

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{(-n^2 a_n - 7n b_n + a_n \cdot 10)}_{\text{must be } 0'' \text{ for } n=1,2,3,\dots} \cos nx + (-n^2 b_n + 7n a_n + 10 b_n) \sin nx =$$

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

$$-n^2 b_n + 7n a_n + 10 b_n = \frac{2}{n} (-1)^{n+1}$$

In this case it was better the complex computation.

F.S. are a good tool when in an ODE (and later, as we'll see, in PDE) we need to represent a known and/or unknown periodic function.

Also F.S. are a good tool when we are interested on functions on a finite interval $[a, b]$ (because we can always assume that $f(x)$ for $x \in [a, b]$ is one period of a periodic function). They are NOT a good tool for functions on $(-\infty; +\infty)$ or $(0; +\infty)$.

Quick introduction on FOURIER TRANSFORM

Def. The Fourier Transform \hat{f} of a function f is given by the integral

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

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) (\cos tx - i \sin tx) dx$$

this (improper) integral is well defined (in the classical sense) if $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ (f is such that $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)| dx$ is FINITE). There are generalizations of this definition (... later).

N.B. On the line $L^2(\mathbb{R}) \not\subset L^1(\mathbb{R})$ and $L^1(\mathbb{R}) \not\subset L^2(\mathbb{R})$ (unlike $L^1([a, b])$ which contains all $L^p([a, b])$ for $p > 1$, in particular $L^2([a, b])$) [CFR page 18]

If $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, i.e., $\|f\|_2 = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx\right)^{1/2}$ is finite, then we define $\hat{f}(t) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-N}^N f(x) e^{-ixt} dx$

In fact, the F.T. maps $L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$, this map is bijective (injective and surjective) and it's also isometric ($\|\hat{f}\|_2 = \|f\|_2$)

Prop. If f is even & real-valued $\Rightarrow \hat{f}(t) = 2 \int_0^{+\infty} f(x) \cos xt dx$

Proof: $\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{even}} \underbrace{\cos xt}_{\text{even}} dx - i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{EVEN}} \underbrace{\sin xt}_{\text{ODD}} dx =$

$= 2 \int_0^{+\infty} f(x) \cos xt dx$

If f is ODD and real-valued, then \hat{f} is odd and pure-imaginary

$\hat{f}(t) = -2i \int_0^{+\infty} f(x) \sin xt dx$

Proof: $\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{ODD}} \underbrace{\cos xt}_{\text{EVEN}} dx - i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{ODD}} \underbrace{\sin xt}_{\text{ODD}} dx =$

$= -2i \int_0^{+\infty} f(x) \sin xt dx$

Beware!!
 with integers
 ODD · EVEN = EVEN
 with functions
 ODD · EVEN = ODD
 $f(x) = f(-x)$
 $f(x) = -f(-x)$

Linearity

$[\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)]^\hat{ } (t) = \alpha \hat{f}(t) + \beta \hat{g}(t)$

(Proof obvious) (easy but important fact)

(The transform of a linear combination of functions is equal to the linear combination of the transforms)

$$[f'(x)]^\wedge(t) = (it) \hat{f}(t)$$

$$[f''(x)]^\wedge(t) = (it)^2 \hat{f}(t)$$

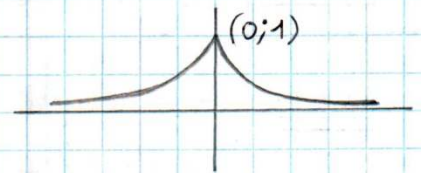
⋮

$$[f^{(n)}(x)]^\wedge(t) = (it)^n \hat{f}(t)$$

ex. Compute the F.T. of $f(x) = e^{-|x|}$

clearly $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$

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



$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Graph of } f(x) = e^{-|x|} \\ \text{and the integral definition of } \hat{f}(t) \end{array} \right\} \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ e^x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

N.B. The F.T. of $f(x) = e^x$ is not well defined (at least in the classical way) because $e^x \notin L^1(\mathbb{R})$

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-|x|} e^{-ixt} dx = \underbrace{\int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x} e^{-ixt} dx}_{e^{-x(1+it)}} + \int_{-\infty}^0 e^x e^{-ixt} dx \underbrace{e^{x(1-it)}}_{e^{x(1-it)}}$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \left[\frac{e^{-x(1+it)}}{-(1+it)} \right]_0^b + \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \left[\frac{e^{x(1-it)}}{1-it} \right]_a^0 =$$

$$= \frac{-1}{1+it} \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \underbrace{(e^{-b(1+it)} - 1)}_{\downarrow 0} + \frac{1}{1-it} \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \underbrace{(1 - e^{a(1-it)})}_{\downarrow 0} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+it} + \frac{1}{1-it} = \frac{1-it+1+it}{(1+it)(1-it)} = \frac{2}{1+t^2}$$

$f(x)$	$\hat{f}(t)$
$e^{- x }$	$\frac{2}{1+t^2}$

Notation we will write both $F[f(x)]$ or $\hat{f}(t)$ or $[f(x)]^\wedge(t)$ for the Fourier Transform of f .

$$F[f(x-y)](t) = e^{-ity} \hat{f}(t) \quad (\text{multiplication by a complex exponential is called modulation.})$$

[F.T. maps translations into modulations]

$$F[e^{ixy} f(x)](t) = \hat{f}(t-y) \quad [\& \text{vice-versa}]$$

$$F[f(\frac{x}{\lambda})] = \lambda \hat{f}(\lambda t) \quad (\text{horizontal rescaling is mapped into reverse-horizontal and vertical rescaling})$$

Riemann - Lebesgue Theorem

If $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then $\hat{f} \in C_0(\mathbb{R})$, i.e., the function $\hat{f}(t)$ is continuous for $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\lim_{t \rightarrow \pm\infty} \hat{f}(t) = 0$.

Furthermore $\|\hat{f}\|_\infty = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} |\hat{f}(t)|$

and $\|f\|_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)| dx$ satisfy $\|\hat{f}\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_1$

N.B. The map $F: L^1(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C_0(\mathbb{R})$ is not surjective (it is injective)

There are functions $g \in C_0(\mathbb{R})$ which are not images of $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ under F.T.

It is possible to show that $F: L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ bijectively (Plancherel's theorem).

Compare this with $F: L^1(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow C_0(\mathbb{R})$; the map is not surjective and it is difficult to describe $F(L^1(\mathbb{R})) \subset C_0(\mathbb{R})$

Inversion Formula

$$f(x) = F^{-1}[\hat{f}] = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dt \quad (*)$$

Remarks

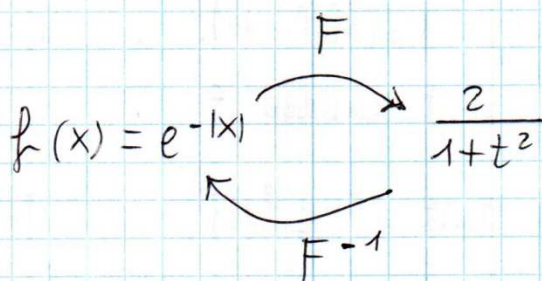
- (1) the inversion formula looks very similar to the direct formula (3 differences:
- factor $1/2\pi$ in front of the integral;
- e^{ixt} factor instead of e^{-ixt} ;
- the integral is in t .)
- (2) Not all functions in $C_0(\mathbb{R})$ are also in $L^1(\mathbb{R})$, so the (*) inverse transform is defined in classical way only in a subset of cases...

- (3) the inversion formula, when valid, is equivalent to:

$$F[F[f]](x) = 2\pi f(-x)$$

- (4) in the example we computed $f(x) = e^{-|x|} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$,
 $\hat{f}(t) = \frac{2}{1+t^2} \in C_0(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^1(\mathbb{R})$, so there is no problem in applying the inversion formula

i.e. $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{2}{1+t^2} e^{ixt} dt = e^{-|x|}$



Both F and F^{-1} are operators (function between functions)

- (5) This formula (*) can be thought as a way of representing $f(x)$ ($x \in \mathbb{R}$) as a superposition of waves $e^{ixt} = \cos xt + i \sin xt$

sinusoidal of frequency depending on $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and "amplitude" $\hat{f}(t)$. Please compare with the F.S. (complex version) of $f(x)$ 2π -periodic $f(x) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k e^{ikx}$ (discrete frequencies amplitudes c_k)

e^{ikx} analog of e^{ixt} (t analog k) (in (*) we have continuous frequencies)

$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{+\infty} \dots$ analog of $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \dots dt$

Note that we have a factor $1/2\pi$ in front of the I.F.T. and no factor in front of the F.T.

Depending on the book you look at, sometimes other conventions are used:

Alternatives: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ in front both of F.T. and I.F.T.

Also factor 1 in front of both F.T. and I.F.T. but $\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-2\pi ixt} dx$

In the book puts $1/2\pi$ in front of F.T., 1 for I.F.T.

Derivative properties of F.T.

$$F[f'(x)] = (it) \hat{f}(t)$$

$$F[x f(x)] = i \hat{f}'(t)$$

Plancherel / Parseval identities

Assume that $\|f\|_2 = \left(\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ is finite

then also $\|\hat{f}\|_2$ is finite and $\|\hat{f}\|_2 = \sqrt{2\pi} \|f\|_2$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(y) \hat{g}(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{f}(y) g(y) dy \quad [\text{Parseval}]$$

Def. Convolution of two functions

(SEE ALSO PAGE 31R)

$$(f * g)(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x-y) \cdot g(y) dy$$

f STAR g
OR CONVOLUTION
of f AND g

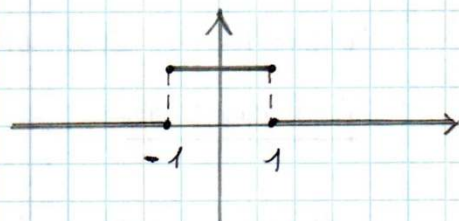
Good news:

$$F[f * g] = \hat{f}(t) \cdot \hat{g}(t)$$

(The F.T. maps convolution products into products)

Exercises Compute these transforms:

ex. F.T. of $f(x) \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } |x| > 1 \end{cases}$



$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx = \int_{-1}^1 e^{-ixt} dx =$$

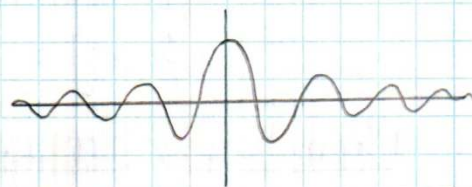
$$= \left[\frac{e^{-ixt}}{-it} \right]_{-1}^1 =$$

↑ cause the function is zero outside this interval

$$= \frac{1}{-it} (e^{-it} - e^{it}) = \frac{e^{it} - e^{-it}}{it} \cdot \frac{2}{2} = 2 \frac{\sin t}{t}$$

$f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ not C_0

$\hat{f} \in C_0(\mathbb{R})$



f even R.V. (symmetric with respect to y axis)

\hat{f} even R.V. (" " " " " ")

$$\hat{f}(t) = 2 \frac{\sin t}{t}$$

Plancherel

$$\|\hat{f}\|_2^2 = 2\pi \|f\|_2^2$$

with this formula we can compute the highly non-trivial integral $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin^2 t}{t^2} dt$

$$\|f\|_2^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2$$

$$2\pi \|f\|_2^2 = 4\pi$$

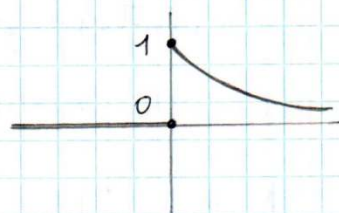
$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{\sin t}{t} \right)^2 dt = 4\pi$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin^2 t}{t^2} dt = \pi$$

$$\boxed{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin^2 t}{t^2} dt = \pi}$$

(20 € if you can compute this in a difficult way)

Another ex.) $f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$



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

$$= \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x} e^{-ixt} dx = \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x(1+it)} dx =$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \left[\frac{e^{-x(1+it)}}{-(1+it)} \right] \Big|_0^b = \frac{1}{1+it}$$

Remark $(e^{-|x|}) \xrightarrow{F} \frac{2}{1+t^2}$ quadratic decay as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

$$\begin{pmatrix} e^{-x} & x \geq 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1+it}$$
 degree 1 decay at ∞

We are observing a special case of a F.T. property:

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{smoothness of} \\ f \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{decay as } t \rightarrow \pm\infty \\ \text{of } \hat{f}(t) \end{array} \right)$$

and this is a case of the LOCAL/GLOBAL principle that we will study later. (Page 30R-31)

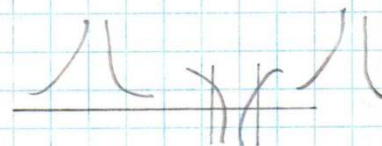
[CFR ALSO P.18 bottom]

Remark about integrals on the line:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$$

When we say $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ we mean that $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f(x)| dx$ exists and is finite.

$$\text{The } \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \dots dx \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b \dots dx$$



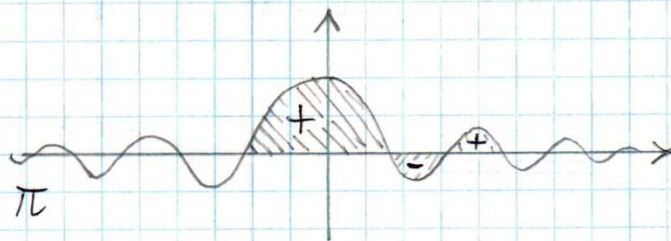
(actually if $f(x) \rightarrow \pm\infty$ at a finite value $x=a$ or many of those we have to take extra limits)

N.B. There are cases where $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b f(x) dx$ exists finite BUT

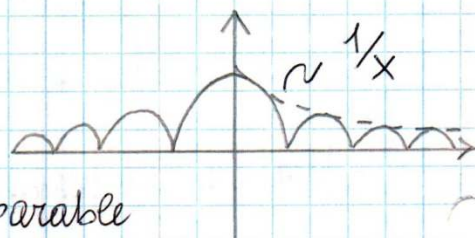
$$\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b |f(x)| dx = +\infty$$

example: $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$

we have $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \pi$



but $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dx = +\infty$



The area of $\int_1^b \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dx$ is comparable

to $\int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx$ (i.e. there are 2 constants $c > 0; d > 0$

$$\text{such that } c \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx < \int_1^b \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dx < d \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} (\log b - \log 1) = +\infty$$

The same phenomenon happens with series, for example

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \log 2 \quad \text{but} \quad \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} \right| = +\infty$$

$$\uparrow \\ 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

$\int \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is not "elementary", because the function

$F(x)' = \frac{\sin x}{x}$ is a special function.

One possible tool is power series:

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

$$\frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \dots \quad (R = \infty)$$

$$\int_a^b \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 3!} + \frac{x^5}{5 \cdot 5!} - \dots \right]_a^b$$

this gives a series representation of the integral over $[a; b]$ bounded interval, but it's tricky to use as $a \rightarrow -\infty$ and $b \rightarrow +\infty$ (plus, ideally, we aim at "exact" values like π).

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x \in [-1; 1] \\ 0 & \text{for } x \notin [-1; 1] \end{cases} \Rightarrow \hat{f}(t) = 2 \frac{\sin t}{t}$$

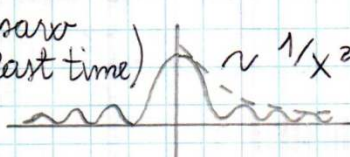
$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ixt} f(x) dx \quad (\text{direct formula})$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{f}(t) e^{ixt} dt \quad (\text{inversion formula})$$

in particular $f(0) = 1 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\pi = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt}$$

Using Plancherel's Theorem we can also compute exactly

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx \quad (\text{we saw it last time}) \sim 1/x^2 \quad \text{N.B. } \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$$


Moral $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is not absolutely convergent

$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 dx$ is absolutely convergent.

An easy way to compute both of them is via Fourier transforms (another technique would be to use complex analysis, residues, contour integration...).

Remark $\hat{f}(t) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-N}^N f(x) e^{-ixt} dx$

If $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ but also if $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ this limit is well defined.

This definition could be generalized using the theory of distributions (e.g. Dirac δ δ' δ'' more...)

Remark $F(f)(t) = \hat{f}(t)$ FOURIER TRANSFORM (OPERATOR: function between functions)

$F: L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$

injective, surjective, isometric map between function spaces

$\downarrow \|\hat{f}\|_2 = \sqrt{2\pi} \cdot \|f\|_2$ (Plancherel)

(in many cases you can map difficult integrals to easy ones)

Some remarks on L^2 geometry.

In $\mathbb{R}^n = \{ \vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \text{ with } n \text{ real components} \}$ there is

a geometric notion of distances and of angles, obtainable from the definition of scalar product (in particular if $n=2$, or $n=3$ we get the usual Euclidean geometry)

Def. If $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$

SCALAR PRODUCT

$\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

} maps vectors into scalars

In particular $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

and $|\vec{x}| = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}} = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$

We'll see that Plancherel theorem is an infinite-dimensional Pythagorean theorem.

Distance from \vec{x} to $\vec{y} \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} |\vec{x} - \vec{y}|$

Theor. $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = |\vec{x}| \cdot |\vec{y}| \cos \alpha$

in particular $\vec{x} \perp \vec{y} \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$

We can complexify the scalar product extending \mathbb{R}^n to $\mathbb{C}^n = \{ \vec{v} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n), \text{ with } z_k = x_k + iy_k \in \mathbb{C} \text{ for } k=1, 2, \dots, n \}$

Def. of scalar product in \mathbb{C}^n :
if $\vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, then $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \sum_{k=1}^n v_k \overline{w_k} =$

$= v_1 \overline{w_1} + v_2 \overline{w_2} + \dots + v_n \overline{w_n}$

N.B. if in particular $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ and $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n \subset \mathbb{C}^n$ we get the same def.'s as before.

$\text{dist}(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = |\vec{v} - \vec{w}| \quad \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{C}^n$

$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = |\vec{v}| |\vec{w}| \cos \alpha$

where, e.g. $|\vec{v}| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$

$= \sqrt{|v_1|^2 + |v_2|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2}$

$(z \bar{z} = (x+iy)(x-iy) = x^2 + ixy - ixy + y^2 = x^2 + y^2 = |z|^2)$

We can define a (complex or real) scalar product on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ (could actually be $L^2(A)$ with $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$)
(f, g) SCALAR PRODUCT of $f(x)$ & $g(x)$

$$(f, g) = \int_A f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$$

SCALAR PRODUCT on $L^2(A)$ of $f(x)$ & $g(x)$

In particular, if we take $g = f$ we get:

$$(f, f) = \int_A f(x) \overline{f(x)} dx = \int_A |f(x)|^2 dx$$

So $(f, f) = \|f\|_2^2$, where $\|f\|_2 = \|f\|_{L^2(A)} = \left(\int_A |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$

$$(f, g) = \|f\|_2 \|g\|_2 \cos \alpha$$

We say that 2 functions f & g are orthogonal to each other in $L^2(A)$ and we write $f \perp g$ if

$$\int_A f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx = 0.$$

For example $f_\kappa(x) = e^{i\kappa x}$ for $\kappa \in \mathbb{Z}$ and consider $L^2(A)$ with $A = [-\pi; \pi]$, then $(f_\kappa, f_h) = 0$ if $\kappa \neq h$ } we have proved this
 $= 2\pi$

F. T. Properties

$$(1) \mathcal{F}[f(x-y)](t) = e^{-ity} \hat{f}(t)$$

[translations are mapped into modulations]

Proof $\equiv \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x-y) e^{-ixt} dx =$
 change of variable $x = x' + y$
 $= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x') e^{-i(x'+y)t} dx' =$
 $= e^{-iyt} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx$
 $= e^{-iyt} \hat{f}(t)$ (QED)

$$(2) \mathcal{F}[e^{ixy} f(x)](t) = \hat{f}(t-y)$$

[viceversa]

Proof e.h.s. $= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ixy} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx =$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-ix(t-y)} dx$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\hat{f}(t-y)} \quad (\text{QED})$$

(3) $\boxed{F\left[f\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right)\right](t) = \lambda \hat{f}(\lambda t)}$ (horizontal rescaling is mapped into reverse-horizontal and vertical rescaling)

Proof e.h.s. (left hand side) $= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right) e^{-ixt} dx$ $\lambda > 0$
 $x = \lambda x'$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x') e^{-i\lambda x' t} \cdot \lambda dx' = \lambda \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-i(\lambda t)x} dx$$

$$= \lambda \hat{f}(\lambda t) \quad (\text{QED})$$

(4) $\boxed{F[f'(x)](t) = it \hat{f}(t)}$ [Derivative properties]

Proof e.h.s. $= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f'(x) e^{-ixt} dx \stackrel{\text{by parts}}{=} \underbrace{\left[f(x) e^{-ixt} \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty}}_0 - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) (-it) e^{-ixt} dx$

Since f is in L^1 or $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, we can assume $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = 0$

by Euler's formula $e^{-ixt} = \cos xt - i \sin xt$, which are bounded functions of x for any fixed $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

By calculus $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} = 0$

The remaining term is $it \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx = it \hat{f}(t)$ (QED)

Corollary (for n -th derivatives)

$$\boxed{F[f^{(n)}(x)](t) = (it)^n \hat{f}(t)}$$

Fourier transform maps derivatives into product with powers.

$$F[x f(x)](t) = i (\hat{f}(t))' \quad (\text{inverse relation})$$

Proof r.h.s. = $i \left[\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-ixt} dx \right]'$

(we should justify the derivative d/dt under the integral)

$$= i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) (-ix) e^{-ixt} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x f(x) e^{-ixt} dx =$$

$$= F[x f(x)]$$

"l.h.s." (QED)

Gaussian Functions

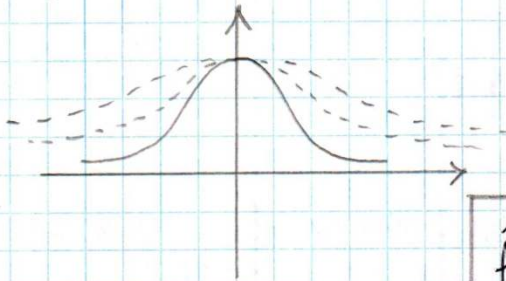
(*) $f(x) = e^{-ax^2}$

$a > 0$

"flattens" as $a \rightarrow 0$

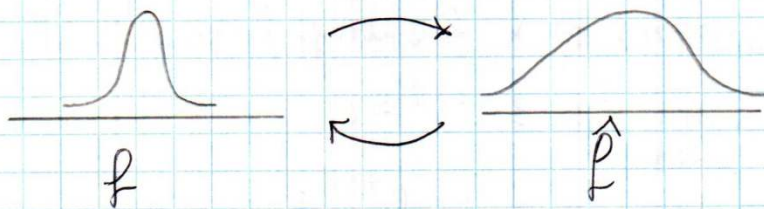
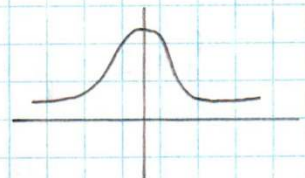
"bell shaped"

important in probability, quantum mechanics and many other fields



$$\hat{f}(t) = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} e^{-\frac{t^2}{4a}}$$

is still a bell curve



we'll go back to this with the "uncertainty principle" and "local/global principle"

from sharper to flatter & vice-versa!

(*) is very smooth & decays very quickly, so for the local/global principle also $\hat{f}(t)$ is very smooth & decays very quickly.

Proof: $f'(x) = -2ax \cdot e^{-ax^2}$

$f(x)$ is a solution of the ODE $2axf + f' = 0$ } this is
ALSO
separable
Variable OD
(linear ODE, 1st order, non-constant coeff.)

Let's take the F.T. of this ODE $2a \hat{f}' + t \hat{f} = 0$

$\hat{f}(t) = g(t)$ Let's solve $2ag' + tg = 0$

Separation of variables $2a \frac{dg}{dt} = -tg \quad \frac{dg}{g} = -\frac{t}{2a} dt$

$$\int \frac{dg}{g} = -\int t dt \cdot \frac{1}{2a}$$

$$\log |g| = -\frac{1}{2a} \cdot \frac{t^2}{2} + c \quad |g(t)| = e^{-\frac{t^2}{4a}} \cdot \underbrace{e^c}_{= \alpha}$$

$$g(t) = \alpha \cdot e^{-t^2/4a}$$

$\equiv \hat{f}(t)$ (ODE)

Lemma $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$ DE MOIVRE

unfortunately $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = e^{-x^2}$ is not elementary (Erf(x))

Trick $I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \quad I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-y^2} dy =$

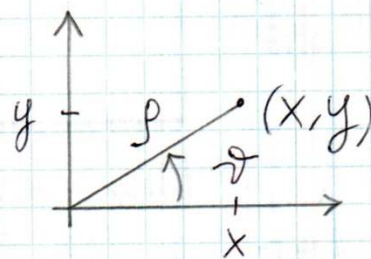
$$= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-x^2-y^2} dx dy =$$

Polar coordinates

$$x = \rho \cos \vartheta$$

$$y = \rho \sin \vartheta$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = \rho^2$$



$$= \iint_{\mathbb{R}^2} e^{-\rho^2} \underbrace{\rho d\rho d\vartheta}_{\text{infinitesimal area element in polar coordinates}} = \int_0^{2\pi} d\vartheta \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-\rho^2} \rho d\rho$$

$(-\frac{1}{2})e^{-\rho^2} d(-\rho^2)$ 30

$$= 2\pi \left[-\frac{1}{2} e^{-t^2} \right]_0^{+\infty} = \frac{2\pi}{2} = \pi = I^2$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \sqrt{\pi} \quad (\text{QED})$$

We know that $\hat{f}(t) = a \cdot e^{-t^2/4a}$

in particular $\hat{f}(0) = a e^0 \Rightarrow a = \hat{f}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) e^{-i0x} dx$

(the integral of f on \mathbb{R} coincides with the number $\hat{f}(0)$)

$$\text{Therefore } a = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ax^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-a \frac{x^2}{(\sqrt{a})^2}} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a}} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{a}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{\sqrt{a}} = \sqrt{\pi/a} \quad (\text{QED})$$

If f and f' are in $L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then \hat{f} in particular is continuous

Also $\hat{f}(t) = o(1/t)$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

N.B. By Riemann-Lebesgue theorem (already stated, not

proven, see page 24), we know that if $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$

then \hat{f} is continuous on \mathbb{R} and $\rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$;

with the extra assumption $f' \in L^1$, we get that

$\hat{f}(t) \rightarrow 0$ "faster" than $1/t$

Def. $g(t) = o(h(t))$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

$$\text{means } \lim_{t \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{g(t)}{h(t)} = 0$$

this property comes from $[\hat{f}'(x)]^\wedge(t) = it \hat{f}(t)$

so if $f' \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then $it \hat{f}(t) \in C_0(\mathbb{R})$ (is continuous) and $\rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$.

More generally (iterating...) assume that f, f', f'', \dots

$\dots, f^{(m+1)} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then $f \in C^m(\mathbb{R})$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f \text{ has a smoothness} \\ \text{of } m \text{ continuous} \end{array} \right.$

We're only applying the Riemann-Lebesgue theorem on the derivatives of f

and (using F.T.) $\Rightarrow \hat{f}(t) = o\left(\frac{1}{|t|^{m+1}}\right)$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

DECAY ORDER!

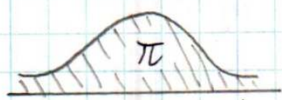
So, smoothness of f is mapped by F.T. into decay at ∞ of \hat{f} .

Corollary: If $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ (with $f, f', f'', \dots \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$) then $\hat{f}(t) \rightarrow 0$ faster than any $1/|t|^N$

For example, the Gaussian function $f(x) = e^{-ax^2}$ is in $C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ and all of its derivatives are of the form $e^{-ax^2} \cdot \text{polynomial} \rightarrow 0$ quickly $f, f', f'', \dots \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$

$\hat{f}(t) = \sqrt{\pi/a} e^{-t^2/4a}$ decays faster than $1/|t|^N$ for $\forall N$

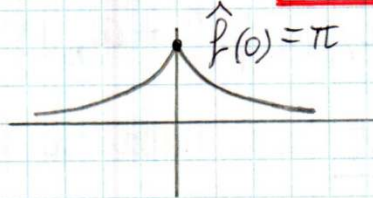
For example $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$



$$\hat{f}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$$

REMEMBER

$$f \in C^\infty \quad \hat{f}(t) = \pi e^{-|t|}$$



$e^{-|t|} \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$ faster than any $1/|t|^N$

(which reflects the C^∞ smoothness of f) BUT

its order 2 decay is reflected in a discontinuity of $(\hat{f})'$.

Vice-versa, if f and $xf \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then $\hat{f}(t) \in C^1(\mathbb{R})$

and $\frac{d}{dt} \hat{f}(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

More generally, if $f, xf, x^2f, \dots, x^m f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$

$\Rightarrow \hat{f} \in C^m(\mathbb{R})$ and $\frac{d^k}{dt^k} \hat{f}(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \pm\infty$

DECAY AT ∞ OF $f(x)$ IS MAPPED INTO SMOOTHNESS OF $\hat{f}(t)$.

for $k=0, 1, 2, \dots, m$

Local properties of f are mapped into global properties and vice-versa.

Convolutions

$$(f * g)(x) \stackrel{\text{def.}}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x-y) g(y) dy$$

N.B. For each fixed translation $x \in \mathbb{R}$ it is an integral of a product. Once the integral is done, x becomes the new variable.

Both in ODE and PDE theory, convolutions come up naturally. For example, given a linear ODE of order n :

$$a_n(x) y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(x) y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1(x) y' + a_0(x) y = f(x)$$

First we need to find n linearly independent functions

$y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x)$ such that the linear

combination:

$y_{\text{hom}}(x) = c_1 y_1(x) + c_2 y_2(x) + \dots + c_n y_n(x)$ is the general solution of $a_n(x) y^{(n)} + \dots + a_1(x) y' + a_0(x) y = 0$ (associated homogeneous linear ODE)

The full solution has the structure

$$y_{\text{tot}} = y_{\text{hom}} + \eta(x)$$

It can be proven that the 2nd term

$$\eta(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \kappa(x-y) f(y) dy$$

is given by a convolution where the "kernel function"

$\kappa(x)$ is given by a formula that contains $y_1(x), y_2(x), \dots, y_n(x)$ (Wronskian Matrices).

A PDE example (we'll go back to it later...) (page 51R)

HEAT
EQUATION

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}$$

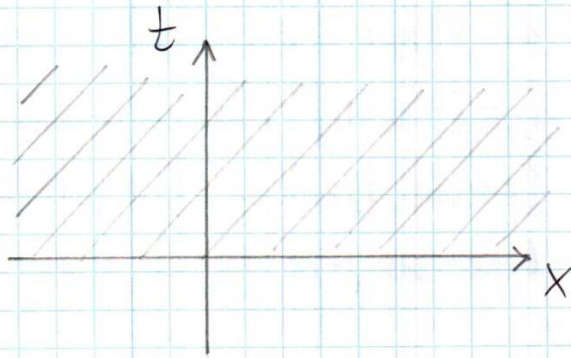
$$t > 0$$

unknown function

$$u \equiv u(x, t)$$

with $u(x, 0) = u_0(x)$

GIVEN function
of 1 variable



Notation $u_x = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$

$$u_{xx} = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}$$

$$u_{xyy} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} u$$

We'll see that the solution to this problem is a convolution of a suitable gaussian with $u_0(x)$. To prove it we will use the Fourier Transform.