

Main Goal: Generalization of Fourier series on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ , then

$$f(t) \underset{=\text{when certain regularity}}{\sim} \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n e^{int}, \quad a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt.$$

Example of generalization ①:  $f \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n e^{int}$ , find  $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n, \dots\}$   
 $\downarrow$   
 $\text{by } n \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow \lambda_n$ , for such decomposition

Example of generalization ②: Extend Fourier series to more general ambient space.

e.g. on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ , etc.  $\Rightarrow$  Fourier analysis on group.

We can generalize space mentioned above. Here we

only consider locally compact Abelian group.

$\Downarrow$   
 We still have potential to go further.

but that will not be covered in this course (Some French  
 mathematicians)

Reference: Robert Young, and Folland's book.

$\Downarrow$   
 First 1980 (Revised 2001) originates in Folland's lecture note in 1993.

Other reference: Rudin (Fourier analysis on group) <sup>1960s</sup> hard to read! Assume solid background  
 $\Downarrow$   
 whose book is always harsh to read.  
 in Functional Analysis. Folland's book is  
 more self-contained.

1960s - 1970s (before Stein), when abstract harmonic flourished (by Rudin)

then Stein (more detailed style), then Bourgain, Wolff, ... now.

Trailer: Fourier inverse theorem  $\Rightarrow$  Pontryagin duality, one of the few example

We can see connection between category theory and analysis.

• Relative topic summer school (2023)

Assessment: Midterm between Part 1 ~ part 2, only on the first part.  
 (TBA)

Within 8 weeks, maybe in-class exam, mainly from the reference book  
 (at most one question from external source)

• Final, (may be on the part 2, TBA)  
 $\checkmark$  As is complicated.

Office Hour: Single Tuesday 4-6 p.m. (check e-mail)

Chapter 1: Bases in Banach spaces (only consider infinite-dim space as Finite-space is mainly Linear algebra)

Let  $X$  be an infinite-dimensional Banach space over  $\mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{R}$

**Def:** Hamel basis: maximal linearly independent subset (Existence supported by the Zorn's lemma, Axiom of choice), but it's hard to actually find!

**Def:** Schauder basis:  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\} \subset X$  is a Schauder basis for  $X$ , if every  $x \in X$  corresponds to unique scalars  $c_1, c_2, \dots$  s.t.  $x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n x_n$ , i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x - \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i\| = 0$$

Remark: Although Hamel and Schauder basis are different in some way, Schauder basis is the default basis throughout Part 1.

Remark: A Banach space with a basis must be separable

Proof:  $\{\sum_{i=1}^m c_i x_i \mid c_i \in \mathbb{Q} + i\mathbb{Q}\}$   $\downarrow$   $\exists$  a countable dense subset.

e.g.  $\ell^\infty$  has no basis

e.g.  $\ell^\infty$  has no basis



Banach Asked in 1932: "Does every separable Banach space have a basis?"

Answered by Per Enflo in 1973: No (the counter-example is quite tedious, most familiar examples have basis")

$\Downarrow$   
see exercise 1.3, b, 7, p2

## Section 1.2: Schauder basis for $C[a,b]$

continuous functions on  $[a,b]$  with norm  $\|f\| = \max_{a \leq t \leq b} |f(t)|$

Recall the Weierstrass approximation theorem:  $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \forall f \in C[a,b], \exists$  polynomial  $P$  s.t.

$$\|f - P\| < \varepsilon$$

\* possible approaches (there are many different ways)

Bernstein polynomial,  $n=0,1,2,\dots$

$$B_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) x^k (1-x)^{n-k}$$

then  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n(x)$  uniformly on  $[0,1]$  for every  $f \in C[0,1]$

that leads to Q: Does it give a basis? (most natural candidates  $\{x^k (1-x)^{n-k}, n=0,1,\dots\}$ )

but there will be problem in convergence, as we require  $\|f - \sum_{i=0}^m c_i x^i\| \rightarrow 0$  (only convergence for a sub-sequence)

Another point of view:

$$\exists \text{ polynomial } P \text{ s.t. } \|f - P\| < \epsilon.$$

Bernstein poly:  $n=0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$B_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) x^k (1-x)^{n-k}$$

Then  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n(x)$  uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ , for every  $f \in C[0, 1]$

Q: Does it give a basis ???

The most natural candidate is  $\{x^k (1-x)^{n-k} : k=0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

For a basis,  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots\} : \|f - \sum_{i=1}^m c_i x^i\| \rightarrow 0$

Another point of view, easier explanation of why that doesn't give a basis.

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} c_i x^i \right) - \sum_{i=1}^m c_i x^i = c_{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$B_m$  not possible! Independent of the form of a basis  $\{x^k (1-x)^{n-k}\}$

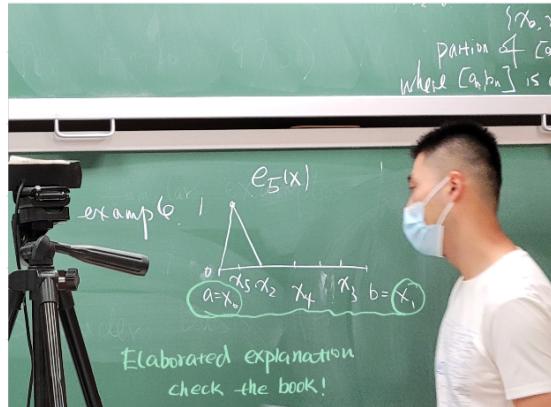
Theorem (Schauder):  $C[a, b]$  possess a basis.

Proof: Let  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots\} \subset [a, b]$  be a countable dense subset, and  $x_0 = a, x_1 = b$

and  $e_0(x) = 1, e_1(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}, e_2(x), \dots, e_n(x)$

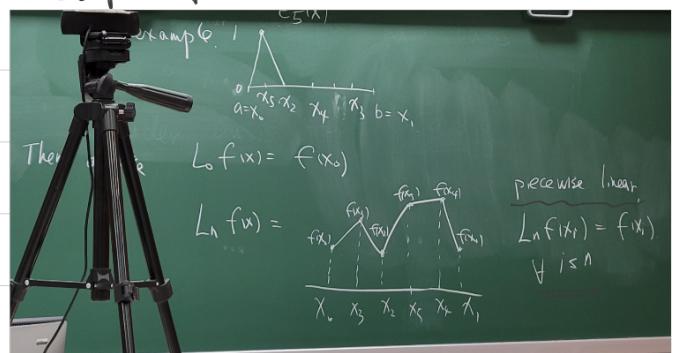


$\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$  gives a partition of  $[a, b]$ , and  $x_n \in [a, b]$ , where  $[a_n, b_n]$  is an interval from this partition



then dense  $L_0 f(x) = f(x_0)$

$L_1 f(x) =$

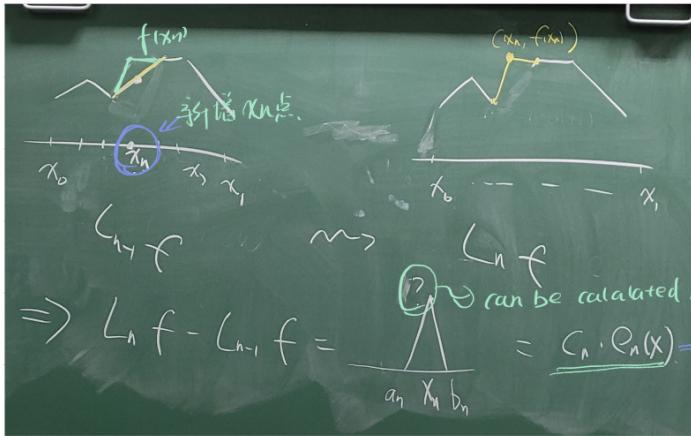


clearly,  $L_1 f \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , but how to connect  $e_n$  and  $L_1 f$ ?

First  $f = L_0 f + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (L_n f - L_{n-1} f)$

$f(x_0) = f(x_0) \cdot e_0(x)$  then what is  $L_n f - L_{n-1} f$ . see the following

illustration



So what is  $c_n$ ? In fact  $\begin{cases} c_0 = f(x_0) \\ c_n = (f - L_n f)(x_n) \end{cases}$  Hence we have shown the convergence now, we may consider the uniqueness.

uniqueness:  $f = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n e_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c'_n e_n$ , then

$$0 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (c_n - c'_n) e_n, \text{ notice that } e_n(x_i) = 0, \text{ for } i=0, \dots, n-1$$

$$\text{let } x=x_0 \Rightarrow c_0 = c'_0, \text{ take } x=x_1 \Rightarrow c_1 = c'_1$$

$$x=x_2 \Rightarrow c_2 = c'_2, \dots \Rightarrow \text{uniqueness.}$$

III

Exercise 3.4, 由面我們主要考慮 Hilbert space.

↓

Section 1.3 Orthonormal basis in Hilbert space.  
somebook requires Hilbert space to be separable by def

In a separable Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . We say  $\{e_1, e_2, \dots\}$  is an orthonormal basis, if it's a basis, and  $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle = \delta_{i,j}$

inner product in this Hilbert space.

• An orthonormal basis  $\Leftrightarrow$  A complete orthonormal sequence

$$\text{span}\{e_1, \dots\}^\perp = \{0\}$$

• Basis expansion  $f = \sum c_f, e_n e_n$   
Fourier coefficients

• Parseval's Identity  $\|f\|^2 = \sum |\langle f, e_n \rangle|^2$ , more generally

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \sum \langle c_f, e_n \rangle \cdot \overline{\langle c_g, e_n \rangle}$$

→ Conversely, if  $f = \sum c_f, e_n e_n$ , where  $\{e_n\}$  is an orthonormal sequence

then  $\{e_n\}$  is a basis (It has the uniqueness)

Proof: It suffices to show the uniqueness, if

$$f = \sum c_n e_n = \sum c'_n e_n \Rightarrow 0 = \sum (c_n - c'_n) e_n, \text{ then}$$

$$0 = \langle c_0, e_0 \rangle = \langle \sum (c_n - c'_n) e_n, e_0 \rangle = c_0 - c'_0 \Rightarrow c_0 = c'_0$$

Note that if we remove the orthogonality, then this result is False!

$$f = \sum c_f e_n \rightarrow \text{basis}$$

Example: In  $L^2[0, \pi] \subset \underbrace{L^2[-\pi, \pi]}$

We have Fourier series.  $f \sim \sum a_n e^{int}$ ,  $a_n = \langle f, \underbrace{e^{int}}_{e_n} \rangle$

For  $g \in L^2[0, \pi]$  extend  $\tilde{g} \in L^2[-\pi, \pi]$  ( $\neq 0$ ), then  $g(t) = \sum \langle \tilde{g}, e_n \rangle_{L^2[-\pi, \pi]} e_n \text{ in } [0, \pi]$   
 $= \sum \langle g, e_n \rangle_{L^2[0, \pi]} e_n \text{ in } [0, \pi]$

That leads to  $g = \sum c_g e_n$ ,  $\forall g \in L^2[0, \pi]$ , the uniqueness fails, as the extension from  $L^2[0, \pi] \rightarrow L^2[-\pi, \pi]$  is not unique. (不一定非0的自然延伸)

这时  $\{e_n\}$  在  $[-\pi, \pi]$  上正交, 但在  $[0, \pi]$  上很多不是, 就不正交了!

Trailer: In  $\frac{1}{3}$  of this class, we will consider some scenarios like this expansion not unique  
↓  
Named Fourier frame. Also quite useful.