

Image

## Analyse Harmonique

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## Preface

This is the preface of the book...

# Chapter 1 Classical Fourier Series

In this chapter, we will explore the Fourier series in such function space:

**Set and Field** The linear space we are working on is the set of all integrable (in the Riemann sense)<sup>1</sup> complex-valued periodic functions defined on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ <sup>2</sup>, equipped with the usual addition and scalar multiplication of functions. We denote it as  $\mathcal{R}[-\pi, \pi]$  that is a infinite-dimensional linear space. The field of scalars is the set of complex numbers  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Inner Product** For any two functions  $f(x), g(x)$  in this space, we define their inner product as:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx,$$

where  $\frac{1}{2\pi}$  is a normalization factor.

**Norm** The norm induced by this inner product is given by:

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle} = \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

In fact, we often assume that the functions are always piecewise continuous or piecewise smooth on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , which is the most common case in engineering.

## Function Defined on the Unit Circle

For a periodic function  $f(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  with period  $2\pi$ , we can explore it from the perspective of complex exponential functions on the unit circle in the complex plane. Let

$$\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\},$$

which is one-dimensional torus, also known as the unit circle in the complex plane.

For any  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ , we can define:

$$f(\theta) = F(e^{i\theta}),$$

where  $F : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a **function defined on the unit circle**. Thus, we can study the periodic function  $f(x)$  by analyzing the function  $F(z)$  on the unit circle  $\mathbb{T}$ . From the perspective of algebra, the set of all such functions  $F(z)$  forms a function space over the unit circle, which is isomorphic to the space of periodic functions  $f(x)$  with period  $2\pi$ .

By introducing  $\mathbb{T}$  that is a compact manifold without boundary in fact, we can not only eliminate the hassles of endpoints but also simplify many discussions. Furthermore, since  $\mathbb{T}$  is a multiplicative group of complex numbers, we can better understand the essence of Fourier series: the duality theory on compact Abelian groups.

<sup>1</sup>For common integral, it should be Riemann integral; for defective integral, it should be absolute Riemann integral. For convenience, we just say Riemann integral in this context.

<sup>2</sup>It can be also defined on interval  $[-T, T]$ , but we choose  $[-\pi, \pi]$  for simplicity.

## 1.1 Fourier Coefficients

*Theorem 1.1*

$$\mathcal{E} = \{e^{inx} : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$$

or in real form:

$$\{1, \cos x, \sin x, \cos 2x, \sin 2x, \dots\}$$

is an orthonormal basis of the inner product space  $\mathcal{R}[-\pi, \pi]$ . 

*Definition 1.1*

The Fourier coefficients  $\hat{f}(n)$  of a function  $f(x) \in \mathcal{R}[-\pi, \pi]$  is the projection of  $f(x)$  onto the basis function  $e^{inx}$ :

$$\hat{f}(n) = \langle f, e^{inx} \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z},$$

that is called Euler-Fourier formula.

Hence, the Fourier series of  $f(x)$  is given by:

$$f(x) \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx},$$

or in real form:

$$f(x) \sim \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} [a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)],$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx, \\ a_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx, \\ b_n &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

and the symbol " $\sim$ " indicates that the right-hand side is the Fourier series representation of  $f(x)$ . 

It can be easily extended to any periodic function with period  $2T$  by the substitution  $x = \frac{\pi}{T}t$ :

$$f(x) \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\frac{\pi}{T}x},$$

or in real form:

$$f(x) \sim \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \left[ a_n \cos \left( n \frac{\pi}{T} x \right) + b_n \sin \left( n \frac{\pi}{T} x \right) \right].$$

When  $f(x)$  is an even function, all sine terms vanish, and the Fourier series reduces to a cosine series:

$$f(x) \sim \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} a_n \cos(nx).$$

When  $f(x)$  is an odd function, all cosine terms vanish, and the Fourier series reduces to a sine series:

$$f(x) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} b_n \sin(nx).$$

## 1.2 The Dirichlet Kernel

### ¶ Convolution

#### Definition 1.2 (Convolution)

For two functions  $f(x), g(x)$  defined on  $\mathbb{T}$ , their convolution  $f * g$  is defined as:

$$(f * g)(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)g(x-t) dt.$$



**Remark** From a physically intuitive perspective, convolution is a form of "weighted averaging" or "filtering". Here,  $g(t)$  serves as the weight function (kernel), which samples and averages  $f$  within a "sliding window" around the point  $x$ .

### ¤ Property

**Symmetry**  $f * g = g * f$ .

#### Theorem 1.2 (Convolution Theorem)

Under suitable conditions the Fourier transform of a convolution of two functions (or signals) is the product of their Fourier transforms,

$$\widehat{f * g}(n) = \hat{f}(n) \cdot \hat{g}(n).$$

In other words, the convolution in one domain corresponds to the product in another domain, for example, the convolution in the time domain corresponds to the product in the frequency domain.



### ¶ Dirichlet Kernel

For partial sum of the first  $N$  terms of the Fourier series of  $f(x)$ :

$$S_N(f; x) = \sum_{n=-N}^N \hat{f}(n) e^{inx} = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^N [a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx)],$$

in order to study its convergence, we can transform it into integral form by convolution theorem:

$$S_N(f; x) = f * D_N,$$

where

$$D_N(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{inx} = \sum_{n=1}^N 2 \cos(nx) + 1 = \frac{\sin\left(\frac{2N+1}{2}x\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)},$$

is called the **Dirichlet kernel**.

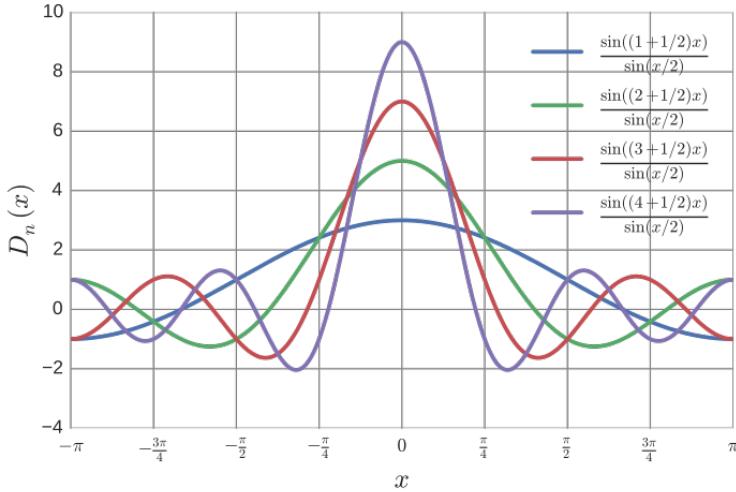
Dirichlet kernel possesses the following important properties:

**Evenness**  $D_N(-x) = D_N(x)$ .

**Normalization**

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

However,  $D_N(x)$  is like water waves, with both positive and negative values. This means that during convolution (weighted averaging), positive and negative offsets may lead to extremely unstable results. For example,



**Figure 1.1:** Dirichlet kernels for various values of  $N$ .

for integral mean of the absolute value of the Dirichlet kernel, which is called the **Lebesgue constant**:

$$L_n := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |D_N(x)| dx \approx \frac{4}{\pi^2} \ln N, \quad (N \rightarrow +\infty).$$

It is precisely because the absolute integral of  $D_N(x)$  tends to infinity that it is a "bad kernel function". It amplifies errors, causing the Fourier series of a continuous function to potentially diverge.

With the help of convolution theorem, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} S_N(f; x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) D_N(x-t) dt \\ &\stackrel{\text{Let } u=t-x}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x+u) D_N(-u) du \\ &\stackrel{D_N(-u)=D_N(u)}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x+u) D_N(u) du \\ &\stackrel{\text{Divide by 2}}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} [f(x+u) + f(x-u)] D_N(u) du. \end{aligned}$$

Then the convergence of  $S_N(f; x)$  can be analyzed through the properties of the last integral that is called the **Dirichlet integral**.

Since the normalization property of Dirichlet kernel, we can analyze the difference between  $S_N(f; x)$  and any a function  $\sigma(x)$ :

$$S_N(f; x) - \sigma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} [f(x+u) + f(x-u) - 2\sigma(x)] D_N(u) du.$$

Denote  $\varphi_{\sigma}(u, x) = f(x+u) + f(x-u) - 2\sigma(x)$ , then the convergence of  $S_N(f; x)$  to  $\sigma(x)$  is equivalent to:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} \int_0^{\pi} \varphi_{\sigma}(u, x) D_N(u) du = 0.$$

### ¶ Localization Theorem

First, we need the following important lemma:

**Lemma 1.1 (Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma)**

Let  $f(x) \in R[a, b]$ ,  $g(x)$  has a period  $T$  and  $g(x) \in R[0, T]$ , then:

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x)g(px) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \cdot \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt.$$

A special case is when  $g(x) = \sin x$  or  $g(x) = \cos x$ , then:

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow +\infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin(px) dx = \int_a^b f(x) \cos(px) dx = 0.$$

**Proof**

**Special case.** Prove for  $g(x) = \sin x$ , the case for  $g(x) = \cos x$  is similar.

If  $f(x) \in B[a, b]$ , i.e.,  $f(x)$  is integrable in the common Riemann sense on  $[a, b]$ . Then there exists  $M > 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Denote  $n = [\sqrt{p}]$ , then when  $p \rightarrow +\infty$ , we have  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Divide the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of equal length:

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b,$$

and let  $\omega_i$  be the oscillation of  $f(x)$  on the  $i$ -th subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

By the integrability theory,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \Delta x_i = 0.$$

And we have:

$$\left| \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} \sin(px) dx \right| < \frac{2}{p}, \quad |\sin(px)| \leq 1.$$

Then we can estimate:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| &= \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| \\ &\leq \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} (f(x) - f(x_i)) \sin(px) dx \right| + \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} f(x_i) \sin(px) dx \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \Delta x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_i} |f(x_i)| |\sin(px)| dx \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i \Delta x_i + M \cdot n \cdot \frac{2}{p} \rightarrow 0, \quad (p \rightarrow +\infty). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin(px) dx = 0$ .

If  $f(x) \notin B[a, b]$ , i.e.,  $f(x)$  is absolutely integrable in the improper Riemann sense on  $[a, b]$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $f(x)$  is defective at point  $b$ . Then

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall \eta \in (0, \delta) : \int_{b-\eta}^b |f(x)| dx < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Fix such  $\eta$ , then  $f(x) \in R[a, b-\eta]$ . According to the previous discussion, there exists  $P > 0$ , such that when  $p > P$ :

$$\left| \int_a^{b-\eta} f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| &\leq \left| \int_a^{b-\eta} f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| + \left| \int_{b-\eta}^b f(x) \sin(px) dx \right| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \int_{b-\eta}^b |f(x)| dx < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin(px) dx = 0$ .

In summary, regardless of whether  $f(x)$  is integrable in the common Riemann sense or absolutely integrable in the improper Riemann sense, we have proved the special case of Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma. ■

Then we can state Riemann's Localization Theorem:

*Theorem 1.3 (Riemann's Localization Theorem)*

The convergence or divergence of the Fourier series of a function  $f(x)$  at a given point  $x$  depends only on the behavior of  $f(x)$  in an arbitrarily small neighborhood of  $x$ .



Proof



Since the oscillation of  $D_N(x)$  is so severe that it causes poor convergence, is there a way to "smooth it out"? In fact, we can use **Cesàro summation** and **Fejér kernel** to achieve this goal, which will be discussed in the next chapter.

## 1.3 Pointwise Convergence Tests

In this section, we will discuss several important convergence tests from coarse to fine for Fourier series.

*Definition 1.3 (Bounded Variation)*

A function  $f(x)$  is said to be of bounded variation on the interval  $[a, b]$ , if there exists a constant  $M > 0$ , such that for any partition  $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$ :

$$V_a^b(f) = \sum_{i=1}^n |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})| \leq M.$$

The quantity  $V_a^b(f)$  is called the total variation of  $f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ . We denote this as  $f \in BV[a, b]$ .



*Definition 1.4 (Hölder condition)*

There exists a constant  $L > 0$  and  $\alpha \in (0, 1]$ , such that for all sufficiently small  $\delta$ :

$$|f(x \pm u) - f(x)| \leq Lu^\alpha, \quad 0 < u < \delta,$$

then  $f$  satisfies  $\alpha$ -order Hölder condition at point  $x$ , denoted as  $f \in \text{Lip}_\alpha(x)$ . When  $\alpha = 1$ , it is called Lipschitz condition.



*Theorem 1.4*

Let  $f(x) \in \mathcal{R}[-\pi, \pi]$ , and satisfies one of the following conditions, then the Fourier series of  $f(x)$  converges to  $\frac{f(x+) + f(x-)}{2}$  at every point  $x$ :

**Lipschitz's Test** If  $f \in \text{Lip}_\alpha(x)$ .

**Dini's Test** There exists a  $\delta > 0$ , such that:

$$\int_0^\delta \frac{|f(x+u) + f(x-u) - 2S|}{u} du < +\infty,$$

where  $S = \frac{f(x+) + f(x-)}{2}$ .

**Dirichlet-Jordan Test** If  $f(x)$  is of bounded variation in a neighborhood of point  $x$ , i.e., there exists a  $\delta > 0$ ,

such that  $f \in BV(x - \delta, x + \delta)$ .



## 1.4 Analytical properties of Fourier series

## Chapter 2 Cesàro Summation

## Chapter 3 Modern Fourier Series

# Chapter 4 Fourier Transform

## 4.1 Laplace Transform

## Chapter 5 Sobolev Spaces

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