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PART I

## THE RESULTANT OF TWO FOURIER KERNELS

By PROF. G. H. HARDY, Trinity College

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1. A "Fourier kernel" means here a function  $K(x)$  which gives rise to a formula

$$f(x) = \int_0^\infty K(xu) du \int_0^\infty K(ut) f(t) dt \quad (1.1)$$

of the Fourier type. Thus

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)} \cos x, \quad \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)} \sin x, \quad x^{\frac{1}{2}} J_\nu(x), \quad \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{1}{1-x^2}, \quad \dots$$

are Fourier kernels.\* If  $K(x)$  is a Fourier kernel,  $\lambda$  is real, and  $a$  positive, then

$$\frac{1}{x} K\left(\frac{1}{x}\right), \quad \lambda x^{\frac{1}{2}(\lambda-1)} K(x^\lambda), \quad a^{\frac{1}{2}} K(ax)$$

are Fourier kernels.

The resultant, or *Faltung*,  $M(x)$  of  $K(x)$  and  $L(x)$  is defined by

$$M(x) = \int_0^\infty K(xt) L(t) dt. \quad (1.2)$$

If  $M(x)$  is the resultant of  $K(x)$  and  $L(x)$ , then

$$\frac{1}{x} M\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

is the resultant of  $L(x)$  and  $K(x)$ .

There are various formal reasons which suggest that *the resultant of two Fourier kernels is a Fourier kernel*. For example, we may argue as follows. Replacing  $K$  by  $M$  in the integral on the right of (1.1), and substituting from (1.2), we obtain

$$\iint M(xu) M(ut) f(t) du dt = \iiint K(xuy) K(utz) L(y) L(z) f(t) du dt dy dz;$$

and the substitution  $t = v/z$ ,  $y = zw$  gives

$$\iint L(z) L(zw) dz dw \iint K(xzu) K(uv) f\left(\frac{v}{z}\right) du dv = \iint L(z) L(zw) f(xw) dz dw = f(x).$$

The argument is naturally of a purely formal type, the multiple integrals being

\* Further examples are given by Hardy and Titchmarsh (2) and Watson (6).

divergent, and the inversions and substitutions impossible to justify, even in the simplest standard cases.\*

We can also appeal to the idea which underlies the recent work of Watson and of Titchmarsh and myself. If

$$k(s) = \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} K(x) dx$$

is the Mellin transform of a Fourier kernel  $K(x)$ , then

$$k(s) k(1-s) = 1;$$

and this is also a sufficient condition that  $K(x)$  should be a Fourier kernel. Now the Mellin transform of  $M(x)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} m(s) &= \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} dx \int_0^\infty K(xt) L(t) dt = \int_0^\infty L(t) dt \int_0^\infty x^{s-1} K(xt) dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty t^{-s} L(t) dt \int_0^\infty u^{s-1} K(u) du = k(s) l(1-s); \end{aligned}$$

so that  $m(s) m(1-s) = k(s) k(1-s) l(s) l(1-s) = 1$ .

This argument also is formal, but the transformations are a little nearer to reality than those of the first.

It is plain in any case that we must be prepared for a very liberal interpretation of (1.1) and (1.2). Thus

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \cos xt \cos t dt$$

is generally summable  $(C, 1)$  to 0, but diverges to infinity when  $x = 1$ . The integral is never convergent. Similarly

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \cos xt \sin t dt = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{1}{1-x^2} (C, 1), \quad (1.3)$$

except for  $x = 1$ , when the value is  $1/2\pi$ . On the other hand

$$\frac{4}{\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{dt}{(1-x^2 t^2)(1-t^2)}$$

converges to 0 in general (as a Cauchy principal value), but diverges to infinity when  $x = 1$ . And a similar freedom of interpretation is necessary in (1.1).

2. It is easy to reduce all this to order by means of Watson's theory.† We start from a function  $K_1(x)$  with the properties (i) that  $x^{-1} K_1(x)$  is  $L^2$  in  $(0, \infty)$ , and (ii) that

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{K_1(ax) K_1(bx)}{x^2} dx = \text{Min}(a, b) \quad (2.1)$$

\* I have been familiar with these formal ideas for a good many years, but cannot say whence I derived them. Possibly from Ramanujan; but I can refer to nothing in his published work, and it is likely enough that the ideas are much older.

† Watson (6). Considerable simplifications in the theory have been made by Plancherel (3) and Titchmarsh (4).

if  $a$  and  $b$  are positive. In these circumstances, if  $f(x)$  is  $L^2$ , and  $g(x)$  is defined by

$$\int_0^x g(y) dy = \int_0^\infty \frac{K_1(xt)}{t} f(t) dt, \quad (2.2)$$

then  $g(x)$  is also  $L^2$  and the relationship is reciprocal. We call  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  “ $K$ -transforms” of one another. If  $F(x)$  and  $G(x)$  are also  $K$ -transforms of one another, then

$$\int_0^\infty f(x) F(x) dx = \int_0^\infty g(x) G(x) dx. \quad (2.3)$$

This is “Parseval’s Theorem”. In all this there is no direct reference to a function  $K(x)$ , but, if  $K_1(x)$  is the integral of  $K(x)$ , then the transformation is that envisaged formally in § 1.

Let us now suppose that  $K_1(x)$  and  $L_1(x)$  satisfy Watson’s conditions, and define  $M_1(x)$  by

$$\int_0^x M_1\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) dy = \int_0^\infty \frac{K_1(t)}{t} \frac{L_1(xt)}{t} dt. \quad (2.4)$$

If  $K_1, L_1, M_1$  are the integrals of  $K, L, M$ , then two differentiations reduce (2.4) formally to (1.2).

Since  $M_1(1/x)$  is the  $L$ -transform of  $x^{-1}K_1(x)$ ,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{M_1^2(x)}{x^2} dx = \int_0^\infty M_1^2\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx < \infty.$$

Also  $M_1(ax), M_1(bx)$  are the  $L$ -transforms of  $x^{-1}K_1(ax), x^{-1}K_1(bx)$ ; and hence, by Parseval’s Theorem,

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{M_1(ax) M_1(bx)}{x^2} dx = \int_0^\infty M_1\left(\frac{a}{x}\right) M_1\left(\frac{b}{x}\right) dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{K_1(ax) K_1(bx)}{x^2} dx = \text{Min}(a, b).$$

Hence  $M_1$  satisfies the same conditions as  $K_1$  and  $L_1$ , and there are formulae in  $M_1$  similar to (2.2) and its reciprocal. When  $K_1, L_1, M_1$  are integrals, then  $K, L, M$  are Fourier kernels; and it is natural to call the  $M$ -transformation  $M$  the resultant of the  $K$ - and  $L$ -transformations  $K$  and  $L$ .

If  $S_1(x)$  is 0 for  $x < 1$ , and 1 for  $x \geq 1$ , and  $K_1(x) = S_1(x)$ , then the transformation is

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{x} f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right), \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{x} g\left(\frac{1}{x}\right).$$

We call this transformation  $S$ . If  $K_1 = L_1$  then

$$\int_0^x M_1\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) dy = \int_0^\infty \frac{K_1(t) K_1(xt)}{t^2} dt = \text{Min}(1, x)$$

and  $M_1 \equiv S_1$ . If  $L_1 = S_1$ , then

$$\int_0^x M_1\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) dy = \int_{1/x}^\infty \frac{K_1(t)}{t^2} dt = \int_0^x K_1\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) dt,$$

and  $M_1 \equiv K_1$ . Thus the resultant of  $K$  and  $K$  is  $S$ , and the resultant of  $K$  and  $S$  is  $K$ .

## EXAMPLES

3. The interest of the examples which follow is mainly formal, and I allow myself, as in § 1, a certain latitude of expression, speaking in terms of  $K$ ,  $L$ ,  $M$  when precise expression demands a return to  $K_1$ ,  $L_1$ ,  $M_1$ .

(1) The equation (1.3) indicates that the resultant of the cosine and sine transformations is that defined by the kernel

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \frac{1}{1-x^2}.$$

Here

$$M_1(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \log \left| \frac{x-1}{x+1} \right|$$

and is not (in the strict sense) an integral. The  $M$  transformation is

$$g(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{f(t)}{1-x^2t^2} dt.$$

If we suppose  $f(x)$  even, and make some trivial transformations, we obtain

$$\frac{1}{x} g\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{f(t)}{x-t} dt,$$

the conjugate or "Hilbert transform" of  $f(x)$ .

If we call this transformation  $C$  then the resultant of  $K$  and  $C$  is defined by

$$M(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{K(xt)}{1-t^2} dt;$$

or, regarding  $K(x)$  as even, by

$$M(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{K(t)}{x-t} dt.$$

Thus the conjugate of a Fourier kernel is a Fourier kernel.

(2) The function

$$L_1(x) = x \quad (x \leq 1), \quad L_1(x) = 0 \quad (x \geq 1)$$

satisfies Watson's conditions.\* We conclude that, if  $K(x)$  is a Fourier kernel, then

$$M(x) = \int_0^\infty K(xt) dL_1(t) = \int_0^1 K(xt) dt - K(x) = \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x K(u) du - K(x)$$

is a Fourier kernel. Or again, taking another of Watson's examples, viz.

$$L_1(x) = 0 \quad (x < 1), \quad L_1(x) = \log x - 1 \quad (x \geq 1),$$

we find that

$$\int_x^\infty \frac{K(u)}{u} du - K(x)$$

is a Fourier kernel.

\* Watson (6, p. 197).

$$(3) \text{ Since } \int_0^\infty J_\nu(xt) J_{\nu-1}\left(\frac{1}{t}\right) \frac{dt}{t} = x^{-\frac{1}{2}} J_{2\nu-1}(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}),$$

the resultant of  $t^{\frac{1}{2}} J_\nu(t)$  and  $t^{-\frac{1}{2}} J_\nu(1/t)$  is  $J_{2\nu-1}(2t^{\frac{1}{2}})$ .

$$(4) \text{ Since } \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\cos xt \cos\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)}{\sin x \sin\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)} \frac{dt}{t} = \frac{2}{\pi} K_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}) \mp Y_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}), \dagger$$

the functions just written are the resultants of

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right) \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}}, \quad \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right) \frac{1 \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}{x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}}$$

(the two cosines or the two sines going together). We conclude that the functions

$$x^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ Y_0(x) \mp \frac{2}{\pi} K_0(x) \right\}$$

are Fourier kernels. The first of them is the kernel which occurs in the theory of Dirichlet's divisor problem. The functions may be generated differently. Thus

$$\frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{J_0\{2(xt)^{\frac{1}{2}}\}}{1-t^2} dt = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{u J_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}u)}{1-u^4} du = Y_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}) + \frac{2}{\pi} K_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}),$$

so that this last kernel is the conjugate of  $J_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}})$ .

(5) The resultant of  $J_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}})$  and  $\cos x$  is  $-\sin x$ , and that of  $J_0(2x^{\frac{1}{2}})$  and  $\sin x$  is  $\cos x$ .

(6) It is easily proved that

$$x^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^\infty t J_\mu(xt) J_{-\mu}(t) dt = -\frac{2 \sin \mu \pi}{\pi} \frac{x^{\mu+\frac{1}{2}}}{1-x^2} \quad (C, 1),$$

provided that  $x \neq 1$ , while when  $x = 1$  the integral diverges like

$$\frac{\cos \mu \pi}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dt.$$

This divergence indicates that, when we form the resultant of  $x^{\frac{1}{2}} J_\mu(x)$  and  $x^{\frac{1}{2}} J_{-\mu}(x)$ , there will be a discontinuity in  $M_1(x)$  at  $x = 1$ . In fact, in this case,

$$M_1(x) = -\frac{2 \sin \mu \pi}{\pi} \int_0^x \frac{t^{\mu+\frac{1}{2}} dt}{1-t^2} \quad (x < 1), \quad M_1(x) = -\frac{2 \sin \mu \pi}{\pi} \int_0^x \frac{t^{\mu+\frac{1}{2}} dt}{1-t^2} + \cos \mu \pi \quad (x \geq 1).$$

The inversion formulae are

$$g(x) = -\frac{2 \sin \mu \pi}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{(xt)^{\mu+\frac{1}{2}}}{1-x^2 t^2} f(t) dt + \cos \mu \pi \frac{1}{x} f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

and the reciprocal formula. The transformation is a generalization of  $C$ , to which it reduces when  $\mu = -\frac{1}{2}$ , the extra term then disappearing.

\* The formula is easily deducible from one due to Bateman. See Hardy (1).

† Here, and in (7),  $K_0$  is used as in Watson (5).

(7) If we form the resultant  $M(x)$  of

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)} \cos x, \quad J_{\frac{1}{2}}(2x^{\frac{1}{2}}) = \pi^{-\frac{1}{2}} x^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sin 2x^{\frac{1}{2}},$$

and then replace it by  $\frac{2^{-\frac{1}{2}}}{x} M\left(\frac{1}{2x}\right)$ ,

we obtain the Fourier kernel

$$(2x)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ \cos \left(x - \frac{1}{8}\pi\right) J_{\frac{1}{2}}(x) + \sin \left(x - \frac{1}{8}\pi\right) J_{-\frac{1}{2}}(x) \right\}.$$

The analysis involves the calculation of the integrals

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-x^4 - 4\alpha x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{2\alpha^2} K_{-\frac{1}{2}}(2\alpha^2), \\ \int_0^\infty e^{-x^4} \cos 4\alpha x^2 dx &= 2^{-\frac{1}{2}} \pi \alpha^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-2\alpha^2} I_{-\frac{1}{2}}(2\alpha^2), \\ \int_0^\infty \cos x^4 \cos 4\alpha x^2 dx &= 2^{-\frac{1}{2}} \pi \alpha^{\frac{1}{2}} \cos \left(2\alpha^2 - \frac{1}{8}\pi\right) J_{-\frac{1}{2}}(2\alpha^2). \end{aligned}$$

In all of these  $\alpha$  is positive.

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