## NOTES FOR 2 JAN (TUESDAY)

## 1. Logistics

(1) Webpage: http://math.iisc.ac.in/~vamsipingali/teaching/ma339geomanalysis2019spring/ 339_2019.html
(2) HW $-25 \%$, Midterm $-25 \%$, Final/Presentation - $50 \%$ (The HW will be put up on the webpage)
(3) Office - N -23.
(4) Prereqs - A first course on manifolds, some analysis (Fourier analysis and a little bit of function spaces and measure theory), multivariable calculus, and functional analysis (up to and including the spectral theorem for compact self-adjoint operators). The functional analysis part can be read from the appendix in Evans' book.

## 2. Goals of the course (famous last words)

(1) How to write PDE on manifolds. This will include a crash course on basic Riemannian geometry. (What is a PDE on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ ? It is an equation of the form $F\left(u, \nabla u, D^{2} u, \ldots\right)=0$. If you want to write it on a manifold, what is $D^{2} u$ ? If you use coordinates to define it, then changing coordinates gives a different PDE. So we need some additional structure to even write PDE on manifolds. The structure we will use is a Riemannian metric.)
(2) How to prove existence and uniqueness of solutions for linear elliptic (and hopefully some nonlinear) PDE.
(3) Hopefully a little bit about parabolic PDE as well.
(4) Why you should care about studying PDE on manifolds. (Hopefully, some Hodge theory and the uniformisation theorem.)

## 3. The Poisson ODE and Fourier analysis

Suppose we want to solve the ODE $u^{\prime \prime}=f$ for a $2 \pi$ periodic smooth function $u$ where $f$ is a $2 \pi$-periodic smooth function, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime}(x)=u^{\prime}(0)+\int_{0}^{x} f(t) d t \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

$u(x)=u(x+2 \pi)$ implies that $u^{\prime}(x)=u^{\prime}(x+2 \pi)$ (in fact they are equivalent if $\left.u(0)=u(2 \pi)\right)$. Thus $\int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(t) d t=0$. This is a necessary and sufficient (by the periodicity of $f, \int_{x}^{x+2 \pi} f(t) d t=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(t) d t$ ) condition. (Smoothness is guaranteed by the fundamental theorem of calculus.)

In other words, there is a unique-upto-a-constant smooth periodic solution of the ODE if and only if $f$ is smooth, periodic, and satisfies $\int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(t) d t=0$. Interestingly enough, denoting the vector space of smooth $2 \pi$-periodic functions as $C^{\infty}$, the map $T: C^{\infty} \rightarrow C^{\infty}$ given by $T(u)=u^{\prime \prime}$ has kernel precisely the constants. Moreover, equipping this vector space with the inner product $\langle u, v\rangle=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} u v d x$, we see that $T=T^{*}$ and $T(u)=f$ if and only if $f$ is orthogonal to $\operatorname{ker}\left(T^{*}\right)=\operatorname{ker}(T)$. This is very similar to finite-dimensional linear algebra. Moreover, by the fundamental theorem of calculus, if $f$ is $k$-times continuously differentiable (will be denoted as $C^{k}$ from now on), then $u$ is $C^{k+2}$.

The above mentioned observations are not coincidences. Later on, we will see that many PDE (the so-called elliptic PDE) satisfy similar properties. However, to prove such things, we cannot rely on a direct formula for the solution unlike the case of ODE. So we need a more abstract, theoretical method.

Thinking naively (like an engineer or a physicist) we write the Fourier series $u=\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{u}(k) e^{i k x}$ where $\hat{u}(k)=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} u(x) e^{-i k x} d x$ and likewise for $f$. Then we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{u}(k) k^{2}=-\hat{f}(k) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words, there is a (formal) solution if and only if $\hat{f}(0)=0=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(x) d x$. In this case, $\hat{u}(0)$ is a free parameter and hence the solution is unique upto a constant. Moreover, since as sharp changes in music (think of opera music) correspond to very shrill sounds, if the high-frequency Fourier components are "small", then the function is very "smooth" (melodious notes are not too shrill). Since $\hat{u}(k)=\frac{\hat{f}(k)}{k^{2}}, u$ behaves more smoothly than $f$ does. So if $f$ is a smooth function, we expect $u$ to be so as well.

To make things rigorous, firstly, notice that the Fourier coefficients make sense for any integrable function. The convergence of Fourier series is a subtle phenomenon though. For example, there exist continuous functions whose Fourier series do not convergence pointwise at some points. ${ }^{1}$ Nonetheless, we have the following useful results.
(1) Riesz-Fischer : A measurable function on $[0,2 \pi]$ is in $L^{2}$ if and only if its Fourier series converges in the $L^{2}$ norm to it. Moreover, if $a_{k}$ is in $l^{2}$, then $\sum a_{k} e^{i k x}$ converges in $L^{2}$.
(2) Parseval-Plancherel : The Fourier series transform is an isometric isomorphism between $L^{2}([0,2 \pi])$ and $l^{2}$.
(3) Let $C^{0, \alpha}(0<\alpha<1)$ consist of all Hölder continuous $2 \pi$-periodic functions $g$, i.e., periodic functions $g$ such that $|g(x)-g(y)| \leq C|x-y|^{\alpha}$ for all $x, y$. Note that if $f$ is in $C^{1}$, then $f$ is Hölder continuous.
Theorem : If $f \in C^{0, \alpha}$ then $|\hat{f}(k)| \leq \frac{K}{|k|^{\alpha}} \forall|k| \geq 1$.
Proof.

$$
\begin{gather*}
2 \pi \frac{f \widehat{(x+h)}(k)-\hat{f}(k)}{h^{\alpha}}=\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k x} d x \\
\Rightarrow\left|\frac{f(x+h)(k)-\hat{f}(k)}{h^{\alpha}}\right| \leq C \tag{3.3}
\end{gather*}
$$

Now

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left|\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k x} d x\right|=\left|\int_{h}^{2 \pi+h} \frac{f(y)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k(y-h)}-\int_{0}^{2 \pi} \frac{f(x)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k x} d x\right| \\
=\left|-\int_{0}^{h} \frac{f(y)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k(y-h)} d y+\int_{2 \pi}^{2 \pi+h} \frac{f(y)}{h^{\alpha}} e^{-i k(y-h)} d y+\frac{1}{h^{\alpha}} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} e^{-i k x} f(x)\left(e^{i k h}-1\right) d x\right| \\
=\left|\frac{1}{h^{\alpha}} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} e^{-i k x} f(x)\left(e^{i k h}-1\right) d x\right|=|\hat{f}(k)| \frac{\left|e^{i k h}-1\right|}{h^{\alpha}}
\end{gathered}
$$

[^0]Take $h=\frac{1}{k}$. Using 3.3 and 3.4 we see that $|\hat{f}(k)| \leq \frac{K}{k^{\alpha}}$.
As for uniform convergence,
(4) Theorem : If $f \in C^{0, \alpha}$, the Fourier series converges uniformly to $f$.
(5) Theorem : If $f \in C^{1}$ then $\hat{f}^{\prime}=i k \hat{f}(k)$. This holds for higher derivatives too.

Proof.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{f}^{\prime}=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f^{\prime}(x) e^{-i k x} d x=-\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} f(x)\left(e^{-i k x}\right)^{\prime} d x=\frac{1}{2 \pi} \int_{0}^{2 \pi} i k f(x) e^{-i k x} d x=i k \hat{f}(k) \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

(6) Theorem : If $f$ is smooth, then the Fourier coefficients are rapidly decaying (decay faster than any polynomial). Also the Fourier series of $f$ and its derivatives converge uniformly. Conversely, if $a_{k}$ are rapidly decaying, then they are the Fourier coefficients of a smooth function (with convergence being uniform).
Proof. If $f$ is smooth, then $\hat{f^{(l)}(k)}=(i k)^{l} \hat{f}(k)$. Since $\hat{f^{(l)}}(k)$ is bounded, $\hat{f}(k)$ is rapidly decaying. By one of the earlier theorems, the convergence is uniform.

If $\left|a_{k}\right| \leq C_{l}|k|^{-l}$, then by the Weierstrass $M$-test (choosing $l>1$ ), we see that $\sum a_{k} e^{i k x}$ converges uniformly to a continuous function $u$. The same argument also shows that $\sum(i k)^{l} a_{k} e^{i k x}$ converges uniformly to $u_{l}$. It is easy to see (fundamental theorem of calculus and interchange of summation and integration) that $u_{l}=u^{(l)}$.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Already this is beginning to hint that expecting results like "If $f$ is $C^{k}$, then $u$ is $C^{k+2}$ " is a bad idea from the Fourier-analytic point of view. In fact for PDE, this expectation is false.

