

## NOTES ON HARMONIC ANALYSIS PART II: THE FOURIER SERIES

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**ABSTRACT.** Fourier Series is the second of monographs we present on harmonic analysis. Harmonic analysis is one of the most fascinating areas of research in mathematics. Its centrality in the development of many areas of mathematics such as partial differential equations and integration theory and its many and diverse applications in sciences and engineering fields makes it an attractive field of study and research.

The purpose of these notes is to introduce the basic ideas and theorems of the subject to students of mathematics, physics, or engineering sciences. Our goal is to illustrate the topics with utmost clarity and accuracy, readily understandable by the students or interested readers. Rather than providing just the outlines or sketches of the proofs, we have actually provided the complete proofs of all theorems. This approach will illuminate the necessary steps taken and the machinery used to complete each proof.

The prerequisite for understanding the topics presented is the knowledge of Lebesgue measure and integral. This will provide ample mathematical background for an advanced under-

Clearly,  $(\cdot) = \cos \cdot + i \sin \cdot$  satisfies  $(\cdot) = (\cdot)$  for all  $\in \mathbb{T}$ .

**Definition 1.2.**

$$L^p(\mathbb{T}) = \{f \text{ on } \mathbb{T} : |f|^p < \infty\},$$

$$|f|^p = \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f(\cdot)|^p \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^p.$$

**Theorem 1.1.**

$$L^p(\mathbb{T}) \supset L^r(\mathbb{T}), \quad p < r, \quad \|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_r.$$

**Proof:** Using Hölder's inequality, we have: ( $p = r/p > 1$ )

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^p = \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^p \cdot 1 \leq \left( \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^p \right)^{1/p} \left( \int_{\mathbb{T}} 1^{p'} \right)^{1/p'} = \left( \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^p \right)^{p/p} < \infty,$$

where  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p'} = 1$ .

**Definition 1.3.**  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \neq 0$ ,  $\hat{f}(n) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ ,

$$\hat{f}(n) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n.$$

no  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \neq 0$ ,  $\hat{f}(n) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n$ ,

$$\hat{f}(\cdot) \sim \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n \sim \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\cdot) \overline{z}^n.$$

Proof: (1) is trivial. As to (2), let

$$f(\cdot) \sim \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n(f) e^{in\cdot}$$

be the Fourier series of  $f$



**Theorem 1.8.** Let  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$  and  $n \frac{f(x)}{x} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} dx \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Proof:** By the hypothesis,

$$\frac{f(x)}{x} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}).$$

(Note: the behavior of  $\frac{f(x)}{x}$  near  $\pm \infty$  is analogous to that of  $\frac{f(x)}{x}$  near 0). Rewriting

$$\frac{f(x)}{x} = \frac{(x - \frac{1}{2n}) + \frac{1}{2n}}{x} \frac{f(x)}{x}$$

and integrating against  $e^{-2n|x|}$ , we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} e^{-2n|x|} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x - \frac{1}{2n}} e^{-2n|x|} dx - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x + \frac{1}{2n}} e^{-2n|x|} dx, \quad \forall n.$$

Hence, (telescoping sum), as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} e^{-2n|x|} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} e^{-2|x|} dx \rightarrow 0.$$

(It is worth noting that the gist of the proof is considering  $\frac{f(x)}{x}$  and ending up with a telescoping sum.)

**Corollary 1.2.** Let  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\frac{f(x)}{x} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Then  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} dx \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} dx$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Proof:** Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 0$  and show that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} dx \rightarrow 0$ .

Assume that  $f$  satisfies the Lipschitz condition at  $0$ , that is, there is a neighborhood of  $0$  so that for any  $x$  in that neighborhood,  $|f(x) - f(0)| \leq L|x|$  for some  $0 < L \leq 1$ . In our case of  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 0$ , this means that  $|f(x)| \leq L|x|$  for  $x$  close to 0. Therefore,  $\frac{f(x)}{x}$  is integrable on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Now the corollary follows from the above theorem.

**Theorem 1.9.** Let  $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\frac{f(x)}{x} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

Since  $f - 0 = 0$  on some interval,  $f -$  satisfies Lipschitz condition at each interior point of that interval. Therefore,

$$\|f - 0\|_n \rightarrow 0.$$

This completes the proof.

**Theorem 1.10.** *ppo*  $f(\cdot) \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$   $\frac{f(\cdot) + f(-\cdot)}{2}$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$   $f$  on  $(-1, 1)$   $\rightarrow 0$

$$\|f\|_n \rightarrow 0 \quad n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof:** Let  $(\cdot)$  be such that

$$f(x^2) - f(-x^2) = \frac{1}{2}(f(x) - f(-x)) \cdot (x).$$

Note that  $f$  is integrable on  $(-1, 1)$  by the hypothesis. Integrating against  $x^{-2n}$  we have

$$2 \int_0^1 (f(x) - f(-x)) x^{-2n} dx = \int_0^1 f(x) x^{-2n+1} dx - \int_0^1 f(-x) x^{-2n+1} dx.$$

Adding up these equalities for  $n = 0, \pm 1, \dots, \pm$  we have

$$2 \int_0^1 (f(x) + f(-x)) x^{-2n} dx = 4 \int_0^1 f(x) x^{-2n+1} dx \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

It is worth noting that, under the hypothesis of the theorem, it is not necessarily true that  $\|f\|_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  independently. For example, let  $f(x) = -1$  on  $(-1, 0)$  and  $f(x) = 1$  on  $(0, 1)$ . Then  $\|f\|_n = \frac{1}{n}$  for  $n$  odd,  $= 0$  for  $n$  even and

$$f(x) \sim \frac{1 - (-1)^n}{n}.$$

Clearly,  $\|f\|_n = 0$  for all  $n$ . However, if  $n = 2$  and  $n = 2$  then,

$$\|f\|_n$$

**Proof:**





For  $1 < p < \infty$ ,



and

$$\| \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} \sin kx \| \leq 2 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Now let  $f \in L^p$  and  $1 \leq p < \infty$ . For continuous  $f$ , the uniform convergence of  $S_n * f$  to  $f$  implies convergence in  $L^p$ . Let  $S_n(f) = S_n * f$ . Then  $S_n$  is a linear operator from  $L^p \rightarrow L^p$  such that  $\|S_n(f)\|_p \leq \|f\|_p$ , i.e.,  $\|S_n\| \leq 1$ . Note that  $S_n(f)$  converges in  $L^p$  for every  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $C(\mathbb{T})$  is dense in  $L^p$ . Therefore, Theorem 1.4 asserts that  $S_n(f)$  converges in  $L^p$  for every  $f \in L^p$  and if we define  $S(f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(f)$  then  $S$  is a linear operator on  $L^p$  with bound  $\leq 1$ . We prove that  $S$  is an identity on  $L^p$ . In fact,  $S(f) = f$  for all  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$  and  $C(\mathbb{T})$  is dense in  $L^p$ . Let  $f \in L^p$  and let  $g \in C(\mathbb{T})$  with  $g \rightarrow f$  in  $L^p$ . Then  $S(f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(g) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n * g = g$  for all  $f$ , that is,  $S(f) = f$  for all  $f \in L^p$ .

Theorem 2.7. (230Td.749463]TJR297.97011Tf7[(I)-3.05095(i)-3.0749463]TJbT



Let  $\rho_n$  be an approximate identity in  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$  so that  $\rho_n$ 's are continuously differentiable. Then for every  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\rho_n * f$  is continuously differentiable. Let  $f$  be such that  $\rho_n(f) = 0$  for all  $n$ . Then for every  $n$ ,  $(\rho_n * f)' = \rho_n' * f = 0$  for all  $x$ . By the first part of proof,  $\rho_n * f = 0$  everywhere. Thus,  $f$ , as a limit of  $\rho_n * f$  in  $L^1(\mathbb{T})$ , is zero almost everywhere.

Corollary 3.1.

**Theorem 3.5 (Unicity Theorem).** Let  $\mu$  be a Borel measure on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $\hat{\mu}(n) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ . Then  $\mu = 0$ .

$$\hat{\mu}(n) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-in \cdot x} \mu(dx).$$

$$\hat{\mu}(n) = 0 \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}^d.$$

**Proof:** Note that if  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) e^{-in \cdot x} dx = 0$  for all  $n$  then  $f = 0$ . This is the weakest Unicity theorem of all. We use this version and the Riesz theorem to prove the strongest version as stated in the theorem.

For  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , define the convolution

$$\mu * f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x-y) \mu(dy).$$

We show that it is a continuous function. As usual, we write  $f(\cdot)$  as  $f(x)$  for simplicity. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} |\mu * f(x+h) - \mu * f(x)| &= \left| \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} (f(x+h-y) - f(x-y)) \mu(dy) \right| \\ &\leq \|f(\cdot+h) - f(\cdot)\|_C \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\mu(dy)| \\ &= \|f(\cdot+h) - f(\cdot)\|_C \|\mu\|. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\|\mu\|$  is finite and  $f$  is uniformly continuous, the last expression tends to zero as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

The Fourier coefficients of  $\mu * f$  are  $\hat{\mu * f}(n) = \hat{\mu}(n) \hat{f}(n)$  (a  $C_c^\infty$  function)  $\hat{f}(n) \hat{\mu}(n)$ .

**Proof:** Define the functional  $f(\phi) = (\mu * \phi)(1)$  on  $C(\mathbb{T})$ . Clearly, it is linear. Observe that  $\|\mu * \phi\|_\infty \leq \|\mu\| \|\phi\|_\infty$  for any measure  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{T})$  and  $\phi \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . Applying twice, we have  $|f(\phi)| \leq \|\mu\| \|\phi\|_\infty$ . Therefore,  $f$  is a continuous linear functional on  $C(\mathbb{T})$ . By the Riesz theorem, there is  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{T})$  so that  $f(\phi) = \int \phi d\nu$  for all  $\phi \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . Then  $\mu^*$  is defined to be the measure  $\nu$ . Moreover,  $\|\mu^*\| \leq \|\mu\|$ .

**Theorem 3.7.**  $(\mathbb{T})$





which can be viewed as the value of  $(\mu * \bar{\mu}) * (\cdot)$  at  $\cdot = 0$ .

4. THE C



When we sum the geometric series and simplify, we find

$$D_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{\sin \frac{1}{2}n}{\sin \frac{1}{2}} \right)^2.$$

Thus the Dirichlet and Fejér kernels are related by the formula

$$F_{2n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{2n+1} D_n^2(x).$$

Note that  $F_n$  is an approximate identity on  $\mathbb{T}$ . Thus for any  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $F_n * f(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  at every point of continuity of  $f$ , and the convergence is uniform over every closed interval of continuity. In particular,  $F_n * f$  tends to  $f$  uniformly everywhere if  $f$  is continuous everywhere. It holds also that if  $f \in L^p$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ , then  $\|F_n * f - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$ .

The functions  $F_n$  are trigonometric polynomials; this fact has interesting consequences.

- (1) Since  $F_n$ 's are infinitely differentiable, any continuous function  $f$  is approximated uniformly by the infinitely differentiable functions (in fact, trigonometric polynomials)  $F_n * f$ .
- (2) We also obtain another proof of the Unicity theorem in  $C(\mathbb{T})$ . Suppose that  $(F_n * f)(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ . Then for each  $n$ ,  $(F_n * f)(x) = (F_n)_n(f) = 0, \forall x$ . Thus the trigonometric polynomial  $F_n * f \equiv 0$ . Since  $\|F_n * f - f\|_1 \rightarrow 0$ ,  $f = 0$  a.e.

The Poisson kernel

Define, for  $0 < r < 1$ ,

$$P_r(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} r^{|n|} e^{inx}.$$

The series converges absolutely, and we can easily obtain that, if  $f \in L^1$ ,  $0 \leq r < 1$ , then

$$(P_r * f)(x) \rightarrow f(x)$$

$$f \in L^1(\mathbb{T}). \text{ Then } \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta} \rightarrow f(\theta) \text{ in } L^1 \text{ norm.}$$

**Proof:** We prove that  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta}$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{D}$  (open unit disk). If  $f$  is real, then  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta}$  is the real part of

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta} + i \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta} \quad (*)$$

which is an analytic function of  $z = e^{i\theta}$  in  $\mathbb{D}$ . Hence  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta}$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{D}$ . Since linear combinations of harmonic functions are harmonic,  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta}$  is a complex harmonic function on  $\mathbb{D}$  for any  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ , the class of all complex, Lebesgue integrable functions on  $\mathbb{T}$ .

**Theorem 4.4.** If  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$  and  $f \geq 0$ , then  $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e^{in\theta}$  is nonnegative on  $\mathbb{T}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $g(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) z^n$ . Then  $g(z)$  is harmonic in  $\mathbb{D}$  such that  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 1} g(re^{i\theta}) = f(\theta)$  for a.e.  $\theta$ . Since  $f$  is nonnegative,  $g(z)$  is certainly positive whenever  $f$  is nonnegative. If  $\|f\|_1 \leq 1$ , then  $\|g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1 = 1$ .

**Theorem 4.5.** A function  $g(z)$  is harmonic and bounded in  $\mathbb{D}$  if and only if  $g(z) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) z^n$  for some  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{T})$ .

**Proof:** We need only to show the necessity. Let  $g(z)$  be harmonic and bounded in  $\mathbb{D}$ . Let  $g(re^{i\theta}) = u(r, \theta) + i v(r, \theta)$ .

This can be verified by considering the representation theorem of harmonic functions in disk : If  $u$  is real, continuous on  $|z| \leq 1$  and harmonic in  $|z| < 1$ , then for  $0 \leq r < 1$ ,

$$(u, \cdot) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1+r^2}{1-r^2} \right] (u, \cdot) \, d\theta.$$

Let  $v = \dots$  (Note  $0 \leq r < 1$ ). Then

$$(u, \cdot) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1+r^2}{1-r^2} \right] (u, \cdot) \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (u, \cdot) \, d\theta.$$

For complex harmonic, we consider it as a sum of real part and imaginary part.

## 5. SUMMABILITY; METRIC THEOREMS

We have shown the following theorems in the last section:

**Theorem 5.1.** Let  $u, v \in C(\bar{D})$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ,  $\|u - v\|_p \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\|u^{(n)} - v^{(n)}\|_p \rightarrow 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & \|u^{(n)} - v^{(n)}\|_p \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ if } \|u - v\|_p \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \\ & \|u^{(n)} - v^{(n)}\|_p \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \text{ if } \|u - v\|_p \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 5.3.** A function  $f$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  is the limit in  $L^1$  of its partial sums  $S_n$  if and only if  $f$  is continuous at  $x$ .

**Proof:** We need only to show the necessity. Let  $f$  be harmonic and bounded in  $L^1$ . Let  $n \uparrow \infty$  and write  $f_n(\cdot) = (S_n f)(\cdot)$ . The sequence  $f_n$  is a bounded sequence in  $L^1$ ; hence for some sequence  $n_j \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $f_{n_j}$  converges in the weak-\* topology ( $L^1$ ).

Proof: Suppose that  $u$  is real. Since  $D$  is a simply connected region,  $u$  has a harmonic conjugate  $v$  so that  $f = u + iv$  is analytic in  $D$ . We write  $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(z) = u + iv &= 0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n z^n + \overline{a_n} \overline{z}^n) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n z^n - \overline{a_n} \overline{z}^n) \\ &= 0 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} |a_n| |z|^n \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_{-n} = \overline{a_n}$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . If  $f$  is complex, then it is linear combination of two real



for each  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ . In particular, for each  $n$ ,  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f_j \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{T}} f$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . On the other hand,  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f_j = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f_j e^{in} \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore,  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$  for all  $n$ .

It follows from the Unicity theorem that  $\mu$  is uniquely determined by  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$  therefore by  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f$ , and that since  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$ ,  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$ , i.e.  $\int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in} = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f e^{in}$ .

We show that  $\|\mu\| = \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} A_j$ . Note that  $\mu = \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\mathbb{T}} f_j \cdot (\cdot)$  in the weak\* topology of  $(\mathbb{T})$  as the dual of  $C(\mathbb{T})$ . It follows that  $\|\mu\| \leq \liminf_{j \rightarrow \infty} A_j$  where  $A_j = \|\int_{\mathbb{T}} f_j\|$ .

Let  $\xi$  be a point where the above limit holds, i.e., at

$$\frac{f(\xi + h) + f(\xi - h) - 2f(\xi)}{h^2} = o(1).$$

Let  $\tilde{f}(h) = \frac{f(\xi + h) + f(\xi - h) - 2f(\xi)}{h^2}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$$

**Proof:** If  $n$  is even, then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - \int_0^1 f(x) dx &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - \frac{f\left(\frac{1}{2n}\right) + f\left(\frac{3}{2n}\right) + \dots + f\left(\frac{2n-1}{2n}\right)}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) - \frac{f\left(\frac{1}{2n}\right) + f\left(\frac{3}{2n}\right) + \dots + f\left(\frac{2n-1}{2n}\right)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for  $0 < x \leq \delta$ ,  $|f(x) - f(0)| < \epsilon$  and  $|f(x) - f(1)| < \epsilon$ . We write

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

For  $|_1|$ , we have

$$|_1| \leq 2 \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{k}{n} \right) = 2 \delta$$

For  $|_2|$ , we have

$$|_2| \leq 4 \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{k}{n} \right) < \epsilon$$

for sufficiently large  $n$ .

**An alternative proof of the above theorem.**

**Proof:** First, we make the following assumptions successively:

(1) We may assume that  $x = 0$  is the point where

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2} \left( f(x) + f(0) \right) = f(0)$$

That is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2} \left( f(x) + f(0) \right) = f(0)$$

Assume that the limit holds for  $f$  at  $x = 0$ . Then  $g(x) = f(x) + f(0)$  satisfies

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2} \left( g(x) + g(0) \right) = g(0)$$

If the theorem is proved for  $g$  at  $0$ , then  $(p * g)(0) \rightarrow g(0)$  is simply  $(p * f)(0) \rightarrow f(0)$ .

(2) We may also assume that  $f(0) = 0$ . Let  $h(x) = f(x) - f(0)$ . Then  $h(0) = 0$ . If the theorem is proved for  $h$ , then  $(p * h)(0) \rightarrow 0$  is simply  $(p * (f(\cdot) - f(0)))(0) = (p * f)(0) - f(0) \rightarrow 0$ , which is  $(p * f)(0) \rightarrow f(0)$ .

(3) Finally, we may assume that  $\int(\cdot)(\cdot) = 0$ . Let  $\psi$  be a smooth function with  $\psi = \int$ , and vanishing on a neighborhood of  $\psi = 0$  (maintaining the above two

Let  $p$  and  $n$

$$G_n(x) = \frac{2 \sin^2 nx}{1 + n^2 x^2}$$

**Proof:** The first formula for  $G_n$  gives  $G_n(x) \leq n$  (used for smaller  $x$ ). By Jordan's inequality, the second formula leads to  $G_n(x) \leq \frac{2}{n^2 x^2}$  (used for large  $x$ ). Combining these two gives  $G_n(x) \leq G_n^*(x)$ , where  $G_n^*(x) = \frac{2 \sin^2 nx}{1 + n^2 x^2}$  (consider  $|x| \leq \frac{1}{n}$  and  $|x| > \frac{1}{n}$  separately).

**Theorem 6.2.** Let  $f \in C^1$  and  $f(0) = f(\pi) = 0$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \int_0^\pi |f(x) + f(\pi - x) - 2f(\frac{\pi}{2})| dx = 0$$

Let  $f \in C^1$



Proof: Let  $x = 0$  be a point where

$$\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mu([- \delta, \delta])}{2} = 0.$$

We show that

$$(p * \mu)(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) \mu(x) dx \rightarrow 0, \quad \uparrow 1.$$

Let  $f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x \mu(t) dt$ . Then, by Fubini's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p'(x) f(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p'(x) \int_{-\infty}^x \mu(t) dt dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^x p'(x) \mu(t) dt dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (p(x) - p(t)) \mu(t) dt \\ &= p(0) \mu([- \delta, \delta]) + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(t) \mu(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(t) \mu(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p'(x) f(x) dx - p(0) \mu([- \delta, \delta]).$$

For the last integral, noting that  $p'$  is odd, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p'(x) f(x) dx &= \int_0^{\infty} p'(x) (f(x) - f(-x)) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} 2 p'(x) \frac{\mu([- \delta, \delta])}{2} dx \\ &\rightarrow \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mu([- \delta, \delta])}{2} = 0, \quad \uparrow 1. \end{aligned}$$

## 7. HERGLOTZ' THEOREM

**Definition 7.1.** A  $2\pi$ -periodic function  $f(x)$  is called a *positive definite function* if it satisfies the condition

$$\sum_{-n}^n a_n f(x_n) \geq 0$$

for any choice of  $n$  and  $\{x_n\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$  such that  $x_n = 0$  and  $p(x_n) = n$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .

**Theorem 7.1.** A function  $f(x)$  is positive definite on  $[0, 2\pi)$  if and only if

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{inx} \mu(x) dx.$$





so  $| ( ) | \leq .$  Thus

**Claim:**  $A$  is a Banach algebra under multiplication (the product of  $f$  and  $g$  is defined as  $f \cdot g$ ) in the norm inherited from  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Proof:** Let  $f \in A$ .  $\|f\| = \|f\|_A = \|\{n(f)\}\|_{\mathcal{H}}$ . Then  $A$  is a normed linear space. We prove that  $A$  is complete. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a Cauchy sequence in  $A$ , that is,  $\{\{n(f_n)\}\}$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $\mathcal{H}$ . Assume that this sequence converges to  $\{n\} \in \mathcal{H}$ . Let  $f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n$ . Then  $f \in A$  and  $\|f_n - f\| = \|\{n(f_n) - n\}\|_{\mathcal{H}} \rightarrow 0$ .

To prove that  $A$  is a Banach algebra, we prove first that if both  $f$  and  $g$  are in  $A$ , then so is  $f \cdot g$ . Note that if  $f(\cdot) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n$  and  $g(\cdot) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j \cdot^{j \cdot d}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} f(\cdot) \overline{g(\cdot)} &= \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n \right) \left( \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \overline{b_j} \cdot^{-j \cdot d} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n,j} a_n \overline{b_j} \cdot^{n - j \cdot d} = \sum_{i,j} a_{i+j \cdot d} \overline{b_j} \cdot^{i+j \cdot d} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$a_{i+j \cdot d} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \overline{b_{j \cdot d - n}}$$

If  $(f), (g) \in \mathcal{H}$ , then  $a_{i+j \cdot d}$  converges absolutely for every  $i$ . Moreover, since  $\{a_{i+j \cdot d}\}$  is the convolution of  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{\overline{b_{j \cdot d - n}}\} \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\{a_{i+j \cdot d}\} \in \mathcal{H}$  (like that in 1) and  $f \cdot g \in A$ . Secondly, we verify that  $\|f \cdot g\| \leq \|f\| \|g\|$ . Note that the inequality actually says that  $\|f * g\|_{\mathcal{H}} \leq \|f\|_{\mathcal{H}} \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}$  for  $f, g \in \mathcal{H}$ . But it is true just like in 1.

**Claim:** Define for all  $f = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n \in A$ ,

$$(f)^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n$$

Then  $(f)^2 \geq 0$  for each  $f \in A$ .

We need to justify this definition first. Note that  $|a_n| \leq \|f\|$  for all  $n$ . Thus  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cdot^n$  converges absolutely so that  $(f)^2$  is well-defined for all  $f \in A$ .

Next, we show  $(f)^2 \geq 0$  for all  $f \in A$ . Note that  $(f)^2 = \overline{(f)} \cdot f \in A$ . By definition of  $(f)^2$ ,

$$(f)^2 = \sum_{i,j} a_{i+j \cdot d} \overline{a_j} \cdot^{i+j \cdot d}$$

(The coefficient of  $\cdot^0$  is  $\sum_j |a_j|^2$ ). If  $(f)^2$ 's are zeros except for finitely many  $\cdot^k$ , then  $\sum_{i,j} a_{i+j \cdot d} \overline{a_j} \cdot^{i+j \cdot d} \geq 0$ . Hence  $(f)^2 \geq 0$  as long as the sum that evaluates  $(f)^2$  converges, which is indeed the case because  $a_n$ 's are bounded.

**Claim:** If  $f \in A$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  (strictly positive!), then  $(f)^2 = \epsilon \cdot g$  for some  $g \in A$ . Hence,  $(f)^2 \geq 0$  for all  $f \in A$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ .

**Proof:** Note that  $\sqrt{\cdot}$  is analytic on the right-half (open) plane that contains the range of  $(\cdot > 0)$  and

In addition, Bessel's inequality gives

$$\|f\|_2 \leq \|f\|_2.$$

Given  $p$  with  $1 \leq p \leq 2$ , let  $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$  be such that

$$\frac{1}{p} = \frac{1-\theta}{1} + \frac{\theta}{2}.$$

By the Riesz-Thorin theorem, we have

$$\|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_p, \quad \forall f \in L^p,$$

where  $\theta$  is given by

$$\frac{1}{p} = 1 - \frac{\theta}{2}.$$

It is worth noting that we couldn't get the best constant in the Hausdorff-Young inequality. Beckner proved (Annals of Math, 102(1975)) for the Fourier transforms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that

$$\|f\|_p \leq \frac{p^{1/p}}{1} \|f\|_p.$$

The following proof of the Hausdorff-Young inequality is due to A.P. Calderon and A. Zygmund. It suffices to show that for any trigonometric polynomial  $f$  with Fourier coefficients  $\hat{f}_n = (\hat{f}_n)$  and  $\|f\|_p = 1$  we have  $\|\hat{f}\|_q \leq 1$ . Using the duality, we see that it suffices to show that

$$\left| \sum_n \hat{f}_n a_n \right| \leq 1$$

for every sequence  $a_n$  with  $\|a\|_q = 1$ .

Put  $f(x) = \sum_n \hat{f}_n e^{inx}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{T}$  such that  $f(x) = |f(x)|^p \geq 0$  and  $|f(x)| = 1$ . ( $f(x) = p \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f(x)|^p dx$ ). In case  $f(x) = 0$ , simply define  $f(x) = 1$ . Similarly, put  $a_n = \frac{1}{n} \hat{f}_n$  with  $a_n \geq 0$  and  $\|a\|_q = 1$ .

Using

011[(U)-442.594(I)1.76236(n)-303.68(i)-3.05095(t)-3.04993(i)-3.04993(o)-1.874[(i)-3.04922(i)-221.749(w)-0.69822(i)-221

Since the sum has only finitely many terms, each one (as function of  $x$ ) is bounded in the strip  $\frac{1}{2} \leq \sigma \leq 1$ . Hence  $(s)$  is bounded in this strip with bound depending on  $\frac{1}{n}$  and  $f$ .

For  $\sigma = 1$ , we have

$$|(1 + \sigma)| \leq n \quad (s) = 1.$$

For  $\sigma = \frac{1}{2}$ , the Schwarz inequality gives

$$|\left(\frac{1}{2} + \sigma\right)| \leq (n)^{1/2} \left( | (s)^{\frac{1}{2} + \sigma} (s)^{-\sigma} |^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

For any  $f \in L^p$ , by the Hölder and Hausdorff-Young inequalities,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \overline{e^{inx}} dx \right| &= \left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{-in\xi} d\xi \right| \\ &\leq \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\hat{f}(\xi)|^p d\xi \right)^{1/p} \left( \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |e^{-in\xi}|^q d\xi \right)^{1/q} \\ &\leq \| \hat{f} \|_p \| e^{-in\xi} \|_q \leq \| \hat{f} \|_p \| e^{-in\xi} \|_p. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $\| \hat{f}_n \| \leq \| \hat{f} \|_p$  for all  $n$ . Note that this is valid for any  $f \in L^p$ . We have

$$\| \hat{f}_n - \hat{f}_m \| = \left\| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}(\xi) (e^{-in\xi} - e^{-im\xi}) d\xi \right\| \leq \| \hat{f} \|_p \| e^{-in\xi} - e^{-im\xi} \|_p.$$

Therefore,  $\hat{f}_n$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $L^p$  and hence there exists an  $\hat{f} \in L^p$  so that  $\| \hat{f}_n - \hat{f} \| \rightarrow 0$ . We simply define  $(f^{-1})^\wedge(\xi) = \hat{f}(\xi)$ . Note that  $f^{-1}$  is an adjoint operator to  $f$ , the finite Fourier transform, in the sense that

$$\langle f^{-1}(g), h \rangle = \langle f^{-1}(g), h \rangle,$$

for all  $f \in L^p$  and  $g \in L^q$ , where  $\langle f^{-1}(g), h \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}(\xi) \overline{\hat{g}(\xi)} e^{-in\xi} d\xi$  and  $\langle f^{-1}(g), h \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}(\xi) \overline{\hat{g}(\xi)} d\xi$ , with  $\hat{f}$  defined as the limit of  $\hat{f}_n$ .

Moreover, for each  $f$  and for any  $n > 0$ , by Hölder's inequality,

$$\left| \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}(\xi) e^{-in\xi} d\xi - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \hat{f}_n(\xi) e^{-in\xi} d\xi \right| \leq \| \hat{f} - \hat{f}_n \|_p \| e^{-in\xi} \|_q.$$

Therefore,  $\hat{f}_n(\xi) = \hat{f}(\xi)$ .

Remarks:

- (1) The case  $p = 2$  is the theorem of Riesz-Fischer.
- (2) The case  $p = 1$ , to every  $f \in L^1$  we may assign the continuous function  $\hat{f}(\xi) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-i\xi x} dx$ . Since the series converges uniformly,  $f(x) = \hat{f}(\xi)$  and  $\| \hat{f} \|_C \leq \| f \|_1$ .
- (3) The restriction of the theorem to  $1 \leq p \leq 2$  is essential. For there is a sequence  $f_n \in L^1$  for all  $n > 2$  and yet is not the finite Fourier transform of any function in  $L^1$ .

The series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \pm n^{-1/2} \cos n,$$

with a suitable choice of signs, is a desired example as shown by the following theorem: If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ( \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{n} )$  diverges, then almost all the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ( \frac{2}{n} \cos n + \frac{2}{n} \sin n )$$

are not Fourier series (because almost all the series are almost everywhere non-Fejér summable).

**Theorem 8.4.** Let  $f \in C^1$  and  $1 \leq p \leq 2$ . Then  $\|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_2$ .  
 If  $p > 2$ , then  $\|f\|_p \leq \|f\|_2$  if and only if  $f = 0$ .

**Proof:** The construction of the desired function follows from the following theorem (see

We now turn to the general case. Put

$$f(z) = \frac{1-z}{0-z},$$

where  $z = p\{\log w\}$  for complex  $w$ . Then  $f(z)$  is entire,  $f$  has no zero,  $1/f$  is bounded in the closed strip,

$$|f(z)| = 0, \quad |f(1+z)| = 1,$$

and hence  $f$  satisfies our previous assumptions. Thus  $|f(z)| \leq 1$  in the strip, and this gives  $|f(z)| \leq \frac{1-z}{0-z}$  for all  $0 \leq \sigma \leq 1$ .

**An Alternative Proof:**

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\delta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Define

$$g(z) = p\{z^2 + \delta\} f(z).$$

Then

$$g(z) \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } z \rightarrow \pm\infty$$

and

$$|g(z)| \leq 0, \quad |g(1+z)| \leq 1 + \epsilon.$$

By the Phragmen-Lindelöf principle we therefore obtain

$$|g(z)| \leq \{0, 1 + \epsilon\}.$$

That is,

$$|p\{z^2 + \delta\}| \leq p\{-(z^2 - \delta^2)\} \{0, 1 + \epsilon\}^{(1-\delta)^+}.$$

This holds for any fixed  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$ . Letting  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$  we conclude that, if  $f = p\{z\}$ ,

$$|p\{z^2 + \delta\}| \leq \{0, 1 + \epsilon\}.$$

## 9. A THEOREM OF MINKOWSKI

Let

$$\mathbb{T}^2 = \{(x^2, y^2) : x, y \in \mathbb{T}\}.$$

$\mathbb{T}^2$  is called the 2-dimensional torus, which is the Cartesian product of the unit circle  $\mathbb{T} = \{x^2 : x \in \mathbb{T}\}$ .

Let  $(m, n)$  be a lattice (integer coordinates) point in the plane and let  $f(x, y)$  be a summable function on the unit square

$$= \{(x, y) : 0 < x < 1, 0 < y < 1\}$$



We may prove the Parseval relation on

The last equality is simply the result of change of variables. For the one above the last equality, we denote by  $C_{-n, -n}$  the square with the lower left corner  $(-n, -n)$ . Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2, \mathfrak{z})^{-2, (\cdot + \mathfrak{x})} \mathfrak{y} \\
 = & \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2, \mathfrak{z})^{-2, (\cdot + \mathfrak{x})} \mathfrak{y} \\
 = & \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2(\cdot - n), 2(\mathfrak{z} - n))^{-2, (\cdot + \mathfrak{x})} \mathfrak{y} \\
 = & \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2(\cdot - n), 2(\mathfrak{z} - n))^{-2, (\cdot + \mathfrak{x})} \mathfrak{y}.
 \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, we calculate  $|\mathcal{F}(\mathfrak{y})|^2 \mathfrak{y}$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\mathcal{F}(\mathfrak{y})|^2 \mathfrak{y} &= \int_{C_{-n, -n}} \mathcal{F}(\mathfrak{y}) (2(\cdot - n), 2(\mathfrak{z} - n)) \mathfrak{y} \\
 &= \int_{C_{-n, -n}} \mathcal{F}(\mathfrak{y}) (2, \mathfrak{z}) \mathfrak{y} \\
 &= \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2(\cdot - n), 2(\mathfrak{z} - n)) (2, \mathfrak{z}) \mathfrak{y} \\
 &= \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (2(\cdot - n), 2(\mathfrak{z} - n)) (2, \mathfrak{z}) \mathfrak{y} \\
 &= 2^{-n} \int_{C_{-n, -n}} (\cdot - 2\mathfrak{y} - 2n) (\mathfrak{y}) \mathfrak{y} \\
 &= 2^{-n} \int_C (\cdot - 2\mathfrak{y} - 2n) \mathfrak{y}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The Parseval relation gives rise to

$$2^{-2} \int_C (\mathfrak{y})^{-2, (\cdot + \mathfrak{x})} \mathfrak{y} \mathfrak{y}^2 = 2^{-n} \int_C (\cdot - 2\mathfrak{y} - 2n) \mathfrak{y}.$$

If  $C$  contains no lattice point except the origin, then one can show that for  $(\mathfrak{y}) \in C$  and  $(\cdot, n) \neq (0, 0)$ ,  $(\cdot - 2\mathfrak{y} - 2n) \notin C$

Theorem 9.2. Let  $C$  be a convex set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with volume  $V(C) > 2^n$ . Then  $C$  contains a lattice point other than the origin.

**Proof:** Assume that, by a contradiction,  $\overline{C}$  contains no lattice point other than the origin. We assume that  $C$  is bounded. Thus  $\overline{C}$  is compact and there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\text{dist}(p, C) \geq \delta > 0$  for all lattice points  $p$  other than the origin. We may expand  $\overline{C}$  slightly to a subset  $\tilde{C}$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  so that  $\tilde{C}$  is convex and symmetric about origin and yet contains no lattice point other than the origin. Since the volume of  $\tilde{C}$  is  $> 2^n$ , this is in contradiction to Minkowski's theorem.

It remains to show the construction of  $\tilde{C}$ . Let

$$\tilde{C} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \text{dist}(x, C) \leq \frac{\delta}{2} \}.$$

We claim that if  $C$  is (closed) convex, then so is  $\tilde{C}$ . Let  $x$  and  $y$  be in  $\tilde{C}$  (Assume that they are not in  $C$ . Otherwise, nothing needs to be done.) Let  $x_0$  and  $y_0 \in C$  such that  $|x - x_0| = \text{dist}(x, C)$  and  $|y - y_0| = \text{dist}(y, C)$ . For  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ , we have  $|(x + (1-t)y) - (x_0 + (1-t)y_0)| = |x - x_0 + (1-t)(y - y_0)| \leq |x - x_0| + (1-t)|y - y_0| \leq \delta/2$ .

If  $|x - y| \leq 1$  then  $|x| \geq$



where  ${}^n(x)$  is the  $n$ th power of  $x$  with respect to ordinary multiplication. We prove this with  $n = 2$ . Using the Cauchy product of two series, we have

$${}^2(x) = (x) \cdot (x) = (x^2)$$

**Proof:** (1). Prove that

where  $\Phi(x, y) = (x - y) + (x - y) - (x - y) - (x - y)$



Let  $\{a_n\} \in \ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^3)$  (sequence depending on three indices) be the Fourier transform of  $\Psi(x, y, z)$ . Then  $\{a_n^{*n}\}$  is the Fourier transform of  $\Psi^n$  (with respect to ordinary multiplication) and  $\|a_n^{*n}\|_{\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^3)} \leq \|a_n\|_{\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^3)}^n$  for all  $n$ .

To see this, we first prove that

$$\|\mathcal{F}(\Psi^{n\Phi}(x, y, z))\|_{\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^3)} \leq \|a_n\|_{\ell^1(\mathbb{Z}^3)}^n, \quad \forall n.$$

Note that

$$\Psi^{n\Phi}(x, y, z) = \Psi^n(x, y, z) \cdot \Phi^n(x, y, z)$$





Obviously,  $\mathcal{F}$  is a homomorphism of  $A(\mathfrak{a})$  into  $A(\mathfrak{a}')$ . Define a homomorphism of  $A(\mathfrak{a})$  into  $A(\mathfrak{a}')$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{F}'$ , in such a way that

$$\mathcal{F}'(\mathcal{F}f) = \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{F}'f)$$

for all  $f \in A(\mathfrak{a})$ . This can be written as

$$\mathcal{F}'(f) =$$

Theorem 10.4. Let  $f$  be a function of period  $2\pi$  which is continuous on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  and has a jump discontinuity at  $x_0$ . Then the Fourier series of  $f$  converges to  $\frac{1}{2}(f(x_0^+) + f(x_0^-))$  at  $x_0$ .

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