

LINEAR ALGEBRA AND VECTOR ANALYSIS

MATH 22B

Unit 32: Fourier Applications

LECTURE

32.1. Fourier theory has many applications. There are mathematical applications in **number theory**, **arithmetic**, **ergodic theory**, **probability theory** as well as applications in applied sciences like **signal processing**, **quantum dynamics**, **data compression** or **tomography**. In this lecture, we mention a few applications, sometimes a bit informally as subjects like probability theory, ergodic theory, number theory or inverse problems are subjects which each would fill courses by themselves.

32.2. In **probability theory**, a non-negative function f which has the property that $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx = 1$ is called a **probability density function**. This is abbreviated often as PDF. The complex Fourier coefficients $c_n = E[fe^{inx}]$ of f form what one calls the **characteristic function** of the distribution. Why is this useful? If we have two distributions f and g representing **independent data**, then the **convolution**

$$f \star g(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y)g(y) dy$$

represents the distribution of the sum of the data. Here is the math:

Lemma: If c_n and d_n are the Fourier coefficients of f and g , then $c_n d_n$ is the characteristic function of $f \star g$.

Proof. The n 'th Fourier coefficient of $f \star g$ is

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x-y)g(y) dy e^{-inx} dx .$$

A change of variables $z = x - y$ gives

$$\frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(z)g(y) dy e^{-in(z+y)} dx .$$

This can be written as

$$\left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(z) e^{-inz} dz \right] \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} g(y) e^{-iny} dy \right] = c_n d_n .$$

□

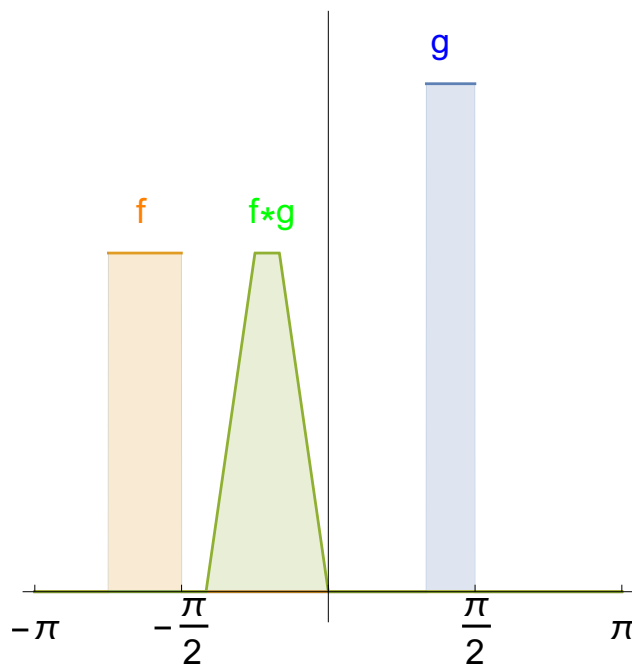


FIGURE 1. We see f, g and its convolution $f \star g$. The Fourier coefficients of $f \star g$ is the product of the Fourier coefficients of f .

32.3. All this can be done also for distributions on \mathbb{R} rather than $[-\pi, \pi]$. The characteristic function is then a **Fourier transform**. When dealing with **circular data**, then the **Fourier series** are important. Now, if f is a constant distribution, then its Fourier data are $c_n = 0$ except $c_0 = 1$. For a probability distribution in general all $|c_n| < 1$ for $n \neq 0$ and $c_0 = 1$. We get now immediately the **central limit theorem for circular data** with data which have identical distribution:

Theorem: Given a sequence of independent circular data, then the distribution of the sum converges to the constant distribution.

Proof. Each density function f_k has Fourier coefficients c_n and the sum of m independent data has the Fourier coefficients c_n^m . Since for $n \neq 0$, we have $|c_n| < 1$ we have $c_n^m \rightarrow 0$. In the limit we have a distribution which has only one non-zero Fourier coefficient $c_0 = 1$. This is the constant distribution. \square

32.4. A similar analysis works also in the continuum case. There, the limiting distribution is the **standard normal distribution** $f(x) = 1/\sqrt{2\pi}e^{-x^2/2}$. It has the property that the convolution of $f(x)$ with itself is again a normal distribution but with variance 2. The **central limit theorem** now uses the **Fourier transform**.

32.5. In **ergodic theory**, which is also the mathematical frame work for “chaos”, one studies the long term behavior of dynamical systems. Let us look at the transformation $T(x) = x + \alpha$ where α is some irrational multiple of 2π . Given a function $f(x)$, what happens with **time average** $S_n/n = \frac{1}{n}[f(x) + f(x + \alpha) + \cdots + f(x + (n-1)\alpha)]$ in the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$. The expectation $E[f]$ of f is the **space average** $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx / (2\pi)$. There is the following **ergodic theorem**

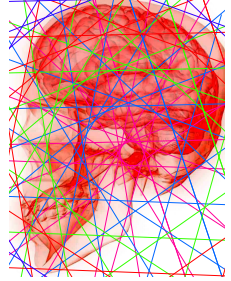
Theorem: Time average is space average $\frac{S_n}{n} \rightarrow E[f]$ for $n \rightarrow \infty$

Proof. The Fourier coefficients of the sum is $c_n(1 + e^{i\alpha} + \dots + e^{i(n-1)\alpha})$ which is $c_n(1 - e^{in\alpha})/(1 - e^{i\alpha})$. Because we divide by n , each Fourier coefficient converges to 0 except for the zero'th coefficient c_0 which is always $E[f]$. \square

32.6. In **magnetic resonance imaging** one has the problem of finding the density function $g(x, y, z)$ of a three dimensional body from measuring the **absorption rate** along lines. One can reduce it to two dimensions by looking at **slice** $f(x, y) = g(x, y, c)$, where $z = c$ is kept constant. The **Radon transform**, introduced by Johann Radon in 1917, produces from f another function

$$R(f)(p, \theta) = \int_{\{x \cos(\theta) + y \sin(\theta) = p\}} f(r(t)) |r'(t)| dt$$

measuring the absorption along the line L of polar angle α in distance p from the center and where the line is parametrized by a curve $r(t)$. Reconstructing $f(x, y) = g(x, y, c)$ for different c allows to recover the **tissue density** g and so “see inside the body”.



Theorem: The Radon transform can be diagonalized using Fourier theory

To do so, we need some regularity: we need that $\phi \rightarrow f(r, \phi)$ is piecewise smooth which then assures that the Fourier series $f(r, \phi) = \sum_n f_n(r) e^{in\phi}$ converges. We also need that $r \rightarrow f_n(r)$ has a Taylor series. The expansion $f(r, \phi) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_{n,k} \psi_{n,k}$ with $\psi_{n,k}(r, \phi) = r^{-k} e^{in\phi}$ is an eigenfunction expansion with explicitly known eigenvalues $\lambda_{n,k}$. The **inverse problem** is subtle due to the existence of a **kernel** spanned by $\{\psi_{n,k} \mid (n+k) \text{ odd}, |n| > k\}$. In applied situations, one calls it an **ill posed problem**.

32.7. Fourier theory also helps to understand **primes**. For an integer n , let Λ denote the **Mangoldt function** defined by $\Lambda(n) = \log(p)$ if $n = p^k$ is a power of some prime p and $\Lambda(n) = 0$ else. Its sum $\psi(x) = \sum_{n \leq x} \Lambda(n)$ is called the **Chebyshev function**. Riemann indicated and Mangoldt proved first that it satisfies the **Riemann-Mangoldt formula**

$$\psi(x) = x - \sum_w \frac{x^w}{w} - \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1 - x^{-2}),$$

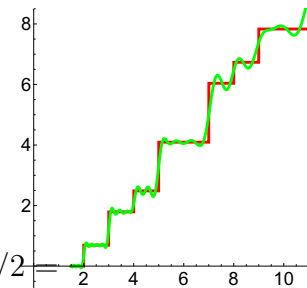
where w runs over the non-trivial roots of the **Riemann zeta function**

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n \geq 1} n^{-s},$$

and where $\log(2\pi) = \zeta'(0)/\zeta(0)$ comes from the simple pole at 1 and $\log(1 - x^{-2})/2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} -x^{-2k}/(2k)$ is the contribution of the **trivial roots** $-2, -4, -6, \dots$ of the zeta function and $f_j(x) = x^{w_j}/w_j = e^{\log(x)a_j + \log(x)ib_j}/w_j$ is the contribution from the nontrivial zeros w_j (which are believed on the line $\text{Im}(z) = 1/2$). Pairing complex conjugated roots $w_j = a_k + ib_j = |w_j| e^{i\alpha_j}$, \bar{w} gives a sum of functions

$$f_j(x) = e^{\log(x)a_j} 2 \cos(\log(x)b_j - \alpha_j) / |a_j + ib_j|.$$

The functions f_j are the tunes of the **music of the primes**. There is a book and movie with this title by Marcus du Sautoy.



HOMEWORK

This homework is due on Tuesday, 4/23/2019.

Problem 32.1: The piecewise linear continuous function g has a graph connecting $(-\pi, 0)$, $(-\pi/2, \pi/2 - 1)$, $(0, -1/2)$, $(\pi/2, \pi/2 - 1)$, $(\pi, 0)$. It satisfies $g = f \star f$, where f be the function which is -1 on $[-\pi/2, 0]$ and 1 on $[0, \pi/2]$. Use HW 32.5 to compute the Fourier coefficients of g .

Problem 32.2: a) In a magnetic resonance problem, we measure the density function $f(r, \phi) = \sum_n r^n \cos(n\phi)$. Find a closed-form for $f(r, \phi)$. **Hint:** the series is the real part of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n e^{in\phi}$. You can assume $|r| < 1$. b) Give an explicit expression for $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \cos(nx)$.

Problem 32.3: There is a general principle which tells that the smoother a function is as faster the Fourier series decays. Given a Fourier series $f(x) = \sum_n b_n \sin(nx)$ of a smooth function, can you give the Fourier series of derivative $f'(x)$? Conclude that for an odd $f \in C^\infty$ and any k , like $k = 22$, one has $b_n n^{22} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Problem 32.4: Something in number theory: Define the Fourier series $f(x) = \sum_p e^{ipx}/2^p$, where p runs over all primes. Define the function $g(x) = f(x)^2$ and compute its Fourier coefficients c_n . Why is the Goldbach conjecture equivalent to the fact that all $c_{2n} \neq 0$ for $n > 1$?

Problem 32.5: Prove that if f is an odd function with Fourier coefficients b_n , then $g = f \star f$ is even with Fourier coefficients $a_0 = 0$ and $a_n = -b_n^2/2$. Hint: use the theorem and hat for an odd function $b_n = -2\text{Im}(c_n)$ and $a_n = 2\text{Re}(c_n)$, where c_n is the n 'th complex Fourier coefficient of f . A key relation therefore is $2c_n = a_n - ib_n$.

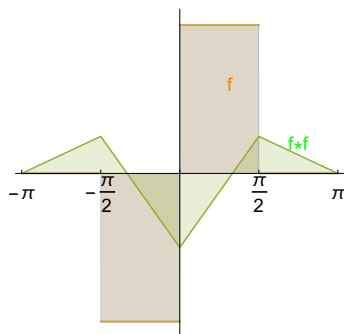


FIGURE 2. The convolution $g = f \star f$ in HW 32.1. We see both the odd step function f and the even convolution g .