



## The surprising almost everywhere convergence of Fourier–Neumann series

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### ABSTRACT

For most orthogonal systems and their corresponding Fourier series, the study of the almost everywhere convergence for functions in  $L^p$  requires very complicated research, harder than in the case of the mean convergence. For instance, for trigonometric series, the almost everywhere convergence for functions in  $L^2$  is the celebrated Carleson theorem, proved in 1966 (and extended to  $L^p$  by Hunt in 1967).

In this paper, we take the system

$$j_n^\alpha(x) = \sqrt{2(\alpha + 2n + 1)} J_{\alpha+2n+1}(x) x^{-\alpha-1}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

(with  $J_\mu$  being the Bessel function of the first kind and of the order  $\mu$ ), which is orthonormal in  $L^2((0, \infty), x^{2\alpha+1} dx)$ , and whose Fourier series are the so-called Fourier–Neumann series. We study the almost everywhere convergence of Fourier–Neumann series for functions in  $L^p((0, \infty), x^{2\alpha+1} dx)$  and we show that, surprisingly, the proof is relatively simple (inasmuch as the mean convergence has already been established).

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### 1. Introduction and main theorem

Let  $J_\mu$  denote the Bessel function of the first kind and of the order  $\mu$ . It is well-known that, for  $\alpha \geq -1/2$ , we have

$$\int_0^\infty J_{\alpha+2n+1}(x) J_{\alpha+2m+1}(x) \frac{dx}{x} = \frac{\delta_{nm}}{2(2n + \alpha + 1)}, \quad n, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

(see [1, Ch. XIII, 13.41 (7), p. 404] and [1, Ch. XIII, 13.42 (1), p. 405]). Then, the system

$$j_n^\alpha(x) = \sqrt{2(\alpha + 2n + 1)} J_{\alpha+2n+1}(x) x^{-\alpha-1}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

is orthonormal in  $L^2((0, \infty), d\mu_\alpha)$  ( $L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$  from now on), with  $d\mu_\alpha(x) = x^{2\alpha+1} dx$ . For each suitable function  $f$ , take

$$S_n^\alpha f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k^\alpha(f) j_k^\alpha(x), \quad c_k^\alpha(f) = \int_0^\infty f(y) j_k^\alpha(y) d\mu_\alpha(y),$$

so  $S_n^\alpha f$  denotes the  $n$ -th partial sum of its Fourier series with respect to the system  $\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty$ , which is usually called the Fourier–Neumann series.

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Most orthogonal systems (the trigonometric system, Jacobi, Hermite and Laguerre orthogonal polynomials and functions, etc.) are complete in their corresponding  $L^2$  space. However, this does not happen with  $\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty$ . To see this, let us consider the so-called modified Hankel transform  $H_\alpha$ , that is

$$H_\alpha f(x) = \int_0^\infty \frac{J_\alpha(xy)}{(xy)^\alpha} f(y)y^{2\alpha+1} dy, \quad x > 0, \tag{1}$$

(defined for suitable functions). In the usual way,  $H_\alpha$  can be extended to functions  $f \in L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$ ; it becomes an isometry on  $L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$ , where  $H_\alpha^2$  is the identity. Moreover, the Bessel functions and the Jacobi polynomials are related by means of

$$\int_0^\infty J_{\alpha+2n+1}(t)J_\alpha(xt) dt = x^\alpha P_n^{(\alpha,0)}(1-2x^2)\chi_{[0,1]}(x); \tag{2}$$

see, for instance, [2, Ch. 8.11, (5), p. 47]. From this formula,  $H_\alpha j_n^\alpha$  is supported on  $[0, 1]$ , so consequently  $\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty$  is not complete in  $L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$ . Furthermore, (2) allows expressing  $H_\alpha j_n^\alpha$  in terms of the Jacobi polynomials (which are a complete system). Then, by using that  $H_\alpha$  is an isometry on  $L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$ , the subspace  $B_{2,\alpha} = \overline{\text{span}\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty}$  (closure in  $L^2(d\mu_\alpha)$ ) can be identified with  $E_{2,\alpha} = \{f \in L^2(d\mu_\alpha) : M_\alpha f = f\}$ , where  $M_\alpha$  is the multiplier defined by

$$H_\alpha(M_\alpha f) = \chi_{[0,1]}H_\alpha f.$$

Let us point out that, as  $H_\alpha j_n^\alpha$  is supported on  $[0, 1]$ , we have  $M_\alpha j_n^\alpha = j_n^\alpha$  so  $j_n^\alpha \in E_{2,\alpha}$ , indeed.

The  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ -mean convergence of the Fourier–Neumann series was studied by one of the authors in [3], and later extended in [4]. An important part of these papers is devoted to identifying  $B_{p,\alpha} = \overline{\text{span}\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty}$  (closure in  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ ). When  $p \neq 2$ ,  $H_\alpha$  can be defined on  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  under some circumstances, but it is not an isometry, and then the relation (2) can no longer be used. However, for a certain range of  $p$ 's (summed up in (4)), the extension of the multiplier  $M_\alpha$  as a bounded operator from  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  into itself can be done in the usual way, by using suitable bounds of the Bessel functions. The operator  $M_\alpha$  has several interesting properties, such as  $M_\alpha^2 f = M_\alpha f$  and

$$\int_0^\infty f(y)M_\alpha g(y) d\mu_\alpha(y) = \int_0^\infty M_\alpha f(y)g(y) d\mu_\alpha(y), \tag{3}$$

which is valid whenever  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  and  $g \in L^{p'}(d\mu_\alpha)$  (with  $1/p + 1/p' = 1$ ). Moreover, the space  $E_{p,\alpha} = \{f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha) : M_\alpha f = f\}$  can be defined, and some of its properties proved:  $E_{s,\alpha} \subseteq E_{r,\alpha}$  when  $s < r$  (the inclusion being continuous and dense), the duality  $E'_{p,\alpha} = E_{p',\alpha}$  and, finally,  $B_{p,\alpha} = E_{p,\alpha}$ . The details can be found in [3,5].

The goal of this paper is to analyze the almost everywhere convergence of the Fourier–Neumann series  $S_n^\alpha f$  for functions  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ , with  $\alpha \geq -1/2$ . A partial study is done in [4], but now we are going to extend it, showing a further result.

For most orthogonal systems and their corresponding Fourier series, the study of the almost everywhere convergence for functions in  $L^p$  is rather complicated, much more than that of the mean convergence. For instance, for trigonometric series, the almost everywhere convergence for functions in  $L^2$  was conjectured by Lusin in 1915, and proved by Carleson in 1966 (extended by Hunt in 1967 for  $L^p$  with  $1 < p < \infty$ ). However, we are going to see that the proofs of the almost everywhere convergence of the Fourier–Neumann series for functions in  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  are, surprisingly, relatively simple (supposing that the mean convergence has been previously established).

We will restrict our analysis to the “natural” interval  $p \in (p_0(\alpha), p_1(\alpha))$  given by

$$p_0(\alpha) = \frac{4(\alpha + 1)}{2\alpha + 3} < p < \frac{4(\alpha + 1)}{2\alpha + 1} = p_1(\alpha). \tag{4}$$

In fact, the first requirement for having the partial sum of the Fourier–Neumann series in  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  (with  $1 < p < \infty$ ) is that  $j_n^\alpha \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  for every  $n$ . By using well-known estimates for the Bessel functions (namely (6) and (7)), this is equivalent to  $p > p_0(\alpha)$ . And, since the Fourier coefficients  $c_n^\alpha(f)$  must exist for every  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ , we must have  $j_n^\alpha \in L^{p'}(d\mu_\alpha)$  for every  $n$ , where  $1/p + 1/p' = 1$ . This is equivalent to  $p < p_1(\alpha)$ .

As we can see in [3], the range (4) is just the one for which the multiplier  $M_\alpha : L^p(d\mu_\alpha) \rightarrow L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  is a bounded operator, which allows defining the subspaces  $E_{p,\alpha}$ . However, the interval of mean convergence of the Fourier–Neumann series is not all of the range (4), but

$$\max \left\{ \frac{4}{3}, p_0(\alpha) \right\} < p < \min \{4, p_1(\alpha)\}. \tag{5}$$

That is, if  $p$  satisfies (5) and  $f \in E_{p,\alpha}$ , then  $S_n^\alpha f \rightarrow f$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ -norm. Conversely, (5) is a necessary condition for the mean convergence. When  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ , the Fourier–Neumann series converges to  $M_\alpha f$  (recall that  $M_\alpha f = f$  for functions in  $E_{p,\alpha}$ ).

In [4] we prove that, if  $p$  satisfies (5),  $S_n^\alpha f \rightarrow f$  almost everywhere for every  $f \in E_{p,\alpha}$  (and the convergence is to  $M_\alpha f$  for  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ ). Here, we extend this result by removing the condition  $4/3 < p < 4$  (which affects the case  $-1/2 \leq \alpha < 0$ ) for the almost everywhere convergence. Thus, we have

**Theorem.** Let us have  $\alpha \geq -1/2$  and  $p$  satisfying (4). Then,

$$S_n^\alpha f \rightarrow M_\alpha f$$

almost everywhere for every  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ .

## 2. Auxiliary results

The Bessel functions satisfy the asymptotic formulas (see, for instance, [1, Ch. III, 3.1 (8), p. 40] and [1, Ch. VII, 7.21 (1), p. 199])

$$J_\nu(x) = \frac{x^\nu}{2^\nu \Gamma(\nu + 1)} + O(x^{\nu+2}), \quad x \rightarrow 0^+, \tag{6}$$

$$J_\nu(x) = \left(\frac{2}{\pi x}\right)^{1/2} \left[\cos\left(x - \frac{\nu\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) + O(x^{-1})\right], \quad x \rightarrow \infty. \tag{7}$$

We will also use bounds with constants independent of the parameter  $\nu$  of the Bessel function. These bounds are a consequence of the very precise estimates that appear in [6]. To be more precise, we will use the following bound that can be found in [4,3]:

$$|J_\nu(x)| \leq Cx^{-1/4} (|x - \nu| + \nu^{1/3})^{-1/4}, \quad x \in (0, \infty), \tag{8}$$

where  $C$  is a positive constant independent of  $\nu$ .

With this information, let us estimate  $\|j_n^\alpha\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)}$ :

**Lemma 1.** Let  $\alpha \geq -1/2$  and  $p > p_0(\alpha)$ . Then,  $\{j_n^\alpha\}_{n=0}^\infty \subseteq L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  and

$$\|j_n^\alpha\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)} \leq C \begin{cases} n^{-(\alpha+1)+2(\alpha+1)/p}, & \text{if } p < 4, \\ n^{-(\alpha+1)/2} (\log n)^{1/4}, & \text{if } p = 4, \\ n^{-(5/6+\alpha)+(6\alpha+4)/(3p)}, & \text{if } p > 4, \end{cases}$$

with  $C$  a positive constant independent of  $n$ .

**Proof.** The assertion that  $j_n^\alpha \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  for every  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  follows from (6) and (7). Then, estimates (8) show that  $\|j_n^\alpha\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)}$  is bounded above by a constant times the right hand side. For a similar expression, see [7].  $\square$

Now, let us note that, for  $x \in (0, \infty)$  fixed, the Bessel function  $|J_\nu(x)|$  has a huge decay when  $\nu$  grows to  $\infty$  (and consequently the same happens with  $|j_n^\alpha(x)|$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ). In fact, according to [1, Ch. III, 3.31 (1), p. 49], we have

$$|J_\nu(x)| \leq \frac{2^{-\nu} x^\nu}{\Gamma(\nu + 1)}, \quad \nu \geq -1/2. \tag{9}$$

Then, we have

**Lemma 2.** Let  $\alpha \geq -1/2$  and  $p$  with  $1 < p < p_1(\alpha)$ . Then, for any  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  the Fourier series  $\sum_{n=0}^\infty c_n^\alpha(f) j_n^\alpha(x)$  converges absolutely for every  $x \in (0, \infty)$ . (Note that we do not assert that this convergence is to  $f(x)$ , not even almost everywhere.)

**Proof.** Recall that

$$c_n^\alpha(f) = \int_0^\infty f(y) j_n^\alpha(y) y^{2\alpha+1} dy. \tag{10}$$

Since  $p < p_1(\alpha)$ , it follows that  $p' > p_0(\alpha)$  (with  $1/p + 1/p' = 1$ ). Then, from Lemma 1, we have  $j_n^\alpha \in L^{p'}(d\mu_\alpha)$  and, moreover,  $\|j_n^\alpha\|_{L^{p'}(d\mu_\alpha)} \leq Cn^\delta$  for some constant  $\delta = \delta(p, \alpha)$ . Thus, by Hölder's inequality,

$$|c_n^\alpha(f)| \leq \|f\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)} \|j_n^\alpha\|_{L^{p'}(d\mu_\alpha)} \leq C \|f\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)} n^\delta.$$

On the other hand, as a consequence of (9), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |j_n^\alpha(x)| &= \sqrt{2(\alpha + 2n + 1)} |J_{\alpha+2n+1}(x)| x^{-\alpha-1} \\ &\leq \frac{\sqrt{2(\alpha + 2n + 1)} 2^{-(\alpha+2n+1)} x^{2n}}{\Gamma(\alpha + 2n + 2)}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$|c_n^\alpha(f) j_n^\alpha(x)| \leq C \|f\|_{L^p(d\mu_\alpha)} \frac{n^{\delta+1/2} (x/2)^{2n}}{\Gamma(\alpha + 2n + 2)} \tag{11}$$

and the series  $\sum_{n=0}^\infty c_n^\alpha(f) j_n^\alpha(x)$  converges absolutely.  $\square$

### 3. Proof of the theorem

By Lemma 2,  $S_n^\alpha f$  converges to some  $g$  pointwise when  $p$  satisfies (4). We want to prove that, almost everywhere,  $g = f$  if  $f \in E_{p,\alpha}$ , or, more generally,  $g = M_\alpha f$  if  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ .

As established in the introduction, we know that, when  $p$  satisfies (5),  $S_n^\alpha f$  converges to  $M_\alpha f$  in the  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ -norm; then,  $S_n^\alpha f$  has a subsequence that converges to  $M_\alpha f$  almost everywhere. Consequently  $g = M_\alpha f$  and the convergence  $S_n^\alpha f \rightarrow M_\alpha f$  almost everywhere is proved under the hypothesis (5).

This is the argument used in [4]. Let us see how to remove the condition  $4/3 < p < 4$ . For that, we are going to apply the summation process used in [5]. Thus, let us take

$$R_n^\alpha f = \frac{\lambda_0 S_0^\alpha f + \cdots + \lambda_n S_n^\alpha f}{\lambda_0 + \cdots + \lambda_n}$$

with  $\lambda_k = 2(\alpha + 2k + 2)$ . Actually, as established in that paper, this method is equivalent to the one given by the Cesàro means of order 1, but the kernels that appear with  $R_n^\alpha$  are easier to handle, and consequently the use of  $R_n^\alpha$  is more convenient for studying the uniform boundedness of the operators involved (and hence the mean convergence).

In [5] it is proved that, when  $p$  satisfies (4) (i.e., without  $4/3 < p < 4$ ),  $B_{p,\alpha} = E_{p,\alpha}$  and  $R_n^\alpha f \rightarrow f$  in the  $L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ -norm for every  $f \in E_{p,\alpha}$ . For general  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$ , we always have  $M_\alpha f \in E_{p,\alpha}$  (because  $M_\alpha^2 f = M_\alpha f$ ). Moreover, by using (3) and  $M_\alpha j_k^\alpha = j_k^\alpha$ , it follows that  $c_k^\alpha(f) = c_k^\alpha(M_\alpha f)$  for every  $k$ , and so  $R_n^\alpha f = R_n^\alpha(M_\alpha f)$ . As  $R_n^\alpha(M_\alpha f)$  converges in mean to  $M_\alpha f$ , also  $R_n^\alpha f$  converges in mean to  $M_\alpha f$ . Then, there exists a subsequence of  $R_n^\alpha f$  that converges almost everywhere to  $M_\alpha f$ .

On the other hand,  $R_n^\alpha$  is a regular summation process. Then, by Lemma 2, given  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  with  $p$  satisfying (4), we have that  $R_n^\alpha f(x)$  converges for every  $x \in (0, \infty)$  to the same function  $g(x)$  that is the pointwise limit of  $S_n^\alpha f(x)$ .

Thus, for  $p$  satisfying (4), we have: a subsequence of  $R_n^\alpha f$  converges almost everywhere to  $M_\alpha f$ ,  $S_n^\alpha f$  converges almost everywhere to  $g$ , and  $R_n^\alpha f$  converges almost everywhere to  $g$ . From these facts,  $g = M_\alpha f$  and the theorem is proved.

**Open question.** What happens for  $S_n^\alpha f$  with  $f \in L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  and  $1 < p \leq p_0(\alpha)$ ? Under these conditions, every  $c_k^\alpha(f)$  exists, so the partial sums  $S_n^\alpha f$  are well defined. Furthermore, Lemma 2 ensures that, pointwise,  $S_n^\alpha f(x)$  converges to some function  $g(x)$ . But, what is  $g(x)$ ? Let us note that, when  $1 < p \leq p_0(\alpha)$ , the bounded multiplier  $M_\alpha : L^p(d\mu_\alpha) \rightarrow L^p(d\mu_\alpha)$  no longer exists.

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