PMATH 450 Course Notes

Lebesgue Integration and Fourier Analysis

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1 Motivation

This course is a continuation of PMATH 351. It can be thought of as a gateway course to many areas of modern analysis, and has many applications such as partial differential equations or even representation of theory of groups.

Even though this course is called "Lebesgue Integration and Fourier Analysis", we will focus more on the latter, since there is a lot of overlap with PMATH 451 in terms of measure theory. First, we will begin by giving a hand-wavy derivation of the heat equation. We then try to solve the corresponding PDE, which will give us some motivation for studying Fourier analysis.

1.1 Deriving the Heat Equation

Take a "nice" region $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3$ with volume, such as a sphere, cylinder, or cube. Consider a solid body with shape D. At time $t = 0$, the body is heated to an initial temperature

$$u(x, y, z, t)|_{t=0} = u(x, y, z, 0).$$

This is our initial condition. Moreover, for all $t > 0$, the temperature on the boundary ∂D is specified; that is, we know the values of $u(x, y, z, t)$ for all $(x, y, z) \in \partial D$. These are the boundary conditions. Our goal is to find $u(x, y, z, t)$ for all $t > 0$ and $(x, y, z) \in D$.

To begin, we will derive (using physics) the PDE governing u. The solid body with shape given by D is assumed to have constant density $\rho > 0$, and there is a specific heat constant $c > 0$. Then the heat content of D is given by

$$H(t) = \iiint_D c\rho u(x, y, z, t)\,\mathrm{d}V.$$

Behaving as a physicist would, we toss the derivative into the integral without question to obtain

$$H'(t) = \iiint_D c\rho u_t(x, y, z, t)\,\mathrm{d}V. \tag{1.1}$$

Now, Fourier's Law states that heat flows from hotter to colder regions at a rate proportional to the temperature gradient

$$\nabla u(x, y, z) = (u_x, u_y, u_z).$$

With our nice region D, heat only flows in and out through the surface ∂D. Then Fourier states that there exists $\kappa > 0$ such that $H'(t)$ is equal to κ multiplied by the flux of ∇u through ∂D. That is, we have

$$H'(t) = \iint_{\partial D} \kappa(\nabla u) \cdot \mathrm{d}\vec{S},$$

where $\mathrm{d}\vec{S}$ is the surface differential $\vec{n} \cdot \mathrm{d}S$. Recall that the divergence of a vector field $\vec{F} = (F_1, F_2, F_3)$ is defined by $\operatorname{div}(\vec{F}) := (F_1)_x + (F_2)_y + (F_3)_z$, and Gauss' Divergence Theorem states that

$$\iint_{\partial D} \vec{F} \cdot \mathrm{d}\vec{S} = \iiint_D \operatorname{div}(\vec{F})\,\mathrm{d}V.$$

In our case, we have $\vec{F} = \kappa \nabla u = (\kappa u_x, \kappa u_y, \kappa u_z)$, and hence

$$\operatorname{div}(\kappa \nabla u) = \kappa(u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}) = \kappa \Delta u,$$

where $\Delta u = u_{xx} + u_{yy} + u_{zz}$ is the Laplacian of u. From our above equation, this yields

$$H'(t) = \iiint_D \kappa \Delta u\,\mathrm{d}V. \tag{1.2}$$

Combining (1.1) and (1.2) and doing some rearranging, we end up with

$$\iiint_D (c\rho u_t - \kappa \Delta u)\, \mathrm{d}V = 0.$$

This holds for all "nice" regions, and implies that

$$c\rho u_t - \kappa \Delta u = 0.$$

Setting $K = \kappa/(c\rho) > 0$, we obtain the heat equation

$$u_t = K\Delta u.$$

We now want to solve this with our given initial and boundary conditions. As we would expect, this is very difficult! This is a PDE, and solving an ODE is already a tall order.

1.2 Solving the Heat Equation

For simplicity, we will instead consider the 1-dimensional heat equation. Let us take a thin rod over the interval $[-\pi, \pi]$. Suppose that this rod is laterally insulated so that heat only flows in the x-direction. In this case, the heat equation is given by

$$u_t = K u_{xx}.$$

Our initial condition is $u(x, 0) = f(x)$ where f is piecewise continuous or even just Riemann integrable, if we want to be more fancy. As for the boundary conditions, this really depends on the physical scenario. We give some examples of them below.

- We may assert that the temperature is 0 on the endpoints, so $u(-\pi, t) = u(\pi, t) = 0$ for all $t \geq 0$. These are called Dirichlet boundary conditions.
- We can also assume that the endpoints are insulated, giving us $u_x(-\pi, t) = u_x(\pi, t) = 0$ for all $t \geq 0$. These are called Neumann boundary conditions.

For our purposes, we will consider a mixture of these and say that we have periodic boundary conditions. To be specific, we want it so that for all $t \geq 0$, we have

$$u(-\pi, t) = u(\pi, t),$$
$$u_x(-\pi, t) = u_x(\pi, t).$$

Now, we employ separation of variables, which allows us to find candidates for PDEs. We look for non-zero solutions of the form

$$u(x, t) = T(t)X(x),$$

where T and X are differentiable and not equal to 0 everywhere. Notice that if u solves the PDE $u_t = Ku_{xx}$, then for all $t \geq 0$ and $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$, we have

$$T'(t)X(x) = KT(t)X''(x).$$

This implies that

$$\frac{T'(t)}{KT(t)} = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)}$$

for all $t \geq 0$ such that $T(t) \neq 0$ and $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$ such that $X(x) \neq 0$. Now notice that if we keep t fixed and vary x, the value of $X''(x)/X(x)$ remains unchanged. Similarly, if we keep x fixed and vary t, the value of $T'(t)/[KT(t)]$ is also unchanged. Therefore, there exists some constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\lambda = \frac{T'(t)}{KT(t)} = \frac{X''(x)}{X(x)}.$$

This yields the equations

$$T'(t) = -\lambda K T(t), \tag{1.3}$$
$$X''(x) + \lambda X(x) = 0. \tag{1.4}$$

Now, we put the periodic boundary conditions into play. This gives us

$$T(t)X(\pi) = T(t)X(-\pi),$$
$$T(t)X'(\pi) = T(t)X'(-\pi).$$

We will consider equation (1.4) first. Since we assumed that T is not identically 0, we obtain the eigenvalue problem for X given by the following three equations

$$\begin{aligned} X''(x) + \lambda X(x) &= 0, \\ X(\pi) &= X(-\pi), \\ X'(\pi) &= X'(-\pi). \end{aligned}$$

Let us now determine what values of λ will work.

Case 1. Suppose that $\lambda > 0$. Then we can write $\lambda = \omega^2$ for some $\omega > 0$. We obtain the equation

$$X''(x) + \omega^2 X(x) = 0,$$

whose only solutions are of the form

$$X(x) = C\cos(\omega x) + D\sin(\omega x)$$

for some constants C and D. Using the first boundary condition $X(\pi) = X(-\pi)$ gives us

$$2D\sin(\omega\pi) = 0,$$

so either $D = 0$ or $\omega \in \mathbb{N}$. Similarly, the second boundary condition $X'(\pi) = X'(-\pi)$ implies that either $C = 0$ or $2C\omega\sin(\omega\pi) = 0$, and the latter scenario means $\omega \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, we have established that for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the functions

$$X_n(x) = C_n\cos(nx) + D_n\sin(nx)$$

with constants C_n and D_n are solutions to the eigenvalue problem.

Case 2. Suppose that $\lambda = 0$. Then $X''(x) = 0$, which means that

$$X(x) = C + Dx$$

for some constants C and D. It is easily verified that $X(\pi) = X(-\pi)$ gives $D = 0$, and that $X'(\pi) = X'(-\pi)$ gives nothing new. So $X_0(x) = C_0$ is a solution to the eigenvalue problem.

Case 3. Suppose that $\lambda < 0$. Then we can write $\lambda = -\omega^2$ for some $\omega > 0$. It follows that all solutions to $X''(x) - \omega^2 X = 0$ are of the form

$$X(x) = C\cosh(\omega x) + D\sinh(\omega x).$$

Now $X(\pi) = X(-\pi)$ implies that $2D\sinh(\omega\pi) = 0$ and $X'(\pi) = X'(-\pi)$ gives us $2C\omega\sinh(\omega\pi) = 0$. These together have no nonzero solutions.

Therefore, we have found that X is either of the form $X_0(x) = C_0$ for some constant C_0, or

$$X_n(x) = C_n\cos(nx) + D_n\sin(nx)$$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and constants C_n and D_n. Using equation (1.3), we see that $\lambda = 0$ implies that $T(t)$ is constant, and $\lambda = n^2 > 0$ implies that

$$T(t) = \exp(-Kn^2 t).$$

Then, the solutions for u are $u_0(x,t) = T_0 X_0 = C_0$, and

$$u_n(x,t) = \exp(-Kn^2t)(C_n \cos(nx) + D_n \sin(nx))$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Using the Fourier method for PDEs, we notice that $u_t = Ku_{xx}$ is linear, so we can take linear combinations such as

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} u_n(x,t)$$

and still obtain a solution. Moreover, by formally interchanging sums and derivatives, the boundary conditions are also linear. However, finite sums can be insufficient for the initial conditions to be satisfied too. Thus, we instead consider formal infinite sums to get

$$u(x,t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n(x,t) = C_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \exp(-Kn^2t)(C_n \cos(nx) + D_n \sin(nx)).$$

Assuming that the initial condition holds, this means we can write

$$f(x) = u(x,0) = C_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(C_n \cos(nx) + D_n \sin(nx)).$$

The above form is known as a **Fourier series**. Now, we recall that we can write $\cos(nx) = (e^{inx} + e^{-inx})/2$ and $\sin(nx) = (e^{inx} - e^{-inx})/2$, so if we let

$$A_n = \begin{cases} C_0, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ (C_n - iD_n)/2, & \text{if } n > 0, \\ (C_{-n} + iD_{-n})/2, & \text{if } n < 0, \end{cases}$$

then we obtain the nice formula

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n e^{inx}.$$

This leads us to a few questions.

1. Are we justified in interchanging summation and differentiation?
2. Given some nice function f from $[-\pi, \pi]$ to $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{C}$, is it possible to express f as the infinite sum $f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n e^{inx}$?
   (a) If so, in what sense does the sum converge?
   (b) How are f and the coefficients A_n related?

1.3 Basic Notation

We will get into answering the above questions later. First, we will make some definitions.

Definition 1.1

- We define $\mathbb{T} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z| = 1\} = \{e^{i\theta} : \theta \in [-\pi, \pi]\}$ to be the unit circle in $\mathbb{C}$.
- We define $C(\mathbb{T})$ to be the continuous $\mathbb{C}$-valued functions on $\mathbb{T}$. Notice that we can view $C(\mathbb{T})$ as the space of 2π-periodic functions $\{f \in C[-\pi, \pi] : f(\pi) = f(-\pi)\}$.
- We define $R(\mathbb{T})$ to be the Riemann integrable functions over $\mathbb{T}$. Note that $R(\mathbb{T}) \supseteq C(\mathbb{T})$.

The space $C(\mathbb{T})$ has many nice norms.

- One such norm is
$$\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{\theta \in [-\pi,\pi]} |f(\theta)|.$$
In fact, $(C(\mathbb{T}), \|\cdot\|_\infty)$ is complete, so every Cauchy sequence in $C(\mathbb{T})$ converges to a limit in $C(\mathbb{T})$ with respect to $\|\cdot\|_\infty$.

- Another norm is given by
$$\|f\|_1 = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(\theta)| \, \mathrm{d}\theta.$$
Note that $C(\mathbb{T})$ is not complete with respect to $\|\cdot\|_1$; in fact, it is not even complete for $R(\mathbb{T})$, which hints to us that Riemann integrability may not be enough.

- For functions $f, g \in C(\mathbb{T})$, one can define an inner product by
$$\langle f, g\rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta)\overline{g(\theta)} \, \mathrm{d}\theta.$$
This gives us a norm
$$\|f\|_2 = \langle f, f\rangle^{1/2} = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |f(\theta)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}\theta\right)^{1/2}.$$

Now, let $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$, and assume that it makes sense to write it as
$$f(\theta) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n e^{in\theta}.$$
For example, the series could be uniformly convergent. What are the coefficients A_n?

Lemma 1.2

The set $\{e^{in\theta} : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is an orthonormal system in $C(\mathbb{T})$, with
$$\langle e^{in\theta}, e^{im\theta}\rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i(n-m)\theta} \, \mathrm{d}\theta = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = m, \\ 0, & \text{if } n \neq m. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, we would expect that
$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, e^{in\theta}\rangle &= \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} \, \mathrm{d}\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi}\lim_{N\to\infty}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\sum_{k=-N}^{N} A_k e^{ik\theta - in\theta} \, \mathrm{d}\theta \\ &= \lim_{N\to\infty}\sum_{k=-N}^{N} A_k \delta_{kn} = A_n. \end{aligned}$$
Putting the main ideas into one line, we expect that
$$A_n = \langle f, e^{in\theta}\rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) e^{-in\theta} \, \mathrm{d}\theta.$$

Definition 1.3

Let $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ (or $R(\mathbb{T})$). The **n-th Fourier coefficient** of f is defined to be

$$\hat{f}(n) := \frac{1}{2\pi} f(\theta)e^{-in\theta}\,\mathrm{d}\theta = \langle f, e^{in\theta}\rangle.$$

The (complex) Fourier series of f is then

$$f \sim \sum_{n\in\mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n)e^{in\theta}.$$

We now revisit the questions we asked earlier. In what sense does the Fourier series for f converge? For $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$, do we have

$$f(\theta) = \lim_{N\to\infty} \sum_{n=-N}^{N} \hat{f}(n)e^{in\theta} \tag{1.5}$$

for all $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$, meaning that we have pointwise convergence? Denoting $s_N(f)$ to be the N-th partial sum of the Fourier series, do we have

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \|f - s_N(f)\|_2 = 0, \tag{1.6}$$

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \|f - s_N(f)\|_1 = 0, \tag{1.7}$$

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} \|f - s_N(f)\|_\infty = 0, \tag{1.8}$$

for all $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$? We will show later that (1.8) implies both (1.5) and (1.6), and that (1.6) implies (1.7). So it would be great for (1.8) to hold (uniform convergence). Unfortunately, we have the following fact, which we will prove later.

Fact 1.4

There exists $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ and $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{T}$ such that

$$\left| \lim_{N\to\infty} s_N(f)(\theta_0) \right| = \infty.$$

That is, the Fourier series diverges.

So that isn't ideal, but the good news is that we have the following result due to Carleson.

Fact 1.5: Carleson

For all $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$, we have

$$\lim_{N\to\infty} s_n(f)(\theta) = f(\theta)$$

for "almost all" $\theta \in [-\pi, \pi]$.

Note that "almost all" is a measure theoretic notion which we will define more rigorously later. We list one more useful fact.

Fact 1.6

The sequence $\{s_n(f)\}_{N=1}^{\infty}$ is Cauchy with respect to $\|\cdot\|_2$ on $C(\mathbb{T})$, so

$$\lim_{N,M\to\infty} \|s_N(f) - s_M(f)\|_2 = 0.$$

In fact, we have $\|f - s_n(f)\|_2 \to 0$ (mean square convergence).

But wait! We know that $(C(\mathbb{T}), \|\cdot\|_2)$ is a normed vector space, but it isn't complete! Using metric space theory from PMATH 351, there exists a completion $L^2(\mathbb{T}) = \overline{C(\mathbb{T})}$ of $C(\mathbb{T})$ with respect to $\|\cdot\|_2$, so $s_n(f)$ is actually converging in this larger space.

What exactly is $L^2(\mathbb{T})$? It's the space of "Lebesgue measurable functions" $f : [-\pi, \pi] \to \mathbb{C}$ that are "square integrable" with respect to Lebesgue measure! Lebesgue measure is a generalization of Riemann's integration theory. It is very useful in modern mathematics, particularly in studying Fourier series and their convergence.

2 Lebesgue Measure and Integration

2.1 Riemann Integration

Recall that in Riemann's theory of integration, we start with a bounded function $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$. We could then obtain $\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$ via approximations of Riemann sums. More specifically, we take a partition

$$P = \{a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n = b\}$$

of the interval $[a, b]$. For each $1 \leq i \leq n$, we set $m_i = \inf_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i)} f(x)$ and $M_i = \sup_{x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i)} f(x)$. We define the **lower Riemann sum** by

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}),$$

and similarly, the **upper Riemann sum** by

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

It is clear for all partitions P of $[a, b]$ that $L(f, P) \leq U(f, P)$. Moreover, suppose P and Q are both partitions of $[a, b]$, and set $P \vee Q$ to be the partition consisting of all points in P and Q. Then recall that $P \vee Q$ refines both P and Q, and we have

$$L(f, P) \leq L(f, P \vee Q) \leq U(f, P \vee Q) \leq U(f, Q).$$

Interchanging P and Q above gives us $L(f, Q) \leq U(f, P)$, so we can deduce that

$$\sup_P L(f, P) \leq \inf_P U(f, P).$$

That is, any lower Riemann sum of a given partition will always be at most the upper Riemann sum of any other partition.

Definition 2.1

We say that $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is **Riemann integrable** if

$$\sup_P L(f, P) = \inf_P U(f, P).$$

In this case, we write

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = \sup_P L(f, P) = \inf_P U(f, P).$$

We write $R[a, b]$ to denote the vector space of Riemann integrable functions $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$.

Riemann's theory is good for many purposes, such as for the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus or analysis over smooth manifolds. But there are also many deficiencies.

- It forces f to be bounded and "almost continuous".
- It doesn't generalize to integration over sets that are not "like" $\mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R}^N$. Sometimes, one wants to integrate functions over irregular sets, such as fractals.

- There are no good limit theorems! If we have a sequence of Riemann integrable functions $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty} \subseteq R[a,b]$ and $f(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x)$ exists, then we would also want f to be Riemann integrable with
$$\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = \lim_{n\to\infty} \int_a^b f_n(x)\,\mathrm{d}x.$$
Unfortunately, this result is false! For example, one can take $f_n(x) = n^2 x^n (1-x)$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $f_n \to 0$ pointwise on $[0,1]$, but
$$\int_0^1 n^2 x^n (1-x)\,\mathrm{d}x = 1.$$