*) Suppose $f(x) + f(y) = f(x+y)$ for all real x and y . Assuming that f is continuous, prove that $f(x) = cx$ where c is a constant.

Notice that we cannot let $g(x) = \log f(x)$ and apply Cauchy's functional equation on $g(x)$ to prove Exercise 8.6 since $f(x)$ is not necessarily positive and thus $g(x) = \log f(x)$ might be meaningless. However, this wrong approach gives you some useful ideas such as you need to prove that $f(x)$ is positive first, and $f(x)$ should be equal to e^{cx} where $c = g(1) = \log f(1)$.

- (2) Suppose $f(xy) = f(x) + f(y)$ for all positive real x and y . Assuming that f is continuous, prove that $f(x) = c \log x$ where c is a constant.
- (3) Suppose $f(xy) = f(x)f(y)$ for all positive real x and y . Assuming that f is continuous and positive, prove that $f(x) = x^c$ where c is a constant.
- (4) Suppose $f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y) + xy$ for all real x and y . Assuming that f is continuous, prove that $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + cx$ where c is a constant.
- (5) (*USA 2002.*) Suppose $f(x^2 - y^2) = xf(x) - yf(y)$ for all real x and y . Assuming that f is continuous, prove that $f(x) = cx$ where c is a constant.

Supplement. Show that the only automorphism of \mathbb{Q} is the identity.

Proof. Given any $\sigma \in \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Q})$.

(1) *Show that $\sigma(1) = 1$.* Since $1^2 = 1$, $\sigma(1)\sigma(1) = \sigma(1)$. $\sigma(1) = 0$ or 1 . There are only two possible cases.

(a) Assume that $\sigma(1) = 0$. So

$$\sigma(a) = \sigma(a \cdot 1) = \sigma(a) \cdot \sigma(1) = \sigma(a) \cdot 0 = 0$$

for any $a \in \mathbb{Q}$. That is, $\sigma = 0 \in \text{Aut}(\mathbb{Q})$, which is absurd.

(b) Therefore, $\sigma(1) = 1$.

(2) *Show that $\sigma(n) = n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.* Write $n = 1 + 1 + \cdots + 1$ (n times 1). Applying the additivity of σ , we have

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma(1) + \sigma(1) + \cdots + \sigma(1) = 1 + 1 + \cdots + 1 = n.$$

(Might use induction on n to eliminate \cdots symbols.)

(3) *Show that $\sigma(n) = n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.* By the additivity of σ , $\sigma(-n) = -\sigma(n) = -n$ for $n \geq 0$. The result is established.

For any $a = \frac{n}{m} \in \mathbb{Q}$ ($m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \neq 0$), applying the multiplication of σ on $am = n$, that is, $\sigma(a)\sigma(m) = \sigma(n)$. By (3), we have $\sigma(a)m = n$, or

$$\sigma(a) = \frac{n}{m} = a$$

provided $n \neq 0$, or σ is the identity. \square

Exercise 8.8. For $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, and x real, prove that

$$|\sin(nx)| \leq n|\sin x|.$$

Note that this inequality may be false for other values of n . For instance,

$$\left| \sin\left(\frac{1}{2}\pi\right) \right| > \frac{1}{2}|\sin \pi|.$$

Proof. Induction on n .

(1) Note that

$$\sin(a + b) = \sin a \cos b + \cos a \sin b$$

for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

(2) $n = 0, 1$ are clearly true.

- (3) Assume the induction hypothesis that for the single case $n = k$ holds, meaning

$$|\sin(kx)| \leq k|\sin x|$$

is true. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} |\sin((k+1)x)| &= |\sin(kx)\cos x + \cos(kx)\sin x| && ((1)) \\ &\leq |\sin(kx)||\cos x| + |\cos(kx)||\sin x| && (\text{Triangle inequality}) \\ &\leq |\sin(kx)| + |\sin x| && (|\cos(\cdot)| \leq 1) \\ &\leq k|\sin x| + |\sin x| && (\text{Induction hypothesis}) \\ &\leq (k+1)|\sin x|. \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 8.10. Prove that $\sum \frac{1}{p}$ diverges; the sum extends over all primes.

There are many proofs of this result. We provide some of them.

Proof (Due to hint). Given N .

- (1) Show that

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \leq \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1}.$$

By the unique factorization theorem on $n \leq N$,

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \leq \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^2} + \cdots\right) = \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1}.$$

- (2) By (1) and the fact that $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges, there are infinitely many primes.

- (3) Show that

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1} \leq \exp\left(\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{2}{p}\right).$$

By applying the inequality $(1-x)^{-1} < e^{2x}$ where $x \in (0, \frac{1}{2}]$ on any prime p ,

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1} < \exp\left(\frac{2}{p}\right).$$

Now multiplying the inequality over all primes $p \leq N$ and noticing that $\exp(x) \cdot \exp(y) = \exp(x+y)$, we have

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)^{-1} \leq \exp\left(\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{2}{p}\right).$$

(4) By (1)(3),

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \leq \exp \left(\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{2}{p} \right).$$

Since $\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges, the result holds.

□

Proof (Due to Kenneth Ireland and Michael Rosen). The proof in Kenneth Ireland and Michael Rosen, A Classical Introduction to Modern Number Theory, Second Edition (Theorem 3 in Chapter 2) does not use the inequality $(1-x)^{-1} < e^{2x}$ ($x \in (0, \frac{1}{2}]$) directly. Instead, the authors take the logarithm on $(1-p^{-1})^{-1}$ and estimate it. (So the length of proof is longer than the proof due to hint.) That is,

$$\begin{aligned} -\log(1-p^{-1}) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^{-n}}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{p} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{p^{-n}}{n} \\ &< \frac{1}{p} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} p^{-n} \\ &= \frac{1}{p} + \frac{p^{-2}}{1-p^{-1}} \\ &< \frac{1}{p} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{p^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now we sum over all primes $p \leq N$,

$$\log \left(\prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p} \right)^{-1} \right) < \sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p} + 2 \sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p^2}.$$

So

$$\log \sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} < \sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p} + 2 \sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p^2}.$$

Notice that $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ diverges and $\sum \frac{1}{p^2}$ converges (since $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges). Therefore, $\sum \frac{1}{p}$ diverges. □

Proof (Due to I. Niven). It is an exercise in Kenneth Ireland and Michael Rosen, A Classical Introduction to Modern Number Theory, Second Edition. See Exercise 27 in Chapter 2.

- (1) Show that $\sum' \frac{1}{n}$, the sum being over square free integers, diverges. For any positive integers n , we can write $n = a^2 b$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and b is a square

free integer. Given N ,

$$\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \leq \left(\sum_{a=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a^2} \right) \left(\sum'_{b \leq N} \frac{1}{b} \right).$$

Notice that $\sum_{a=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a^2}$ converges. Since $\sum_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$, $\sum'_{b \leq N} \frac{1}{b} \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

(2) *Show that*

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} \right) \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty.$$

By the unique factorization theorem on $n \leq N$,

$$\prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} \right) \geq \sum'_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n}.$$

Since $\sum'_{n \leq N} \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$ by (1), the conclusion is established.

(3) By applying the inequality $e^x > 1 + x$ on any prime p ,

$$\exp\left(\frac{1}{p}\right) > 1 + \frac{1}{p}.$$

Now multiplying the inequality over all primes $p \leq N$ and noticing that $\exp(x) \cdot \exp(y) = \exp(x + y)$, we have

$$\exp\left(\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p}\right) > \prod_{p \leq N} \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} \right).$$

By (2), $\exp\left(\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p}\right) \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$, or $\sum_{p \leq N} \frac{1}{p} \rightarrow \infty$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

□

Exercise 8.12. Suppose $0 < \delta < \pi$,

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |x| \leq \delta, \\ 0 & \text{if } \delta < |x| \leq \pi, \end{cases}$$

and $f(x + 2\pi) = f(x)$ for all x .

(a) *Compute the Fourier coefficients of f .*

(b) *Compute that*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\delta)}{n} = \frac{\pi - \delta}{2} \quad (0 < \delta < \pi).$$

(c) *Deduce from Parseval's theorem that*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\sin(n\delta))^2}{n^2\delta} = \frac{\pi - \delta}{2}.$$

(d) *Let $\delta \rightarrow 0$ and prove that*

$$\int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

(e) *Put $\delta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ in (c). What do you get?*

It is a centered square pulse around $x = 0$ with shift δ . Besides, $f(x)$ is an even function.

Proof of (a).

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} dx \\ &= \frac{\delta}{\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

For $0 \neq n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$\begin{aligned} c_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} e^{-inx} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2 \sin(n\delta)}{n} \\ &= \frac{\sin(n\delta)}{n\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Supplement. Find a_n and b_n of this textbook.

By (a), $a_0 = \frac{\delta}{\pi}$, $a_n = \frac{2\sin(n\delta)}{n\pi}$, $b_n = 0$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Surely, we can compute a_n and b_n ($n > 0$) directly. Since $f(x)$ is an even function, $b_n = 0$. And

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx \\ &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\delta} \cos(nx) dx \\ &= \frac{2\sin(n\delta)}{n\pi}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of (b). Given $x = 0$, there are constants $\delta' = \delta > 0$ and $M = 1 < \infty$ such that

$$|f(0+t) - f(0)| \leq M|t|$$

for all $t \in (-\delta', \delta')$. By Theorem 8.14,

$$\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_n = f(0).$$

Notice that $c_{-n} = c_n$ for $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, so

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\delta}{\pi} + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\delta)}{n\pi} &= 1 \\ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\delta)}{n} &= \frac{\pi - \delta}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

□

We can also use the expression a_n and b_n to prove the same thing. Besides, taking $\delta = 1$ yields

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin n}{n} = \frac{\pi - 1}{2}.$$

Proof of (c). Since $f(x)$ is a Riemann-integrable function with period 2π , by Parseval's theorem

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} |c_n|^2.$$

So

$$\frac{\delta}{\pi} = \frac{\delta^2}{\pi^2} + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\sin(n\delta))^2}{n^2 \pi^2},$$

or

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\sin(n\delta))^2}{n^2 \delta} = \frac{\pi - \delta}{2}.$$

□

Notices that

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

as $\delta = 1$.

Proof of (d). Given $\varepsilon > 0$. By Exercise 6.8,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx$$

exists. So there exists $b > 0$ such that

$$\left| \int_0^b \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx - \int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$$

By Supplement in Chapter 6, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for any partition $P_m = \{0, \frac{b}{m}, \frac{2b}{m}, \dots, \frac{(m-1)b}{m}, b\}$ of $[0, b]$ with $\|P\| = \frac{b}{m} < \delta$, or $m > \frac{b}{\delta}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{n=1}^m \frac{(\sin(n \frac{b}{m}))^2}{(n \frac{b}{m})^2} \cdot \frac{b}{m} - \int_0^b \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx \right| &< \frac{\varepsilon}{4}, \\ \left| \sum_{n=1}^m \frac{(\sin(n \frac{b}{m}))^2}{n^2 \frac{b}{m}} - \int_0^b \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx \right| &< \frac{\varepsilon}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

For simplicity we resize δ to $\delta < \pi$ to make $0 < \frac{b}{m} < \delta < \pi$. Besides, since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges, there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(\sin(n \frac{b}{m}))^2}{n^2 \frac{b}{m}} - \sum_{n=1}^m \frac{(\sin(n \frac{b}{m}))^2}{n^2 \frac{b}{m}} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$$

whenever $m \geq N$. By (c),

$$\left| \frac{\pi - \frac{b}{m}}{2} - \sum_{n=1}^m \frac{(\sin(n \frac{b}{m}))^2}{n^2 \frac{b}{m}} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$$

whenever $m \geq N$. Last, it is easy to get

$$\left| \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi - \frac{b}{m}}{2} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$$

whenever $m > \frac{2b}{\varepsilon}$. Now we have

$$\left| \frac{\pi}{2} - \int_0^{\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx \right| < \varepsilon$$

whenever $m > \max(\frac{b}{\delta}, N, \frac{2b}{\varepsilon})$. Since ε is arbitrary, $\int_0^\infty \left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right)^2 dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$. \square

Proof of (e).

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

Write

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)^2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n)^2} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)^2} + \frac{1}{4} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}, \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{4}{3} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2n-1)^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

\square

Exercise 8.13. Put $f(x) = x$ if $0 \leq x < 2\pi$, and apply Parseval's theorem to conclude that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi}{6}.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} x dx \\ &= \pi, \end{aligned}$$

For $n \neq 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} c_n &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} x e^{-inx} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \left(\left[-\frac{1}{in} x e^{-inx} \right]_{x=0}^{x=2\pi} - \int_0^{2\pi} -\frac{1}{in} e^{-inx} dx \right) \\ &= \frac{i}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $f(x)$ is a Riemann-integrable function with period 2π , by Parseval's theorem

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |c_n|^2.$$

So

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{(2\pi)^3}{3} = \pi^2 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2},$$

or

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

□

Supplement. Put $f(x) = x^k$ if $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $0 \leq x < 2\pi$. Might show that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{2k}} = r_k \pi^{2k}, r_k \in \mathbb{Q}.$$