

Erik Talvila, Department of Mathematics and Statistics, University of the Fraser Valley, Chilliwack, BC V2R 0N3, Canada.  
email: Erik.Talvila@ufv.ca

## FOURIER SERIES WITH THE CONTINUOUS PRIMITIVE INTEGRAL

### Abstract

Fourier series are considered for the space of periodic distributions that are the distributional derivative of a continuous function. This space of distributions is denoted  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and is a Banach space under the Alexiewicz norm,  $\|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} = \sup_{|I| \leq 2\pi} |\int_I f|$ , the supremum being taken over intervals of length not exceeding  $2\pi$ . It contains the periodic functions integrable in the sense of Lebesgue and Henstock–Kurzweil. Many of the properties of  $L^1$  Fourier series continue to hold for this larger space, with the  $L^1$  norm replaced by the Alexiewicz norm. The Riemann–Lebesgue lemma takes the form  $\hat{f}(n) = o(n)$  as  $|n| \rightarrow \infty$ . The convolution is defined for  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and  $g$  a periodic function of bounded variation. There is the estimate  $\|f * g\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \|g\|_{BV}$ . For  $g \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\|f * g\|_{\mathbb{T}} \leq \|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \|g\|_1$ . The convolution of  $f$  with a sequence of summability kernels converges to  $f$  in the Alexiewicz norm. Let  $D_n$  be the Dirichlet kernel and let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ . Then  $\|D_n * f - f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

### 1 Introduction and notation.

In this talk we consider Fourier series on the unit circle,  $\mathbb{T}$  (“ $\mathbb{T}$ ” for thircle). Proofs can be found in [4], where many further results also appear. Slides from the talk are available at <http://www.math.ualberta.ca/~etalvila/research.html>.

Progress in Fourier analysis has paralleled progress in theories of integration. We describe below the *continuous primitive integral*. This is an integral

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that includes the Lebesgue, Henstock–Kurzweil and wide Denjoy integrals. It has a simple definition in terms of distributions. The space of distributions integrable in this sense is a Banach space under the Alexiewicz norm. Many properties of Fourier series that hold for  $L^1$  functions continue to hold in this larger space with the  $L^1$  norm replaced by the Alexiewicz norm.

We use the following notation for distributions. The space of *test functions* is  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R}) = C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}) = \{\phi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid \phi \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \text{ and } \text{supp}(\phi) \text{ is compact}\}$ . The *support* of function  $\phi$  is the closure of the set on which  $\phi$  does not vanish and is denoted  $\text{supp}(\phi)$ . Under usual pointwise operations  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  is a linear space over field  $\mathbb{R}$ . In  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  we have a notion of convergence. If  $\{\phi_n\} \subset \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  then  $\phi_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  if there is a compact set  $K \subset \mathbb{R}$  such that for each  $n$ ,  $\text{supp}(\phi_n) \subset K$ , and for each  $m \geq 0$  we have  $\phi_n^{(m)} \rightarrow 0$  uniformly on  $K$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The *distributions* are denoted  $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  and are the continuous linear functionals on  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ . For  $T \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\phi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  we write  $\langle T, \phi \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ . For  $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $\langle T, a\phi + b\psi \rangle = a\langle T, \phi \rangle + b\langle T, \psi \rangle$ . And, if  $\phi_n \rightarrow 0$  in  $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  then  $\langle T, \phi_n \rangle \rightarrow 0$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Linear operations are defined in  $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  by  $\langle aS + bT, \phi \rangle = a\langle S, \phi \rangle + b\langle T, \phi \rangle$  for  $S, T \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ ;  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\phi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ . If  $f \in L^1_{loc}$  then  $\langle T_f, \phi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\phi(x) dx$  defines a distribution  $T_f \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ . The integral exists as a Lebesgue integral. All distributions have derivatives of all orders that are themselves distributions. For  $T \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\phi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  the distributional derivative of  $T$  is  $T'$  where  $\langle T', \phi \rangle = -\langle T, \phi' \rangle$ . If  $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function that is differentiable in the pointwise sense at  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  then we write its derivative as  $p'(x)$ . For  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  define the *translation*  $\tau_x$  on distribution  $T \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  by  $\langle \tau_x T, \phi \rangle = \langle T, \tau_{-x}\phi \rangle$  for test function  $\phi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$  where  $\tau_x\phi(y) = \phi(y - x)$ . A distribution  $T \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$  is *periodic* if  $\langle \tau_p T, \phi \rangle = \langle T, \phi \rangle$  for some  $p > 0$  and all  $\phi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ . The least such positive  $p$  is the *period*.

The Lebesgue integral of  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is characterised by saying there is an absolutely continuous function  $F$  (the primitive) such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for almost all  $x$ . The integral is then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$ . There is a similar definition of the Henstock–Kurzweil integral using a larger class of primitives. See [1]. The continuous primitive integral is defined using a continuous primitive function. Define the primitives by  $\mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T}) = \{F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid F \in C(\mathbb{R}), F(-\pi) = 0, F(x) = F(y) + nF(\pi) \text{ if } y \in [-\pi, \pi), x = y + 2n\pi \text{ for } n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is a Banach space under the uniform norm  $\|F\|_{\mathbb{T}, \infty} = \sup_{|\alpha - \beta| \leq 2\pi} |F(\alpha) - F(\beta)|$ . The integrable distributions are then given by  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T}) = \{\tilde{f} \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R}) \mid f = F' \text{ for some } F \in \mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})\}$ . For  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  the integral of  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is  $\int_a^b f = F(b) - F(a)$  where  $F \in \mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and  $F' = f$ . The distributional differential equation  $T' = 0$  has only constant solutions and we have made our primitives in  $\mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  vanish at  $-\pi$  so the primitive of a distribution in  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is unique. See [2] for more on the continuous primitive

integral.

If  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a periodic function that is locally integrable in the Lebesgue, Henstock–Kurzweil or wide Denjoy sense then  $T_f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . This follows since the primitives for these integrals are continuous functions. As well, if  $F \in \mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is a function of Weierstrass type that is continuous but has a pointwise derivative nowhere then the distributional derivative of  $F$  exists and  $F' \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . If  $F$  is a continuous singular function, so that  $F'(x) = 0$  a.e., then  $F' \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and the continuous primitive integral is  $\int_a^b F' = F(b) - F(a)$ . In this case,  $F' \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$  but the Lebesgue integral gives  $\int_a^b F'(x) dx = 0$ .

The *Alexiewicz norm* of  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is  $\|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} = \sup_{|I| \leq 2\pi} |\int_I f|$ , the supremum being taken over intervals of length not exceeding  $2\pi$ . We have  $\|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} = \|F\|_{\mathbb{T}, \infty} = \max_{|\beta - \alpha| \leq 2\pi} |F(\beta) - F(\alpha)|$  where  $F \in \mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is the primitive of  $f$ . The integral provides a linear isometry and isomorphism between  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and  $\mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . Define  $\Phi: \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T}) \rightarrow \mathcal{B}_c(\mathbb{T})$  by  $\Phi[f](x) = \int_{-\pi}^x f$ . Then  $\Phi$  is a linear bijection and  $\|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} = \|\Phi[f]\|_{\mathbb{T}, \infty}$ . Hence,  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  is a Banach space. The spaces of periodic Lebesgue, Henstock–Kurzweil and wide Denjoy integrable functions are all subspaces of  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  but are not complete in the Alexiewicz norm. The space  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  furnishes their completion.

The multipliers and dual space of  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  are given by the periodic functions of bounded variation,  $\mathcal{BV}(\mathbb{T})$ . Using a Riemann–Stieltjes integral, the integration by parts formula is

$$\int_{-\pi}^x fg = F(x)g(x) - \int_{-\pi}^x F(t) dg(t), \quad x \in [-\pi, \pi]. \quad (1)$$

From this we get the following version of the Hölder inequality.

**Proposition 1** (Hölder inequality). *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . If  $g \in \mathcal{BV}(\mathbb{T})$  then  $|\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} fg| \leq |\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f| \inf |g| + \|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} Vg \leq \|f\|_{\mathbb{T}} (\|g\|_{\infty} + Vg)$ .*

## 2 Fourier coefficients.

Let  $e_n(t) = e^{int}$ . If  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  then the Fourier coefficients of  $f$  are  $\hat{f}(n) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f e^{-in} = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) e^{-int} dt$ , where  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $F(x) = \int_{-\pi}^x f$  be the primitive of  $f$ . Integrating by parts as in (1) gives

$$\hat{f}(n) = (-1)^n F(\pi) + in \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(t) e^{-int} dt. \quad (2)$$

This last integral is the Riemann integral of a continuous function. Formula (2) can be used as an alternative definition of  $\hat{f}(n)$ .

**Theorem 2.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . Then (a)  $|\hat{f}(n)| \leq |F(\pi)| + |n| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |F|$  where  $F(x) = \int_{-\pi}^x f$  (b) for  $n \neq 0$ ,  $|\hat{f}(n)| \leq 4\sqrt{2}|n|\|f\|_{\mathbb{T}}$  (c)  $\hat{f}(n) = o(n)$  as  $|n| \rightarrow \infty$  and this estimate is sharp.*

Part (c) is a version of the Riemann–Lebesgue lemma for the continuous primitive integral.

The next theorem shows that when we have a sequence converging in the Alexiewicz norm, the Fourier coefficients also converge.

**Theorem 3.** *For  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $f, f_j \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  such that  $\|f_j - f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . Then for each  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  we have  $\hat{f}_j(n) \rightarrow \hat{f}(n)$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . The convergence need not be uniform in  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .*

### 3 Convolution.

For  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and  $g \in \mathcal{BV}(\mathbb{T})$  the convolution is  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f \circ r_x)g$  where  $r_x(t) = x - t$ . We write this as  $f * g(x) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x - t)g(t) dt$ . This integral exists for all such  $f$  and  $g$ . The convolution inherits smoothness properties from  $f$  and  $g$ . The convolution was considered for the continuous primitive integral on the real line in [3]. Many of the results of that paper are easily adapted to the setting of  $\mathbb{T}$ , especially differentiation and integration theorems which we do not reproduce here.

**Theorem 4.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and let  $g \in \mathcal{BV}(\mathbb{T})$ . Then (a)  $f * g \in C(\mathbb{T})$  (b)  $f * g = g * f$  (c)  $\|f * g\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_{\mathbb{T}}\|g\|_{\mathcal{BV}}$  (d) for  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  we have  $\tau_y(f * g) = (\tau_y f) * g = f * (\tau_y g)$ . (e) If  $h \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$  then  $f * (g * h) = (f * g) * h \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . (f) We have  $\widehat{f * g}(n) = \hat{f}(n)\hat{g}(n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .*

Convolutions can also be defined for  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and  $g \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$  using the density of  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$  in  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . See [4] for details.

### 4 Convergence.

The series  $\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(n)e^{int}$  is known as the Fourier series of  $f$ . If  $f$  is a smooth enough function then the Fourier series of  $f$  converges to  $f$  pointwise. For example, if the pointwise derivative  $f'(x)$  exists then the Fourier series converges to  $f$  at  $x$ .

First we consider summability kernels.

**Definition 5.** *A summability kernel is a sequence  $\{k_n\} \subset \mathcal{BV}(\mathbb{T})$  such that  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} k_n = 1$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{|s| > \delta} |k_n(s)| ds = 0$  for each  $0 < \delta \leq \pi$  and there is  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  so that  $\|k_n\|_1 \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

**Theorem 6.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . Let  $k_n$  be a summability kernel. Then  $\|f * k_n - f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

A commonly used summability kernel is the Fejér kernel,

$$k_n(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-n}^n \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{n+1}\right) e^{ikt} = \frac{1}{2\pi(n+1)} \left[ \frac{\sin((n+1)t/2)}{\sin(t/2)} \right]^2.$$

**Lemma 7.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . Then  $f * e_n(x) = \hat{f}(n)e^{inx}$ . Let  $g(t) = \sum_{-n}^n a_k e_k(t)$  for a sequence  $\{a_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f * g(x) = \sum_{-n}^n a_k \hat{f}(k) e^{ikx}$ .*

The proof follows from the identity  $e_n(x-t) = e_n(x)e_n(-t)$  and linearity of the integral.

The lemma allows us to prove that trigonometric polynomials are dense in  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  and gives a uniqueness result. Let  $k_n$  be the Fejér kernel and define  $\sigma_n[f] = k_n * f$ . From Theorem 6 we have  $\sigma_n[f] \rightarrow f$  in the Alexiewicz norm. The Lemma shows  $\sigma_n[f]$  is a trigonometric polynomial. Hence, the trigonometric polynomials are dense in  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ .

**Theorem 8.** *Let  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ . The trigonometric polynomials are dense in  $\mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$ ;*

$$\sigma_n[f](t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-n}^n \left(1 - \frac{|k|}{n+1}\right) \hat{f}(k) e^{ikt} \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - \sigma_n[f]\|_{\mathbb{T}} = 0. \quad (3)$$

*If  $\hat{f}(n) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  then  $f = 0$ .*

For  $n \geq 0$  define the Dirichlet kernel  $D_n(t) = \sum_{-n}^n e^{ikt} = \sin[(n+1/2)t]/\sin(t/2)$ . Notice that according to the definition in Theorem 6,  $D_n$  is not a summability kernel. In fact,  $\|D_n\|_1 \sim (4/\pi^2) \log(n)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . However,  $\|D_n\|_{\mathbb{T}}$  are bounded. This shows that  $D_n * f$  converges to  $f$  in  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathbb{T}}$  for  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ .

**Theorem 9.** *The sequence  $\|D_n\|_{\mathbb{T}}$  is bounded. Let  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ . Then  $\|D_n * f - f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .*

Since the Dirichlet kernels are not uniformly bounded in the  $L^1$  norm there is a function  $f \in \mathcal{A}_c(\mathbb{T})$  such that  $\|D_n * f - f\|_{\mathbb{T}} \not\rightarrow 0$ . See [4] for an example. This example, together with Theorem 9 shows the value of the Alexiewicz norm, even for  $L^1$  functions.

## References

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