

# Rudin Ch9 - Fourier Transforms

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## 1 Notes

### 1.1 Formal Properties

**9.1 Def** In this chapter  $m$  will refer to the Lebesgue measure divided by  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ . Similarly, we denote

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dm(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

and similarly

$$\|f\|_p = \left\{ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^p dm(x) \right\}^{1/p}$$

$$(f * g) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x-y)g(y) dm(y)$$

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-ixt} dm(x)$$

$\hat{f}$  is called the *Fourier Transform* and this is also the term for the mapping  $f \rightarrow \hat{f}$ . A *character*  $\varphi$  of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  if  $|\varphi(t)| = 1$  and

$$\varphi(s+t) = \varphi(s)\varphi(t)$$

**9.2 Thm** Suppose  $f \in L^1$  and  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$  are real numbers

- (a) If  $g(x) = f(x)e^{i\alpha x}$ , then  $\hat{g}(t) = \hat{f}(t - \alpha)$ .
- (b) If  $g(x) = f(x - \alpha)$ , then  $\hat{g}(t) = \hat{f}(t)e^{-i\alpha t}$ .
- (c) If  $g \in L^1$  and  $h = f * g$ , then  $\hat{h}(t) = \hat{f}(t)\hat{g}(t)$ .

Thus the Fourier transform converts multiplication by a character into translations, vice-versa, and convolution to pointwise products.

- (d) If  $g(x) = \overline{f(-x)}$ , then  $\hat{g}(t) = \overline{\hat{f}(t)}$ .
- (e) If  $g(x) = f(x/\lambda)$  and  $\lambda > 0$ , then  $\hat{g}(t) = \lambda \hat{f}(t)$ .

(f) If  $g(x) = -ixf(x)$  and  $g \in L^1$ , then  $\hat{f}$  is differentiable and  $\hat{f}'(t) = \hat{g}(t)$ .

### 9.3 Remarks

(a) The dominated convergence theorem only applies to countable sequences, but it can be used for uncountable sequences in this case.

(b) Thm 9.2(b) shows that

$$[f(x + \alpha) - f(x)]/\alpha = \hat{f}(t) \frac{e^{i\alpha t} - 1}{\alpha}$$

Similarly, integration by parts shows that  $\hat{f}' = it\hat{f}(t)$ .

## 1.2 The Inversion Theorem

**9.4** We note that we can find the inversion of some formulas. For example, for the Fourier series,

$$c_n = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) e^{-inx} dx \implies f(x) = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{inx}$$

but this is not necessarily true for pointwise convergence. In particular, we can try (but run into roadblocks) to prove that

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(t) e^{itx} dm(t)$$

but run into

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(t-s)x} dx$$

**9.5 Thm** For any function  $\mathbb{R}^1$  and every  $y \in \mathbb{R}^1$ , let  $f_y$  be the translate of  $f$  defined by

$$f_y(x) = f(x - y)$$

If  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and if  $f \in L^p$ , the mapping

$$y \rightarrow f_y$$

is a uniformly continuous mapping of  $\mathbb{R}^1$  into  $L^p(\mathbb{R}^1)$ .

**9.6 Thm** If  $f \in L^1$  then  $\hat{f} \in C_0$  and

$$\|\hat{f}\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_1$$

**9.7 A Pair of Auxiliary Functions** If we put  $H(t) = e^{-|t|}$  and define

$$h_\lambda(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\lambda t) e^{itx} dm(t)$$

and this calculates to

$$h_\lambda(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{\lambda}{\lambda^2 + x^2}$$

so

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h_\lambda(x) dm(x) = 1$$

and  $H(\lambda t) \rightarrow 1$  as  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ .

**9.8 Prop** If  $f \in L^1$ , then

$$(f * h_\lambda)(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(\lambda t) \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dm(t)$$

**9.9 Thm** If  $g \in L^\infty$  and  $g$  is continuous at a point  $x$ , then

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} (g * h_\lambda)(x) = g(x)$$

**9.10 Thm** If  $1 \leq p < \infty$  and  $f \in L^p$ , then

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \|f * h_\lambda - f\|_p = 0$$

**9.11 The Inversion Thm** If  $f \in L^1$  and  $\hat{f} \in L^1$ , and if

$$g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dm(t)$$

then  $g \in C_0$  and  $f(x) = g(x)$  a.e.

**9.12 The Uniqueness Thm** If  $f \in L^1$  and  $\hat{f}(t) = 0$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$ , then  $f(x) = 0$  a.e.

### 1.3 The Plancherel Theorem

We have that  $L^2 \not\subseteq L^1$ , and so we look at  $L^1 \cap L^2$ . It turns out  $\|\hat{f}_2\| = \|f\|_2$ . There exists an extension from  $L^1 \cap L^2$  to  $L^2$  (and this defined a Fourier Transform called the *Plancherel Transform*).

**9.13 Thm** One can associate to each  $f \in L^2$  a function  $\hat{f} \in L^2$  s.t.

- (a) If  $f \in L^1 \cap L^2$ , then  $\hat{f}$  is the previously defined Fourier transform of  $f$ .
- (b) For every  $f \in L^2$ ,  $\|\hat{f}\|_2 = \|f\|_2$ .
- (c) The mapping  $f \rightarrow \hat{f}$  is a Hilbert Space Isomorphism of  $L^2$  onto  $L^2$ .

(d) The following symmetric relation exists between  $f$  and  $\hat{f}$ : If

$$\varphi_A(t) = \int_{-A}^A f(x)e^{-ixt}dm(x) \quad \psi_A(x) = \int_{-A}^A \hat{f}(t)e^{ixt}dm(t)$$

then  $\|\varphi_A - \hat{f}\|_2 \rightarrow 0$  and  $\|\psi_A - f\|_2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $A \rightarrow \infty$ .

**9.14 Thm** If  $f \in L^2$  and  $\hat{f} \in L^1$ , then

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(t)e^{ixt}dm(t) \quad \text{a.e.}$$

**9.15 Remark** If  $f \in L^1$ , we have

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(t)e^{ixt}dm(t)$$

but, if  $f \in L^2$ , this is only a.e. which makes it harder for Fourier transforms in  $L^1$  as compared to  $L^2$ .

**9.16 Translation-Invariant Subspace of  $L^2$**  A subspace  $M$  of  $L^2$  is said to be *translation invariant* if  $f \in M \implies f_\alpha \in M$ , where  $f_\alpha = f(x - \alpha)$  for every real  $\alpha$ . We ask for a description of the closed translation invariant subspaces of  $L^2$ .

Using the Fourier transform, we find that  $M$  is the set of all preimages of  $\hat{M}$  under the Fourier Transform which vanish a.e. on a measurable subset  $E$  of  $\mathbb{R}^1$ .

**9.17 Thm** Associate to each measurable set  $E \subset \mathbb{R}^1$  the space  $M_E$  of all  $f \in L^2$  s.t.  $\hat{f} = 0$  a.e.  $M_E$  is a closed translation invariant subspace of  $L^2$ .  $M_A = M_B$  iff

$$m(((A - B) \cup (B - A))) = 0$$

## 1.4 The Banach Algebra $L^1$

**9.18 Def** A Banach Space  $A$  is a *Banach Algebra* if there is multiplication defined in  $A$  s.t.

$$\|xy\| \leq \|x\|\|y\|$$

and the associative and distributive laws are held true for elements, and commutativity also holds for scalars.

### 9.19 Examples

(a)  $A = C(X)$  where  $X$  is a compact Hausdorff space with sup norm and  $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ . This is a commutative Banach Algebra.

(b)  $C_0(\mathbb{R}^1)$  is a commutative Banach Algebra without a unit.

(c) The set of all linear operators in  $\mathbb{R}^k$  with a norm as defined by

$$\|\Lambda\| = \sup\{\|\Lambda x\| : x \in X, \|x\| \leq 1\}$$

and additions and multiplication defined by

$$(A + B)x = Ax + Bx \quad (AB)x = A(Bx)$$

is a Banach Algebra with a unit and is not commutative for  $k > 1$ .

(d)  $L^1$  is a Banach Algebra if we define multiplication by convolution, as

$$\|f * g\|_1 \leq \|f\|_1 \|g\|_1$$

$L^1$  is a commutative Banach Algebra that maps  $L^1$  to  $C_0$ , so there is no unit.

**9.20 Complex Homomorphisms** The most important complex functions on a Banach Algebra  $A$  are linear functionals that preserve multiplications

$$\varphi(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha \varphi(x) + \beta \varphi(y) \quad \varphi(xy) = \varphi(x)\varphi(y)$$

**9.21 Thm** If  $\varphi$  is a complex homomorphism on a Banach Algebra  $A$ , then the norm  $\varphi$ , as a linear functional, is at most 1.

**9.22 The Complex Homomorphisms of  $L^1$**  If  $\varphi$  is a complex homomorphism of  $L^1$  of norm 1 where

$$\varphi(f * g) = \varphi(f)\varphi(g)$$

There exists a  $\beta \in L^\infty$  s.t.

$$\varphi(f) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\beta(x)dm(x)$$

and we can see that  $\beta = e^{-ixt}$ , and this is the Fourier transform.

**9.23 Thm** To every complex homomorphism  $\varphi$  on  $L^1$  (except  $\varphi = 0$ ) there corresponds  $t \in \mathbb{R}^1$  s.t.  $\varphi(f) = \hat{f}(t)$ .

## 2 Exercises

**Exercise 1** Note that, we have

$$|\hat{f}(y)| = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)e^{-ixy} dm(x) \right| \leq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)e^{-ixy}| dm(x)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) |e^{-ixy}| dm(x) = \hat{f}(0)$$

and note that equality only happens when  $e^{-ixy} = 1$  for all  $x$ , or when  $y = 0$ .

**Exercise 3** We note that this is just  $f$  where  $\hat{f}(t) = \frac{\sin(\lambda t)}{t}$ . Note that this value is just

$$\int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} \frac{e^{-ixt}}{2} dm(x)$$

and so we remove other values

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2} (\operatorname{sgn}(x + \lambda) - \operatorname{sgn}(x - \lambda)) dm(x)$$

and so  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} (\operatorname{sgn}(x + \lambda) - \operatorname{sgn}(x - \lambda))$ .

**Exercise 5** We note that, by Fubini's Theorem, we have

$$\int_a^b i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dm(t) dm(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_a^b it \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dm(x) dm(t) = f(b) - f(a)$$

by the inversion theorem. Therefore, it follows that for some  $g$  with derivative  $i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dm(t)$  and a proper minimum  $C$ , we have  $f = g$  a.e.

**Exercise 7** We note that, for  $|x| \leq 1$ , we find that  $|f(x)| \leq A_{00}(f)$ . Furthermore, for  $|x| \geq 1$ , we note that

$$|x^2 f(x)| \leq A_{20}(f) \implies |f(x)| \leq \frac{A_{20}(f)}{x^2}$$

let  $C$  be the maximum amount  $A_{00}(f)$  and  $A_{20}(f)$ . Note that that implies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)| dx = \int_{-\infty}^{-1} |f(x)| dx + \int_{-1}^1 |f(x)| dx + \int_1^{\infty} |f(x)| dx \leq 4C$$

In general, we can define  $C_{mn}$  s.t.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x^n D^m f(x)| dx \leq C_{mn}(f)$$

by using the fact that  $|x^{n+2} D^m f(x)| \leq A_{(n+2)m}(f)$  and  $|x^n D^m f(x)| \leq A_{mn}(f)$  for  $|x| \geq 1$  and  $|x| \leq 1$  respectively. Now, we note that

$$D^m \hat{f}(x) = D^m \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) e^{-ixt} dm(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (-it)^m f(t) e^{-ixt} dm(t)$$

So we note

$$\begin{aligned} |x^n D^m \hat{f}(x)| &\leq \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t^{m+n} f(t) e^{-it} dm(t) + \int_{-x}^x (-it)^m f(t) e^{-ixt} dm(t) \right| \\ &\leq |C_{(m+2)0}(f)| + |C_{m0}(f)| \end{aligned}$$

and so we take these values as our  $A_{mn}(\hat{f})$ , which implies  $\hat{f} \in S$ . Some possible elements of  $f$  are  $0, \sin(\frac{1}{x})$ .

**Exercise 9** Note that, for some  $\epsilon$ , clearly there must be a  $N$  for which  $|x| > N \implies |f(x)|^p < \epsilon$  by definition of  $L^p$ . Therefore, it follows that,

$$f(x) \leq |f(x)| < \sqrt[p]{\epsilon}$$

so, there exists  $\epsilon_0 = \sqrt[p]{\epsilon}$  and  $g(x) < \epsilon_0$  for all  $|x| > N$ , which means it vanishes at  $\infty$ . For  $p = \infty$ , we note that implies  $g(x) < \infty$  for all  $\infty$ , but not much else.

**Exercise 11** We note that the  $n$ th Fourier coefficients of  $F$  is  $\varphi(n)$ , as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} F(x) e^{ixt} dx &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(x + 2k\pi) e^{-ixt} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x + 2k\pi) e^{-ixt} dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx \end{aligned}$$

only when  $f$  is also cyclic. The condition  $F = \sum \varphi(n) e^{inx}$  is the summation of the Fourier coefficients. This implies the condition that

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(2k\pi) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi(n)$$

and the more general condition

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} f(k\beta) = \alpha \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi(nx) \quad \alpha\beta = 2\pi$$

follows when we consider different cycles of  $\beta$ . As  $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ , the RHS goes to  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi dm$  and this makes sense with the inversion theorem.

**Exercise 13**

(a) Note that integration by parts taking  $u = e^{-cx^2}$  and  $dv = e^{-ixt}$  gives us the equation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ct^2} e^{-itx} dt + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{2cte^{-ct^2} e^{-itx}}{xi} dt = \frac{e^{-ct^2} e^{-itx}}{-ix} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} = 0$$

where the last equality comes from a norm argument. Notice tha the second term (with the  $x$  from the denominator removed) is the derivative with respect to  $x$ . Rearranging, we can conclude that

$$xf_c(x) + 2cf'_c(x) = 0$$

as given by the hint. Through first order differential equations, we find that  $f(x) = c_1 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2c}}$  for some constant  $c_1$ . However, substituting value  $x = 0$  gives us a value of  $c_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{c}}$ .

(b) Note that our value of  $c$  is given by the equation  $\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{c}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2c}} = e^{-cx^2}$ , which, under natural log, gives us

$$-\frac{x^2}{2c} \ln \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{c}} = -cx^2$$

and this is just an equation of  $c$  which simplifies to

$$4c + \frac{1}{2} \ln c = \frac{1}{2} \ln \pi$$

Note that the LHS has a slope (respective to  $c$ ) of  $4 + \frac{1}{c}$ , so it can only be equal to the RHS once. At  $\infty$  the LHS goes to  $\infty$  and nearing 0 we have a value of  $-\infty$ , and so this must have a solution since the LHS is continuous.

(c) We note that  $f_a * f_b$  is given by

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-a(x-t)^2 - b(t)^2} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(a+b)t^2 + 2axt - ax^2} dt = e^{-ax^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{a+b} e^{2axt} dt$$

and this value can be simplified by completing the square to

$$e^{-abx^2/(a+b)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(\sqrt{a+b}t - \frac{ax}{\sqrt{a+b}})^2} dt = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a+b}} e^{-\frac{abx^2}{a+b}}$$

and so we find that  $\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a+b}}$  and  $c = \frac{ab}{a+b}$ .

(d) This proves that the theta function on  $\beta$  is equal to the theta function of  $\alpha$  times  $\alpha$ .

**Exercise 15** This is outside the purview of this book's material. The book doesn't define the Fourier Transformation for  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and integration is difficult for this.

**Exercise 17** We note that, if  $f(\frac{1}{n}) = \sqrt[n]{f(1)}$ , which means that this value get's arbitrarily close to 1. Therefore, we note that  $f(\alpha \pm \frac{1}{n}) = f(\alpha)f(\frac{1}{n})$  get's arbitrarily close to  $f(\alpha)$ , which proves continuity.



we can take a similar argument to prove for  $\mathbb{R}^k$  as we divide by  $\frac{1}{n}$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and at some point the distance get's arbitrarily close to 0, as desired.

**Exercise 19** We note that  $\chi_A * \chi_B$  is obviously continuous, as we can set  $\delta$  where the total length of all continuous segments of measure  $0 < m < \delta$  in  $\chi_A * \chi_B$  and  $n * \delta$ , where  $n$  is the number of continuous segments of measure  $m < \delta$ , is  $< \epsilon$ . Note that this is possible since this function goes to 0 as  $\delta \rightarrow 0$ .

Furthermore, our function  $\chi_A * \chi_B$  is not 0 as, for some measure, we can have an  $x$  s.t. the integral isn't 0.

It follows that there is a segment among the domain of  $\chi_A * \chi_B$  which has a positive value for all elements. This segment is clearly the sum of values of  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , so it follows that this is the segment of  $A + B$  with measure  $> 0$ .