Fourier Analysis for Engineers

S. CHANDRASEKARAN

March 31, 2009

Chapter 1 Basic real analysis

A good reference for this chapter is the book *Advanced Mathematical Analysis* by Richard Beals. We will denote the set of real numbers by \mathbb{R} . We will assume that the basic properties of the real numbers are obvious. The one non-obvious property we will assume as an axiom.

Definition 1.1. A number M is said to be an **upper bound** for a subset S of \mathbb{R} if $s \leq M$ for all $s \in S$.

Axiom 1.2. If S is a subset of \mathbb{R} with a finite upper bound, then there exists a number lub(S), called the **least upper bound** of S, which is an upper bound of S that is less than every other upper bound of S.

Exercise 1.1. Show that for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is an $x \in S$ such that $x > \text{lub}(S) - \epsilon$.

Exercise 1.2. Give an example of a bounded subset of the rational numbers that has no greatest lower bound.

Definition 1.3. A number L is said to be a lower bound for a subset S of \mathbb{R} if $s \ge L$ for all $s \in S$.

Lemma 1.4. If S is a subset of \mathbb{R} with a finite lower bound, then there exists a number glb(S), called the **greatest lower bound** of S, which is a lower bound of S that is greater than every other lower bound of S.

Proof. Exercise. *Hint*: Apply axiom 1.2 to -S.

Notation 1.5. The least upper bound of S is also called the **supremum** of S and denoted by $\sup(S)$. Similarly the greatest lower bound of S is also called the **infimum** of S and denoted by $\inf(S)$.

Exercise 1.3. Show that $\inf(S) \leq \sup(S)$.

Definition 1.6. Let a < b. Then the subset $\{x \mid a < x < b\}$ of \mathbb{R} is called an **open interval** and denoted by (a, b).

Definition 1.7. An open ball centered at a of radius r is the open interval (a - r, a + r) and is denoted by $B_r(a)$.

Definition 1.8. A neighborhood of a point is an open ball centered at that point.

Definition 1.9. A subset S of \mathbb{R} is said to be **open** if every point in S has a neighborhood that is contained in S. The empty set is assumed to be open.

Exercise 1.4. Show that an open interval is an open set.

Proposition 1.10. The (possibly infinite) union of open sets is open.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.11. The finite intersection of open sets is open.

Proof. Exercise.

Definition 1.12. A point x is said to be a limit point of a subset S if every neighborhood of x also contains a point of S other than x itself.

Exercise 1.5. Show that a and b are limit points of the open interval (a.b).

Definition 1.13. Let $a \leq b$. Then the subset $\{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$ of \mathbb{R} is called a closed interval and denoted by [a, b].

Definition 1.14. A subset of \mathbb{R} is said to be closed if it contains all its limit points. The empty set is assumed to be closed.

Exercise 1.6. Let $-\infty < a < b < \infty$. Show that [a, b] is a closed set.

Exercise 1.7. Show that a finite subset of \mathbb{R} has no limit points. Thus they are closed (vacuously).

Exercise 1.8. Show that if $x \notin S$ is not a limit point of S then there is a neighborhood of x that does not intersect S.

Exercise 1.9. Show that the finite union of closed sets is a closed set. *Hint*: Show that if x is not in the union then it has a ball, one for each closed set, that does not intersect that closed set. The intersection of these balls gives a non-intersecting ball. Thus the union is not missing a limit point.

Exercise 1.10. Show that the (possibly infinite) intersection of closed sets is a closed set.

Notation 1.15. If S is a subset let $S^c = \{x \mid x \notin S\}$ denote the complement of S.

Exercise 1.11. Show that $(\bigcup_n S_n)^c = \bigcap_n S_n^c$, where S_n is a set. The number of sets can be infinite. **Exercise 1.12.** Show that an open set can be written as the (possibly infinite) union of open intervals.

Proposition 1.16. A subset is open iff its complement is closed.

Proof. Exercise.

Definition 1.17. A sequence of numbers x_n for n = 1, 2, ..., is said to have a limit x, if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists an N such that for all n > N, $|x_n - x| < \epsilon$. We denote this by $\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} x_n = x$, and say that the sequence x_n converges to x. If such an x does not exist we say that the sequence x_n diverges.

Exercise 1.13. Show that the sequence $x_n = n$ for n = 1, 2, ..., diverges.

Exercise 1.14. Show that the sequence $x_n = (-1)^n$ for n = 1, 2, ..., diverges.

Exercise 1.15. Show that the limit of a sequence is unique if it exists.

Exercise 1.16. Show that a convergent sequence is bounded.

Exercise 1.17. Let x_n be a bounded sequence of non-decreasing real numbers; that is, there is an $M < \infty$ such that $|x_n| < M$, and $x_n \leq x_{n+1}$. Show that $\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} x_n$ exists. *Hint*: Look at the supremum of the set $\{x_n\}$.

Exercise 1.18. Show that if a > 0 then $\lim_{n \to \infty} a^{1/n} = 1$. *Hint*: If a < 1 then this is an increasing sequence.

Exercise 1.19. Show that $\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} n^{1/n} = 1$. *Hint*: Let $n^{1/n} = 1 + x_n$. Then by the binomial expansion $n \ge 1 + n x_n + \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)x_n^2 \ge \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)x_n^2$.

Let x_n be a bounded real sequence and define $A_N = \{x_n \mid n \ge N\}$, $l_N = \inf(A_N)$ and $u_N = \sup(A_N)$.

Exercise 1.20. Show that l_N is a bounded non-decreasing sequence and u_N is a bounded non-increasing sequence. Therefore both $\lim_{N\uparrow\infty} l_N$ and $\lim_{N\uparrow\infty} u_N$ exist.

Exercise 1.21. Let $x_1 = -1$, $x_2 = 4$ and $x_n = n \mod 4$ for $n = 3, 4, \ldots$ Find $\lim_{N \uparrow \infty} l_N$ and $\lim_{N \uparrow \infty} u_N$ for this sequence.

Definition 1.18. Let x_n be a bounded real sequence. We call $\lim_{N\uparrow\infty} l_N$ as the lower limit of the sequence x_n and denote it by $\liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n$. We call $\lim_{N\uparrow\infty} u_N$ as the upper limit of the sequence x_n and denote it by $\limsup_{n \to \infty} x_n$.

Exercise 1.22. Show that $l_N \leq u_M$.

Exercise 1.23. Show that $\liminf x_n \leq \limsup x_n$.

Exercise 1.24. Show that if $\liminf x_n < \limsup x_n$, then the sequence x_n diverges.

Exercise 1.25. Show that $\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} x_n = \liminf_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_{x_n \to \infty} x_n$ iff the sequence is converging.

Definition 1.19. A sequence of numbers x_n for n = 1, 2, ..., is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there is an integer N such that for all n, m > N, $|x_n - x_m| < \epsilon$.

Exercise 1.26. Show that if a sequence of real numbers converges then it is a Cauchy sequence.

Exercise 1.27. Show that a Cauchy sequence is bounded.

Exercise 1.28. Show that for a Cauchy sequence $\lim \inf x_n = \lim \sup x_n$. Therefore a Cauchy sequence of real numbers must converge.

Let x_n be a real sequence. Let $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$ be the N-th partial sum of the infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n$. We say that the infinite series converges to s if $\lim_{N \uparrow \infty} S_N = s$. We denote this by $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n = s$. Othewise we say that the infinite series diverges.

While this definition seems obvious and well-defined, it is not the case. The following two examples are from Beals.

Example 1.20. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-1}$ diverges. To see this observe that

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots \\ &\geqslant \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + 4\frac{1}{8} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots \\ &= \infty. \end{split}$$

Exercise 1.29. Show that if |x| < 1 then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1/(1-x)$.

Exercise 1.30. Riemann. Show that the sum $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ can be rearranged to converge to any real number.

This is the reason why convergence as we have defined it for series can be problematic.

Example 1.21. The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-2}$ converges. To see this observe that

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} &= 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{5}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^2 + \dots \\ &\leqslant 1 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \dots \\ &= 1 + 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 4\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + 8\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^2 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots \\ &= 2. \end{split}$$

Exercise 1.31. Show that if the sum $\sum_n x_n$ converges then $\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} x_n = 0$. *Hint*: The partial sums are a Cauchy sequence. Consider $|S_n - S_{n+1}|$.

Exercise 1.32. Generalize the above two examples to show that if $0 \leq a_{n+1} \leq a_n$, then $\sum a_n$ converges iff $\sum 2^k a_{2^k}$ converges.

Exercise 1.33. Show that $\sum n^{-1} (\log n)^{-2}$ converges while $\sum n^{-1} (\log n)^{-1}$ diverges.

Exercise 1.34. Let $0 \leq a_{n+1} \leq a_n$ and let f be a monotonic non-increasing function such that $f(n) = a_n$. Show that $\sum a_n$ converges iff $\int_1^\infty f(x) dx$ converges.

Exercise 1.35. Show that $\sum a_n$ converges for $a_n = n^{-p}$ if p > 1 and diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Proposition 1.22. Comparison test. Let $\sum_n a_n$ be a positive converging series. Then if $|x_n| \leq a_n$, then $\sum_n x_n$ is also converging.

Proof. Exercise.

Proposition 1.23. Ratio test. (a) If $\limsup |z_{n+1}/z_n| < 1$ then $\sum z_n$ converges. (b) If $\lim \inf |z_{n+1}/z_n| > 1$ then $\sum z_n$ diverges.

Proof. (a). For sufficiently large $N |z_{n+1}/z_n| \leq r < 1$. Exercise. Finish the proof. (b). Observe that z_n cannot approach 0.

Exercise 1.36. Show that $\sum z^n/n!$ converges for all values of z.

Definition 1.24. Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R} . A family A_n of sets is said to cover S if $S \subset \bigcup_n A_n$.

Definition 1.25. A subset S of \mathbb{R} is said to be **compact** if every open cover of S has a finite sub-cover. That is, if the family of open sets A_n covers S, then there are sets $A_{n_1}, A_{n_2}, ..., A_{n_m}$ such that $S \subset \bigcup_{k=1}^m A_{n_k}$.

Example 1.26. \mathbb{R} is not compact since the family $A_n = (n, n+2)$ has no finite sub-cover.

Example 1.27. The set (0, 1) is not compact. The open cover $A_n = \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right)$ has no finite subcover.

Example 1.28. A finite subset of \mathbb{R} is compact.

Theorem 1.29. Bolzano-Weierstrass. Let x_n be a sequence in a closed and bounded subset S of \mathbb{R} . Then there is a sub-sequence of x_n that converges to a point in S.

Proof. If there are only finite number of distinct points in x_n there is nothing to prove. So assume otherwise. Since S is bounded we can find a closed interval $I_0 = [a_0, b_0]$ that covers S. Since there are infinitely many distinct points in x_n one of the two intervals $[a_0, \frac{a_0+b_0}{2}]$ and $[\frac{a_0+b_0}{2}, b_0]$ must contain infinitely many points of x_n . Call that interval $I_1 = [a_1, b_1]$. Pick a point of the sequence x_{n_1} in I_1 and remove it from further consideration. Proceed thus to construct $I_k = [a_k, b_k]$ and a corresponding point of the sequence x_{n_k} in I_k . Note that $\lim b_k - a_k = 0$, since the intervals are halved every time and we started with an interval of finite length. Clearly the sequence we constructed is Cauchy. Exercise: finish the proof.

Theorem 1.30. Heine-Borel theorem. A subset of \mathbb{R} is compact iff it is closed and bounded.

Proof. Suppose S is a compact subset. For each $x \in S$ let $A_x = B_1(x)$. Since this is an open cover of S there is a finite sub-cover from it. From this it follows that S is bounded. Exercise: provide the details.

Let $x \in S^c$. For every $y \in S$ there is a ball centered at y that does not include x. These provide an open cover of S. There is a finite sub-cover from these balls none of which intersect x. Hence there is a ball at x that does not intersect the finite sub-cover, and hence does not intersect S. Therefore S^c is open.

To prove the converse let S be a closed and bounded subset of \mathbb{R} . Let A_n be an open cover of S. For each $x \in A_n$ take every ball centered at x that is entirely contained in A_n . The set of all such balls forms an open cover of S. Clearly if we can prove that there is a finite sub-cover from this set we can get a corresponding finite sub-cover for A_n . So we restrict our attention to these open balls at each $x \in S$. For each $x \in S$ consider the supremum of the radii of all balls centered at x that are in the open cover and pick a ball whose radius is at least half this supremum. Call this ball at x as $B_{r(x)}(x)$. We claim that the infimum of r(x) is strictly greater than 0. Suppose it is not. Then the infimum is 0. This implies that there is a sequence in x_n with $\lim_{n\uparrow\infty} r(x_n) = 0$. Pick a converging sub-sequence of x_n and call that as x_n . Let x = $\lim_{n\uparrow\infty} x_n \in S$. But there is a finite open ball at x in the open cover. Which implies that for every x_n in this ball there is a ball of sufficiently large radius. Therefore the infimum cannot be 0 since we tried to pick large enough balls. Therefore for every $x \in S$ we can pick a ball in the open cover whose radius is bigger than some $\delta > 0$. Exercise: from this show that we can pick a finite number of open balls to cover S since it is bounded. **Example 1.31.** The set $\left\{0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \ldots\right\}$ is compact since it is closed and bounded.

Definition 1.32. A function f from an open subset S of \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{R} is said to be continuous at a point $x \in S$ if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ for all $y \in B_{\delta}(x)$.

Exercise 1.37. Let x_n be a converging sequence in S. Show that if f is continuous at x then $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = f(\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n)$.

Definition 1.33. A function is said to be **continuous** on S if it is continuous at each point of S.

Definition 1.34. A function is said to be uniformly continuous on S if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in S$ with $|x - y| < \delta$ it is true that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$.

Note that δ is not allowed to depend on x.

Exercise 1.38. Show that sin(1/x) is not uniformly continuous on (0, 1) even though it is continuous at every point on (0, 1).

Theorem 1.35. If $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on a compact set S then f is uniformly continuous on S.

Proof. At each point $x \in S$ pick a suitable a sufficiently small ball so that within that ball the function varies by no more than ϵ . These balls form an open cover. Pick a finite sub-cover and choose the smallest radius of the finite sub-cover as δ .

Theorem 1.36. If f is a continuus function on the compact set S then there is a point $x \in S$ such that $f(x) = \sup \{f(y) | y \in S\}$.

Proof. First we need to show that f is bounded on S. Suppose not. Then there is a sequence x_n in S with $|f(x_n)| > \frac{1}{n}$. Pick a converging sub-sequence and show that f is not continuous at the limit point.

Let x_n be a sequence of points in S such that $\lim f(x_n) = \sup_S f$. Then there is a converging sub-sequence of x_n in S and the continuity of f proves the theorem. \Box

Theorem 1.37. Intermediate Value Theorem. Let f be continuous on [a, b]. Let c be a value between f(a) and f(b). Then there is an $x \in [a, b]$ such that f(x) = c.

Proof. Assume wolog that $f(a) \leq c \leq f(b)$. Using bisection we can find a sequence of nested closed intervals that are shrinking to zero and the function is guaranteed to bracket c in each of these intervals. Now compactness and continuity yield the result. Exercise: fill in the details. \Box

Definition 1.38. A sequence of continuous functions $f_n: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to converge uniformly to the function $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$, if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a N such that for all n > N and all $x \in S$ $|f(x) - f_n(x)| < \epsilon$.

Theorem 1.39. If the sequence of continuous functions f_n on the set S is converging uniformly to the function f, then f is continuous on S.

Proof. Pick n such that $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ for $x \in S$. Pick δ such that for $|x - y| < \delta$, $|f_n(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$. Then

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x) - f_n(y)| + |f_n(y) - f(y)| \\ \leq \epsilon + \epsilon + \epsilon.$$

Read up on Riemann integration in the appendix of Stein & Shakarchi's book. We will use it freely in the sequel.

Proposition 1.40. If f and g are integrable functions on [a, b] and c is a real number then

$$\int_a^b (f+cg) = \int_a^b f+c \int_a^b g.$$

Theorem 1.41. If f is a continuous function on [a, b] then it is integrable on [a, b].

Proposition 1.42. If f is integrable on [a, b] and $|f(x)| \leq M$ on [a, b] then $\left| \int_{a}^{b} f \right| \leq M(b-a)$.

Proposition 1.43. If a < b < c then

$$\int_{a}^{c} f = \int_{a}^{b} f + \int_{b}^{c} f$$

holds whenever one side holds.

Theorem 1.44. Suppose f_n is a sequence of continuous functions that is converging uniformly to f on [a, b], then

$$\lim_{n \uparrow \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f_{n} = \int_{a}^{b} \lim_{n \uparrow \infty} f_{n} = \int_{a}^{b} f.$$

Proof. f is continuous and hence integrable. Then

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f_{n} - \int_{a}^{b} f \right| = \left| \int_{a}^{b} f_{n} - f \right| \leq \sup_{a \leq x \leq b} |f_{n}(x) - f(x)| |a - b|,$$

which proves the result.

Definition 1.45. A function f on (a, b) is said to be differentiable at $x \in (a, b)$ if

$$\lim_{y \to x} \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y}$$

exists. The limit is denoted by f'(x) and is called the **derivative** of f at x.

Proposition 1.46. If f is differentiable at x then it is continuous at x.

Theorem 1.47. Mean Value Theorem. Let $f: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable on (a, b). Then for some $c \in (a, b)$

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

Proof. Consider the function $g(x) = f(x) - \left(f(a)\frac{x-b}{a-b} + f(b)\frac{x-a}{b-a}\right)$. Then g(a) = g(b) = 0 and $g'(x) = f'(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a}$. We just need to show that there is a c for which g'(c) = 0. The candidate points are the points of maxima and minima which are guaranteed to exist. Let c^* be a point where g becomes maximum and c_* be a point where g becomes minimum. If both c^* and c_* are end-points then g = 0 and the proof is done. Wolog let $c^* \in (a, b)$. Then $g(x) \leq g(c^*)$. It follows that

$$\frac{g(c^*) - g(x)}{c^* - x}$$

is non-negative if $x < c^*$ and non-positive if $x > c^*$. It follows that the limit must be $0 = g'(c^*)$.