

Plancherel Theorem and Fourier Inversion Theorem

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1 Plancherel Theorem

Let $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$. We define the Fourier transform $\mathcal{F}f(x) := \hat{f}(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)e^{-ixt} dt$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$. The main results of these lectures are the **Plancherel theorem** which states that the linear map $\mathcal{F} : L^1(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ extends to an “isometry” of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ onto itself and that for a continuous $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ with $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ we have the **Fourier inversion formula**:

$$f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}(y)e^{iyx} dy \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We recall first the definition of a step function. A function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is called a step function if it is a finite linear combination of characteristic (or indicator) functions of finite intervals. Recall also that \mathcal{S} , the space of step functions is dense in $L^p(\mathbb{R})$ for all $1 \leq p < \infty$. Thus it is natural to verify the assertion of the Plancherel theorem in the case of $f := \mathbf{1}_J$, the indicator function of a finite interval $J = (a, b), [a, b), [a, b], (a, b]$. Notice that whatever be the form of J , the indicator functions $\mathbf{1}_J$ are all the same as elements of L^p . We now compute the Fourier transform of f :

$$\hat{f}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)e^{-ixt} dt = \int_a^b e^{-ixt} dt = \frac{e^{-ibx} - e^{-iax}}{-ix}.$$

Also, we have

$$\|f\|_2^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(t)|^2 dt = \int_a^b |1|^2 dt = \int_a^b 1 dt = b - a.$$

We now check whether \hat{f} lies in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and if so, compute its norm. Here we go:

$$\begin{aligned} |\hat{f}(x)|^2 &= \left| \frac{e^{-ibx} - e^{-iax}}{-ix} \right|^2 = \frac{e^{-ibx} - e^{-iax}}{-ix} \overline{\left(\frac{e^{-ibx} - e^{-iax}}{-ix} \right)} \\ &= \frac{e^{-ibx} - e^{-iax}}{-ix} \frac{e^{ibx} - e^{iax}}{ix} = \frac{2 - (e^{-i(b-a)x} + e^{i(b-a)x})}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{2 - 2 \cos(b-a)x}{x^2} = 2 \frac{1 - \cos(b-a)x}{x^2} \\ &= 2 \cdot 2 \frac{\sin^2((b-a)x/2)}{x^2}, \end{aligned}$$

where in the last we have used a well-known trigonometric identity. We thus find:

$$\|\hat{f}(x)\|_2^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\hat{f}(x)|^2 dx = 4 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2((b-a)x/2)}{x^2} dx.$$

We put $u := (b-a)x/2$ so that the above becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \|\hat{f}(x)\|_2^2 &= 4 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\sin^2 u}{4u^2} (b-a)^2 \frac{2 du}{b-a} \\ &= 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} (b-a) du \\ &= C(b-a). \end{aligned}$$

Here we have let C stand for the *real number* $2 \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\sin^2 u}{u^2} du$.

Remark 1. Let us observe that C is a (finite) real number, i.e., $\sin^2 u/u^2$ is integrable on \mathbb{R} . For, the function $g(x) := \begin{cases} \sin x/x & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ is continuous on \mathbb{R} . Hence the continuous function $\sin^2 x/x^2$ is integrable over the finite interval $[-1, 1]$ and it is dominated by the continuous function $1/x^2$ on $\mathbb{R} \setminus [-1, 1]$ on which $1/x^2$ is integrable. Hence C is finite.

We now define \mathcal{F}^* on \mathcal{S} as follows:

$$\mathcal{F}^* f(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) e^{ixt} dt, \quad \text{for } f \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Proceeding as above, we find that $\|\mathcal{F}^* f\|_2^2 = C \|f\|_2^2$ for $f := \mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$, for the same C .

If $f := \mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$ and $g := \mathbf{1}_{(c,d)}$, then we have:

$$\langle \mathcal{F}f, g \rangle = \int_c^d \left[\int_a^b e^{-ixt} dt \right] 1 dx = \int_a^b \overline{\left[\int_c^d e^{ixt} dx \right]} dt = \langle f, \mathcal{F}^* g \rangle.$$

Thus on the indicator functions, \mathcal{F}^* behaves like the adjoint of \mathcal{F} . We now wish to extend these results to $f, g \in \mathcal{S}$. We observe that if $f := \mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$, and $g := \mathbf{1}_{(b,c)}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g)(x) &= \hat{f}(x) + \hat{g}(x) = \int_a^b e^{-ixt} dt + \int_b^c e^{-ixt} dt \\ &= \int_a^c e^{-ixt} dt = \mathcal{F}(f+g)(x). \end{aligned}$$

Hence it follows that

$$\|\mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g\|_2^2 = \|\mathcal{F}(f+g)\|_2^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left| \int_a^c e^{-ixt} dt \right|^2 dx = C(c-a).$$

But, since,

$$\|\mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g\|_2^2 = \langle \mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g, \mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g \rangle = \|\mathcal{F}f\|_2^2 + \|\mathcal{F}g\|_2^2 + 2 \cdot \operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle,$$

we find that $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$, for f and g as above. Similar result holds true also for \mathcal{F}^* .

Even if $f := \mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$ and $g := \mathbf{1}_{(c,d)}$ with $a \leq b < c \leq d$ we have $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$. To see this, let $h := \mathbf{1}_{(b,c)}$. Then using the earlier result, we have $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f} + \hat{h}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$ and $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{h}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$. Subtracting the latter from the first, we get $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$. Similarly for \mathcal{F}^* .

We note that $\mathcal{F}\mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$ satisfies: $\mathcal{F}\mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}(-x) = \overline{\mathcal{F}\mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}(x)}$, i.e., $\hat{f}(-x) = \overline{\hat{f}(x)}$:

$$\hat{f}(-x) = \int_a^b e^{ixt} dt = \overline{\int_a^b e^{-ixt} dt} = \overline{\hat{f}(x)}.$$

If $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ satisfy (*), i.e., $f(-x) = \overline{f(x)}$ etc., then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\langle f, g \rangle} &= \overline{\int f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx} = \int \overline{f(x)} g(x) dx = \int f(-x) \overline{g(-x)} dx \\ &= \int f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx = \langle f, g \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the fact that the Lebesgue measure is invariant under $x \mapsto -x$. This observation, when applied to \hat{f} and \hat{g} for $f := \mathbf{1}_{(a,b)}$ and $g := \mathbf{1}_{(c,d)}$, allows us to conclude $\langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle = 0$ and $\langle \mathcal{F}f, \mathcal{F}g \rangle = 0$. That is, we can drop the prefix “Re” in $\operatorname{Re} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle$.

Now if f is any step function, say, of the form $f = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mathbf{1}_{J_i}$ where J_i are finite intervals and $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$, we can write $f = \sum_{j=1}^N b_j \mathbf{1}_{I_j}$, where I_j are pair-wise disjoint finite intervals. (It is easier to convince yourself of this than writing down a formal verbose proof!) We then have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{F}f\|_2^2 &= \left\langle \sum_j b_j \mathcal{F}\mathbf{1}_{I_j}, \sum_k b_k \mathcal{F}\mathbf{1}_{I_k} \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{j,k} b_j \overline{b_k} C \langle \mathbf{1}_{I_j}, \mathbf{1}_{I_k} \rangle \\ &= C \sum |b_j|^2 \|\mathbf{1}_{I_j}\|^2 = C \int |f(x)|^2 dx = C \|f\|_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we have $\|\mathcal{F}^*f\|_2^2 = C \|f\|_2^2$, for $f \in \mathcal{S}$. Also, by the bilinearity of the inner product we have

$$\langle \mathcal{F}f, g \rangle = \langle f, \mathcal{F}^*g \rangle, \quad \text{for } f, g \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Thus we have linear maps $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^* : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ such that i) $\|\mathcal{F}f\|_2^2 = C \|f\|_2^2 = \|\mathcal{F}^*f\|_2^2$, and ii) $\langle \mathcal{F}f, g \rangle = \langle f, \mathcal{F}^*g \rangle$ for all $f, g \in \mathcal{S}$. Since \mathcal{S} is dense in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^*$ are continuous linear, we have unique extensions, denoted again by \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{F}^* , from $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ to itself. This follows from the following elementary result:

Lemma 2. *Let $T : D \subset E \rightarrow F$ be a continuous linear map defined on a dense subspace D of E to a Banach space F . Then T has a unique continuous linear extension $\overline{T} : E \rightarrow F$ such that $\|\overline{T}\|_{(E,F)} = \|T\|_{(D,F)}$ (operator norms).*

Proof. We shall only sketch the proof.

For $x \in E$, take any $x_n \in D$ such that $\|x - x_n\| \rightarrow 0$. Then define $\bar{T}(x) := \lim Tx_n$ which exists since Tx_n is Cauchy in F (due to the uniform continuity of a continuous linear map!). If $y_n \in D$ is such that $\|y_n - x\| \rightarrow 0$ then it can be easily seen that $\lim Ty_n = \lim Tx_n$ so that $\bar{T}x$ is well defined. \square

Hence we have $\|\mathcal{F}f\|_2^2 = C\|f\|_2^2 = \|\mathcal{F}^*f\|_2^2$ and $\langle \mathcal{F}f, g \rangle = \langle f, \mathcal{F}^*g \rangle$ for all $f, g \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$, by continuity of the inner product.

We also have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle &= \frac{1}{4}[\|f + g\|^2 + i\|f + ig\|^2 - \|f - g\|^2 - i\|f - ig\|^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{4C}[\|\mathcal{F}f + \mathcal{F}g\|^2 + i\|\mathcal{F}f + i\mathcal{F}g\|^2 - \|\mathcal{F}f - \mathcal{F}g\|^2 - i\|\mathcal{F}f - i\mathcal{F}g\|^2] \\ &= \frac{1}{C}\langle \mathcal{F}f, \mathcal{F}g \rangle = \frac{1}{C}\langle \mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f, g \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

The last equality is valid, as $\langle h, \mathcal{F}g \rangle = \langle \mathcal{F}^*h, g \rangle$ where $h = \mathcal{F}f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

We put $g := \mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f - f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ in $\langle f, g \rangle = (1/C)\langle \mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f, g \rangle$ to get

$$0 = \left\langle f - \frac{1}{C}\mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f, g \right\rangle = \left\| f - \frac{1}{C}\mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f \right\|^2 = 0.$$

That is, $\mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}f = Cf$ a.e. Similarly, $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}^*f = Cf$ a.e. Thus we have proved the following theorem:

Theorem 3 (Plancherel). *Let \mathcal{S} denote the dense subspace of the step functions in $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Let $\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^*$ denote the Fourier and conjugate Fourier transforms defined as above. Then, for C as above,*

\mathcal{F} and \mathcal{F}^ map \mathcal{S} into $L^2(\mathbb{R})$; in fact, we have:*

$$\|\mathcal{F}f\|^2 = C\|f\|^2 = \|\mathcal{F}^*f\|^2 \quad \text{for } f \in \mathcal{S}.$$

$\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}^$ extend to an “isometry” of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ onto itself; that is, $\mathcal{F}\mathcal{F}^* = C = \mathcal{F}^*\mathcal{F}$ on $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. \square*

2 Fourier Inversion Theorem

We may ask whether for $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ we have the formula $\hat{f}(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t)e^{-ixt} dt$ and motivated by the Plancherel theorem whether for nice enough functions we can invert the Fourier transform, i.e., $f(t) = \int \hat{f}(x)e^{ixt} dx$.

The first formula is not all obvious even if we assume that $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^2(\mathbb{R})$, as we have extended \mathcal{F} to $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ by an abstract procedure. However, this is easy to justify: We start with a non-negative $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ and take any sequence f_n of step functions increasing to f . We can now apply the monotone convergence theorem to conclude that $\mathcal{F}f$ is given by the above formula.

The proof of the second is given as the conclusion of the following theorem:

Theorem 4 (Fourier Inversion Theorem). *Let f be a continuous function in $L^1(\mathbb{R})$. Assume that $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$. Then we have*

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}(y) e^{iyt} dy, \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof. The double integral $\int \hat{f}(y) e^{ixy} dx = \int (\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) e^{-iyt} dt) e^{ixy} dx$ may not be absolutely convergent (the trouble lies in the x -variable) and hence we cannot use Fubini to evaluate it as an iterated integral. So, what we do, is to adopt a classical trick of introducing a convergence factor in the x -variable. We take a “nice” function ψ such as a continuous function with compact support with $\hat{\psi} \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, or $\psi(y) := e^{-y^2}$ or any function that “decays rapidly at ∞ ”) with $\psi(0) = 1$. If you wish you may take $\psi(y) = e^{-y^2}$ in the following.

We have by dominated convergence theorem

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int \psi(\varepsilon y) \hat{f}(y) e^{ixy} dy = \int \hat{f}(y) e^{ixy} dy. \quad (1)$$

We unwind Eq. 1 and use Fubini on the LHS (of Eq. 1):

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int \psi(\varepsilon y) \hat{f}(y) e^{ixy} dy &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int \psi(\varepsilon y) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(t) e^{-iyt} dt \right) e^{ixy} dy \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int f(t) \left(\int \psi(\varepsilon y) e^{-iy(t-x)} dy \right) dt \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int f(t) \left(\int \psi(u) e^{-\frac{iu}{\varepsilon}(t-x)} du \right) dt \quad \text{where } u = \varepsilon y \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int f(t) \hat{\psi}\left(\frac{t-x}{\varepsilon}\right) \frac{dt}{\varepsilon} \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int f(x + \varepsilon v) \hat{\psi}(v) dv \quad \text{where } \varepsilon v = t - x \\ &= f(x) \int \hat{\psi}(v) dv, \end{aligned}$$

the last equality being in view of the continuity of f and dominated convergence theorem. This completes the proof of the theorem, except for an irritating but minor detail to be attended to. For some ψ we need to compute $\int \hat{\psi}(v) dv$, which in view of the conclusion of the theorem should be nothing other than a constant times $\psi(0)$. By computing the Fourier transform of e^{-x^2} , we can have satisfaction. \square

Remark 5. It is traditional to derive the Plancherel theorem from the Fourier inversion theorem as follows:

Let $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}) \cap L^2(\mathbb{R})$. Take $g(t) := \overline{f(-t)}$. Then, $f * g$ is continuous and lies in $L^1(\mathbb{R})$. We have by the definition of convolution

$$f * g(0) = \int f(-t)g(t) dt = \int f(-t)\overline{f(-t)} dt = \|f\|_2^2.$$

On the other hand, by the inversion formula, we have

$$f * g(0) = C \int f \hat{*} g(x) dx = C \int \hat{f}(x) \hat{g}(x) dx = C \int \hat{f}(x) \overline{\hat{f}(x)} dx = C \|\hat{f}\|_2^2.$$

The Plancherel theorem follows from Eq. 5 and Eq. 5.

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