LECTURE 8: CONVOLUTION

1. DIRICHLET KERNEL

One quantity of importance in the study of Fourier series is the Dirichlet kernel, defined as follows:

Definition: [Dirichlet Kernel]

$$D_N(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^{N} e^{inx}$$

(Think of it as a function with Fourier coefficients 1 and then 0)

The cool thing is that there is actually a closed formula for D_N

Fact:

$$D_N(x) = \frac{\sin\left(\left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right)x\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}$$

Why? Can do it directly, using geometric sums¹, or consider the following:

$$(e^{ix} - 1) D_N(x) = e^{ix} D_N - D_N = \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{i(n+1)x} - \sum_{n=-N}^N e^{inx} = e^{i(N+1)x} - e^{-iNx}$$

Date: Thursday, July 14, 2022.

¹See Example 4 in Chapter 2 of Stein and Shakarchi

The last step is because we have a telescoping sum, so the only thing that remains is the last (N + 1) term and the first (-N) term.

Multiplying both sides by $e^{\frac{-ix}{2}}$ and dividing by 2i we get

$$\frac{e^{\frac{ix}{2}} - e^{-\frac{ix}{2}}}{2i} D_N(x) = \frac{e^{i\left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right)x} - e^{-i\left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right)x}}{2i}$$

And since $\sin(x) = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i}$ we get

$$\sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)D_N(x) = \sin\left(\left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right)x\right) \quad \Box$$

2. Relation to Fourier Series

Recall:

$$\hat{f}(n) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx$$
 Fourier coefficient

$$S_N(f)(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^{N} \hat{f}(n) e^{inx}$$
 Partial Sums

It turns out that we can conveniently write $S_N(f)$ in terms of D_N

Important Observation:

$$S_{N}(f)(x) = \sum_{n=-N}^{N} \hat{f}(n)e^{inx}$$

= $\sum_{n=-N}^{N} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)e^{-iny}dy\right)e^{inx}$
= $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) \left(\sum_{n=-N}^{N} e^{in(x-y)}\right)dy$
= $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)D_{N}(x-y)dy$

We have therefore shown that:

Fact:

$$S_N(f)(x) = (f \star D_N)(x)$$

Where \star is an operation called **convolution** that we'll talk about below.

In other words, the problem of understanding $S_N(f)$ reduces to the understanding of the convolution $f \star D_N$. Here is a great illustration of this fact:

3. POINTWISE CONVERGENCE

Let's show that if f is (sort of) Lipschitz, then the Fourier series of f converges to f pointwise.

Definition: f is **Lipschitz at** x there is L > 0 such that for all y,

$$|f(y) - f(x)| \le L |y - x|$$

Here L can depend on x.

Theorem [Pointwise Convergence]

Suppose f is Lipschitz at x, then

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} S_N(f)(x) = f(x)$$

Note: A similar proof works if f is differentiable at x, see Stein and Shakarchi Theorem 2.1.

Corollary: If f is Lipschitz or f is differentiable, then the Fourier series converges pointwise everywhere.

\mathbf{Proof}^2

STEP 1: Notice from the def of $D_N = \sum_n e^{inx}$ that $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(y) = 2\pi$ and therefore:

$$S_N(f)(x) - f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x - y) D_N(y) dy - f(x) \frac{1}{2\pi} \underbrace{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} D_N(y) dy}_{2\pi}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x - y) - f(x)) D_N(y) dy$$
$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x - y) - f(x)) \left(\frac{\sin\left(\left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right)y\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{y}{2}\right)}\right) dy$$

In the last step we used the explicit formula for D_N above.

 $^{^{2}}$ The proof is adapted from Theorem 8.14 in Rudin

STEP 2: Using that

$$\sin\left(\left(N+\frac{1}{2}\right)y\right) = \sin\left(Ny\right)\cos\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) + \cos\left(Ny\right)\sin\left(\frac{y}{2}\right)$$

The above becomes

$$S_N(f)(x) - f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(f(x-y) - f(x) \right) \left(\frac{\cos\left(\frac{y}{2}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{y}{2}\right)} \right) \sin(Ny) dy + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(f(x-y) - f(x) \right) \cos(Ny) dy$$

Upshot: Notice that those two integrals kind of look like Fourier coefficients!

STEP 3: To conclude the proof, we will need a result that we'll prove next time:

Fact: If g is bounded and integrable on $[-\pi, \pi]$, then

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) \cos(Ny) dy = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) \sin(Ny) = 0$$

Our proof then follows, once we show that the functions are bounded and integrable.

For the second term, boundedness follows from the Lipschitz condition:

$$|f(x-y) - f(x)| \le L |y| \to \text{ bounded on } [-\pi, \pi]$$

And by continuity of f, the function above is integrable on $[-\pi, \pi]$.

$$\left| \left(f(x-y) - f(x) \right) \cot\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) \right| \le L \left| y \right| \left| \cot\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) \right| \to \text{ bounded on } [-\pi,\pi]$$

For boundedness, the only point of concern is near y = 0. But it is not a problem since $\lim_{y\to 0} y \cot\left(\frac{y}{2}\right) = 2$ (by L'Hôpital), and integrability follows from this and continuity of the functions.

Putting everything together, we get

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} S_N f(x) - f(x) = 0 \quad \Box$$

4. CONVOLUTION

As mentioned above, $S_N(f)$ is the convolution of f and D_N . Let's study this notion of convolution in more detail:

Definition: If f and g are two integrable 2π periodic functions, then

$$(f \star g)(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x-y)dy = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y)g(y)dy$$

Mnemonic: The sum is always x, namely y + (x - y) = x - y + y = x

Note: The two definitions are equivalent because if you let u = x - y in the first integral, then du = -dy and y = x - u and therefore (ignoring the 2π for clarity)

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x-y)dy = \int_{x+\pi}^{x-\pi} f(x-u)g(u)(-du) = \int_{x-\pi}^{x+\pi} f(x-u)g(u)du$$
$$= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-u)g(u)du$$

The last step follows from periodicity.

Immediate Properties:

(1)
$$f \star (g + h) = f \star g + f \star h$$

(2) $(cf) \star g = c(f \star g) = f \star (cg)$
(3) $f \star g = g \star f$
(4) $(f \star g) \star h = f \star (g \star h)$

Fact: If f and g are continuous, then
$$f \star g$$
 is continuous

Proof:³ Since g is continuous on $[-\pi, \pi]$, it is uniformly continuous on $[-\pi, \pi]$.

Let $M = \sup_x |f(x)|$

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Then there is $\delta > 0$ such that if $|x - y| < \delta$ then $|g(x) - g(y)| < \epsilon$.

With the same δ , if $|x_1 - x_2| < \delta$, then (again ignoring the 2π)

$$\begin{aligned} |(f \star g)(x_1) - (f \star g)(x_2)| &= \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x_1 - y)dy - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x_2 - y)dy \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)\left(g(x_1 - y) - g(x_2 - y)\right)dy \right| \\ &\leq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \underbrace{|f(y)|}_{M} \underbrace{|g(x_1 - y) - g(x_2 - y)|}_{\epsilon} dy \\ &\leq 2\pi\epsilon M \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Notice: In the proof above, we never used continuity of f, just that f is bounded. In fact this is always true, $f \star g$ is always at least regular (continuour or smooth) as the more regular one of f and g. For

 $^{^3\}mathrm{The}$ proof is taken from Prop 3.1 in Chapter 2 of Stein and Shakarchi

example:

Fact: If f is continuous and g is differentiable, then $f \star g$ is differentiable and

$$(f \star g)' = f \star (g')$$

Informally, this follows because

$$(f \star g)'(x) = \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x-y)dy\right)' = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g'(x-y)dy = f \star (g')$$

The differentiation is justified by taking difference quotients and using the Dominated Convergence Theorem (see Chapter 11)

How are convolutions related to Fourier series? Because of the following fact:

Fact: If f and g are continuous, then

$$\widehat{f\star g}(n)=\widehat{f}(n)\widehat{g}(n)$$

So the Fourier coefficient of $f \star g$ is the product of the Fourier coefficients of f and g, this is what makes convolution so nice!

Proof: Again, ignore the factor of 2π in the fourier coefficients and in the convolution

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$$\begin{split} \widehat{f \star g}(n) &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f \star g)(x) e^{-inx} dx \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) g(x-y) dy \right) e^{-inx} dx \\ ^{\text{FUBINI}} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) g(x-y) e^{-inx} dx dy \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(x-y) e^{-in(x-y)} e^{-iny} dx dy \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) e^{-iny} \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(x-y) e^{-in(x-y)} dx \right) dy \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) e^{-iny} \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(u) e^{-inu} du \right) dy \quad (\text{Use } u = x - y) \\ &= \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y) e^{-iny} dy \right) \left(\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(u) e^{-inu} du \right) \\ &= \hat{f}(n) \hat{g}(n) \end{split}$$

(The same result is true if f and g are just integrable, but we would need an approximation theorem for that)

5. Optional: Convolution Intuition

Video: Convolution Intuition

Intuitively, $f \star g$ is the "multiplication" of f and g. This makes sense at least in terms of Fourier coefficients (see above).

Here is another way to think of it in terms of multiplication.

Question: What is the coefficient h(2) of x^2 in

$$(a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2) (b_0 + b_1x + b_2x^2)?$$

Multiplying out, the coefficient of x^2 becomes

$$h(2) = a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0 = \sum_{k=0}^{2} a_kb_{2-k}$$

Compare this with

$$(f \star g)(x) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(y)g(x-y)dy " = "\sum f(y)g(x-y)$$

Which is also a sum of terms of the form $a_k \ b_{x-k}$

So in some sense $(f \star g)(x)$ is the x-th coefficient of f times g, if you think of f and g as polynomials.

In this sense, convolution becomes sort of like multiplication of f and g.