

# Quantised Calculus.

## Lecture 21: Quantised calculus on the circle.

AMSI Summer School, 2019.

# Plan for this lecture

- Introduction to Fourier analysis on the circle.
- Introduction to quantised differentials.

# The circle

$\mathbb{T}$  denotes the unit circle in the complex plane:

$$\mathbb{T} := \{\zeta \in \mathbb{C} : |\zeta| = 1\}.$$

The circle  $\mathbb{T}$  comes equipped with a metric (the arc-length metric).  
It makes sense therefore to define:

$$C(\mathbb{T}) := \{f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : f \text{ is continuous.}\}.$$

# Fourier series of continuous functions

Suppose that  $f$  is a continuous function on  $\mathbb{T}$  ( $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ). Define the uniform norm,  $\|f\|_\infty$ , of  $f$  as:

$$\|f\|_\infty := \sup_{\zeta \in \mathbb{T}} |f(\zeta)| = \max_{\zeta \in \mathbb{T}} |f(\zeta)|.$$

## Lemma 1.1

$C(\mathbb{T})$  is a Banach space with the norm  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ .

# Integration on the circle

Given a function  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , define the integral of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{T}$  as being:

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\zeta) d\mathbf{m}(\zeta) := \int_0^1 f(e^{2\pi it}) dt.$$

In other words, we are simply identifying  $[0, 1)$  with  $\mathbb{T}$  via the map  $t \mapsto e^{2\pi it}$ , and the space of functions on  $\mathbb{T}$  is nothing but the space of functions on  $[0, 1)$  (but wrapped into a circle) and continuous functions on  $\mathbb{T}$  correspond to periodic functions on  $[0, 1]$ .

# Integration on the circle

For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , let  $e_n$  denote the monomial function:

$$e_n(z) = z^n, \quad z \in \mathbb{T}.$$

With the identification  $[0, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{T}$ ,  $e_n$  corresponds to  $t \mapsto \exp(2\pi i n t)$ .

# Integration on the circle

A function  $f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is said to be (Lebesgue) measurable if  $t \mapsto f(e^{2\pi it})$  is Lebesgue measurable on  $[0, 1)$ .

Now we can define:

$$L_2(\mathbb{T}) := \{f : \mathbb{T} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : f \text{ is measurable and } \int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^2 d\mathbf{m} < \infty\}.$$

Since by definition we have:

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} |f(\zeta)|^2 d\mathbf{m}(\zeta) = \int_0^1 |f(e^{2\pi it})|^2 dt$$

$L_2(\mathbb{T})$  is an inner product space, with the inner product:

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(\zeta) \overline{g(\zeta)} d\mathbf{m}(\zeta).$$

## An orthonormal basis for $L_2(\mathbb{T})$

This means that the sequence  $\{e_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is an orthonormal set in  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$ .

As discussed in earlier lectures, it is a basis.



# Fourier series on the circle

Given  $f \in L_2(\mathbb{T})$  and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we can consider the  $n$ th Fourier coefficient of  $f$ , which is given by:

$$\widehat{f}(n) = \langle f, e_n \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f(z) z^{-n} d\mathbf{m}(z) = \int_0^1 f(e^{2\pi i t}) e^{-2\pi i n t} dt.$$

Therefore (using basic Hilbert space theory) we get that for all  $f \in L_2(\mathbb{T})$  we have:

$$f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \widehat{f}(n) e_n$$

where the sum converges in the  $L_2$ -sense, and:

$$\int_{\mathbb{T}} |f|^2 d\mathbf{m} = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |\widehat{f}(n)|^2.$$

# Differential calculus from Fourier series

Note that  $e_0(z) = z^0 = 1$ . That is,  $z^0$  is just the constant function and hence:

$$\widehat{f}(0) = \langle f, e_0 \rangle = \langle f, 1 \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f \, d\mathbf{m}.$$

That is: the 0th Fourier coefficient of  $f$  is just the integral.

# Differential calculus from Fourier series

Consider a function  $f$  on  $\mathbb{T}$ . The **angular derivative** of  $f$ , denoted  $\partial f$  is defined by:

$$(\partial f)(e^{2\pi it}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{d}{dt} f(e^{2\pi it}).$$

Therefore:

$$\partial(e_n) = ine_n, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

# Differential calculus and Fourier series

So at a purely informal level, we get:

$$\partial f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} in \hat{f}(n) e_n.$$

So: to differentiate a function, just multiply its  $n$ th Fourier coefficient by  $in$ .

## Other Fourier multipliers

Operators like  $\partial$  are just the beginning of a general notion called a Fourier multiplier: Let  $g$  be a function on  $\mathbb{Z}$ . Define  $g(\partial)$  as the operator:

$$g(\partial)f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} g(n) \hat{f}(n) e_n.$$

### Lemma 1.2

*If  $g$  is bounded, then  $g(\partial)$  is a bounded linear operator on  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$ .*

# The Laplace operator and the Bessel potential

The Laplace operator  $\Delta$  is defined as  $\partial^2$ . That is,

$$\Delta(e_n) = (in)^2 e_n = -n^2 e_n.$$

This defines an **unbounded** linear operator on  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$ , since  $\|e_n\|_{L_2(\mathbb{T})} = 1$  but  $\|\Delta(e_n)\|_{L_2(\mathbb{T})} = |n|^2 \uparrow \infty$ .

A much friendlier operator is the **Bessel potential**  $(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}$ .

This is given by:

$$(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2} f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} (1 + n^2)^{-1/2} \hat{f}(n) e_n.$$

# The Bessel potential

## Lemma 1.3

*The operator  $(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}$  is in the ideal  $\mathcal{L}_{1,\infty}(L_2(\mathbb{T}))$ .*

## Proof.

By the definition of a Fourier multiplier, we have:

$$(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2} e_n = (1 + n^2)^{-1/2} e_n.$$

So  $(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}$  is self-adjoint compact operator with eigenvalues  $\{(1 + n^2)^{-1/2}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ . These are positive, and so are also the singular values. Since the sequence  $\{(1 + n^2)^{-1/2}\}_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$  is  $O(n^{-1})$ , it follows that  $(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2} \in \mathcal{L}_{1,\infty}(L_2(\mathbb{T}))$ .  $\square$

# Multiplication operators

Given  $g \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , define the pointwise multiplication operator:

$$(M_g f)(\zeta) := g(\zeta)f(\zeta), \quad \zeta \in \mathbb{T}.$$

You have already seen pointwise multiplication operators on  $L_2([0, 1])$  and these are basically the same.

## Lemma 1.4

*Each  $M_g$ ,  $g \in C(\mathbb{T})$  is a bounded linear operator on  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$  and:*

$$\|M_g\| \leq \sup_{\zeta \in \mathbb{T}} |g(\zeta)| = \|g\|_\infty.$$



# Connes' integration formula

Now we can finally obtain the first application of singular traces:

## Theorem 1.5 (Connes' integral formula for $\mathbb{T}$ )

*Suppose that  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , and that  $\mathrm{Tr}_\omega$  is a Dixmier trace. Then:*

$$\mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f \, d\mathbf{m}.$$

This is remarkable: such a highly singular object as a Dixmier trace recovers the classical Lebesgue integral.

# Fourier series of continuous functions

Before we prove Connes' integration formula, we need to know some facts concerning Fourier series of continuous functions.

If  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , since in particular  $f \in L_2(\mathbb{T})$ , we will definitely have:

$$f = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \hat{f}(n) e_n$$

where the sum converges in the  $L_2$ -sense. But does it converge in the uniform norm?

In fact the answer is no! There exist continuous functions  $f$  whose Fourier series does not converge to  $f$  in the uniform norm.

# Fourier series of continuous functions

Nonetheless it is possible to determine a continuous function as a “sum” of its Fourier series in the uniform norm, if one is willing to relax the meaning of “sum”.

## Theorem 1.6 (Fejér theorem)

*If  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , define:*

$$\sigma_N(f) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{j=-k}^k \hat{f}(n) z^n$$

*Then  $\sigma_N(f)$  converges to  $f$  uniformly.*

# Rotation operators

Suppose that  $w = e^{i\theta} \in \mathbb{T}$ . The operation of “rotating by an angle  $\theta$ ” is given by:

$$(R_w f)(\zeta) = f(\zeta w^{-1}), \quad \zeta \in \mathbb{T}.$$

We can rotate a basis function  $e_n$  as follows:

$$(R_w e_n)(\zeta) = (\zeta w^{-1})^n = w^{-n} \zeta^n = w^{-n} e_n.$$

It is easy to see that:

$$(R_w)^* = R_{\overline{w}}$$

and also that  $R_w$  is unitary. Moreover,  $R_w$  commutes with Fourier multipliers.

## Proof of Connes' integral formula for $\mathbb{T}$

Consider initially the case when  $f = e_n$  and let  $w \in \mathbb{T}$ . Then by the unitary invariance of  $\text{Tr}_\omega$ :

$$\text{Tr}_\omega(M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = \text{Tr}_\omega(R_w M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2} R_w^*).$$

Since rotations commute with Fourier multipliers, and  $R_w z^n = w^{-n} z^n$ , we have:

$$\text{Tr}_\omega(M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = w^{-n} \text{Tr}_\omega(M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}).$$

But  $w$  was arbitrary! So if  $n \neq 0$  we can choose  $w$  such that  $w^{-n} \neq 1$ , and then:

$$\text{Tr}_\omega(M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = 0, \quad n \neq 0.$$

On other other hand, it is easy to compute that  $\text{Tr}_\omega((1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = 1$ .

## Proof of Connes' integral formula for $\mathbb{T}$

Now suppose that  $f$  is a function whose Fourier series is finitely supported,  $f = \sum_{n=-N}^N \widehat{f}(n)e_n$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) &= \sum_{n=-N}^N \widehat{f}(n) \mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_{e_n}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) \\ &= \widehat{f}(0) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f \, d\mathbf{m}.\end{aligned}$$

Finally, one can remove the assumption that  $f$  has finitely supported Fourier transform by using the continuity of  $\mathrm{Tr}_\omega$ . We have that:

$$\begin{aligned}|\mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2})| &\leq \|M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}\|_{1,\infty} \\ &\leq \|M_f\|_\infty \|(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}\|_{1,\infty} \\ &\leq \|f\|_\infty \|(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}\|_{1,\infty}.\end{aligned}$$

# Proof of Connes' integral formula for $\mathbb{T}$

Let  $f$  be continuous. Since  $\sigma_N f$  (the Fejèr mean) has finitely supported Fourier transform, we have:

$$\mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_{\sigma_N f}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) = \widehat{\sigma_N f}(0) = \widehat{f}(0).$$

From the Fejér theorem:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|\sigma_N(f) - f\|_\infty = 0,$$

therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathrm{Tr}_\omega(M_{\sigma_N f}(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}) \\ &= \widehat{f}(0) = \int_{\mathbb{T}} f \, d\mathbf{m}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

# Quantised differentials

The beauty of Connes' integral formula is that ideas from classical calculus can be recovered from the spectral, operator theoretic information of  $M_f(1 - \Delta)^{-1/2}$ .

But there is more to come: Alain Connes also proposed a “spectral” definition of a classical differential  $df$ . This is called the quantised differential  $\bar{d}f$ , and it has no classical counterpart.



## Quantised differentials (cont.)

Define the Hilbert transform  $F$  as the Fourier multiplier:

$$F(e_n) = \begin{cases} e_n, & n \geq 0 \\ -e_n, & n < 0. \end{cases}$$

More concisely,  $F(e_n) = \operatorname{sgn}(n)e_n$  where  $\operatorname{sgn}$  is the “sign” function. Then the quantised differential is defined as the operator (on  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$ ) given by:

$$\bar{d}f := i[F, M_f]$$

where  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ .

## Quantised differentials (cont.)

For  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ , we can compute the matrix elements of  $\bar{d}f$  in the Fourier basis:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \bar{d}f e_n, e_m \rangle &= \langle iFM_f e_n, e_m \rangle - \langle iM_f F e_n, e_m \rangle \\ &= i\langle M_f e_n, F e_m \rangle - i\langle M_f F e_n, e_m \rangle \\ &= i\operatorname{sgn}(m)\langle M_f e_n, e_m \rangle - i\operatorname{sgn}(n)\langle M_f e_n, e_m \rangle \\ &= i(\operatorname{sgn}(m) - \operatorname{sgn}(n))\langle M_f e_n, e_m \rangle \\ &= i(\operatorname{sgn}(m) - \operatorname{sgn}(n))\hat{f}(m - n).\end{aligned}$$

# Quantised differentials (cont.)

## Theorem 1.7

For all  $f \in C(\mathbb{T})$ ,  $\bar{d}f$  is a compact operator on  $L_2(\mathbb{T})$ .

(Proof outline).

First if  $f$  has finitely supported Fourier transform, one can see from the matrix representation that  $\bar{d}f$  has finite rank. Then since:

$$\|\bar{d}f\|_{\infty} \leq \|FM_f\|_{\infty} + \|M_fF\|_{\infty} \leq 2\|f\|_{\infty}$$

one can use the Fejér theorem:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|\bar{d}f - \bar{d}\sigma_N f\|_{\infty} \leq 2 \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \|f - \sigma_N f\|_{\infty} = 0$$

and therefore  $\bar{d}f$  is a limit in the uniform norm of finite rank operators. □

So  $\bar{d}f$  is an infinitesimal!

# The importance of quantised differentials.

Why is  $\bar{d}f$  interesting?

Because  $\bar{d}f$  makes sense when  $f$  is merely continuous. No assumption of differentiability is needed! This gives us a possibility to do “calculus” with non-smooth objects like fractals.