Peize Liu St. Peter's College University of Oxford

Problem Sheet 3 B4.3: Distribution Theory

Remark. I ran out of time when doing this problem sheet. As a result, Question 4 and 6 are only partially answered.

Question 1

Find the general solutions to the ODEs

$$y'' + 2y' + y = 1 (i)$$

$$y'' + 2y' + y = H \tag{ii}$$

$$y'' + 2y' + y = \delta_0 \tag{iii}$$

in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$, where H is Heaviside's function and δ_0 is Dirac's delta-function at 0. What are the classical solutions to (i) and (ii)?

Proof. First we consider the homogeneous equation

$$\mathcal{L}y = y'' + 2y' + y = 0 \tag{H}$$

 \mathscr{L} is a linear operator on $\mathscr{D}'(\mathbb{R})$. For $y_1, y_2 \in \mathscr{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathscr{L}(\lambda_1 y_1 + \lambda_2 y_2) = \lambda_1 \mathscr{L} y_1 + \lambda_2 \mathscr{L} y_2$.

In the theory of ordinary differential equations of $C^2(\mathbb{R})$ functions, the next thing is to prove that dimker $\mathcal{L}=2$, a key step of which is to invoke the Picard-Lindelöf Theorem in Part A Differential Equations I. However, I don't think it can be generalised to distributional differential equations (especially we don't have a clear definition of an initial value problem).

Assuming that dim ker $\mathcal{L} = 2$, for any inhomogeneous problem

$$\mathcal{L} y = y'' + 2y' + y = u \tag{N}$$

where $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$, the general solution is given by

$$y = y_p + c_1 y_1 + c_2 y_2$$

where $y_p \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ is any solution of (N), $y_1, y_2 \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ are linearly independent solutions of (H), and $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ are arbitrary constants.

Let us solve (H) explicitly. Note that

$$\mathcal{L}y = \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}^2}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + 2\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} + 1\right)y = \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} + 1\right)^2 y$$

Let $z = \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} + 1\right) y$. Then

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}+1\right)z=0 \implies z'+z=0 \implies \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x}z)=e^{x}(z'+z)=0$$
Constancy tun
$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}+1\right)z=0 \implies z'+z=0 \implies \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x}z)=e^{x}(z'+z)=0$$

By the identity theorem for distributions we have $e^x z = \text{const.}$ Hence z is a regular distribution given by $z = c_2 e^{-x}$ for some $c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. Next we solve

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} + 1\right)y = z \implies y' + y = c_2 \,\mathrm{e}^{-x} \implies \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\mathrm{e}^x \, y) = \mathrm{e}^x(y' + y) = c_2$$

By the fundamental theorem of calculus for distributions, y is a regular distribution and we have $e^x y = c_2 x + c_1$ for some $c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence the general solution to (H) is given by

$$y(x) = (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{-x}$$

Let $y_1(x) = e^{-x}$ and $y_2(x) = x e^{-x}$. The Wronskian $W(x) = y_1 y_2' - y_2 y_1' = e^{-2x}$.

Now we consider the inhomogeneous problems (N). To find a particular solution, we use the variation of parameters and consider

$$y_p = u_1 y_1(x) + u_2 y_2(x)$$

where $u_1, u_2 \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ are such that

$$u_1' = -\frac{y_2(x)}{W(x)}u = -xe^x u, \qquad u_2' = \frac{y_1(x)}{W(x)}u = e^x u$$

To show that y_p is a solution to (N), first note that

$$u_1'y_1 + u_2'y_2 = \frac{-y_1y_2 + y_1y_2}{W}u = 0$$

Hence $y'_p = u_1 y'_1 + u_2 y'_2$ by Leibniz's rule. And

$$y_p'' = u_1 y_1'' + u_2 y_2'' + u_1' y_1' + u_2' y_2'$$

We compute:

ibniz's rule. And
$$y_p'' = u_1 y_1'' + u_2 y_2'' + u_1' y_1' + u_2' y_2'$$

$$\mathcal{L} y_p = y_p'' + 2 y_p' + y_p$$

$$= u_1 y_1'' + u_2 y_2'' + u_1' y_1' + u_2' y_2' + 2(u_1 y_1' + u_2 y_2') + u_1 y_1 + u_2 y_2$$

$$= u_1' y_1' + u_2' y_2'$$

$$= \frac{y_1 y_2' - y_2 y_1'}{W} u = u$$

Therefore y_p is indeed a solution to (N).

$$y_p = -e^{-x} \int x e^x u + x e^{-x} \int e^x u$$

where $\int v \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ is such that $(\int v)' = v$ in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.

(i) Note that the regular distribution y = 1 is a particular solution to equation (i). Therefore the general solution to (i) is a regular distribution given by

$$y(x) = 1 + (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{-x}$$

for some $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. The solution is completely classical because it is C^{∞} .

(ii) From the previous discussions, we need to find the primitives of the distributions $xe^x H$, and $e^x H$.

Note that *H* is given by the regular distribution $H(x) = \mathbf{1}_{(0,\infty)}$. We have

$$\int xe^{x}H = \begin{cases} (x-1)e^{x}+1, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}, \qquad \int e^{x}H = \begin{cases} e^{x}-1, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases} \text{ but ok }.$$

Here is a quick check of the above equations:

$$\left\langle \left(\int x e^x H \right)', \varphi \right\rangle = -\left\langle \int x e^x H, \varphi' \right\rangle = -\int_0^\infty ((x-1)e^x + 1)\varphi'(x) \, dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty x e^x \varphi \, dx - ((x-1)e^x + 1)\varphi(x) \Big|_0^\infty$$

$$= \left\langle x e^x H, \varphi \right\rangle$$

$$\left\langle \left(\int e^x H \right)', \varphi \right\rangle = -\left\langle \int e^x H, \varphi' \right\rangle = -\int_0^\infty (e^x - 1)\varphi'(x) \, dx$$

$$= \int_0^\infty e^x \varphi \, dx - (e^x - 1)\varphi(x) \Big|_0^\infty$$

$$= \left\langle e^x H, \varphi \right\rangle$$
on is given by
$$\begin{cases} 1 - (x+1)e^{-x}, & x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

Then the particular solution is given by

$$y_p(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - (x+1)e^{-x}, & x \ge 0 \\ 0, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The general solution is given by

$$y(x) = \begin{cases} 1 + (c_2 - 1)x e^{-x} + (c_1 - 1) e^{-x}, & x \ge 0 \\ c_2 x e^{-x} + c_1 e^{-x}, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$
$$= (1 - (x + 1) e^{-x}) H(x) + (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{-x}$$

The general solution is still regular distribution induced by a continuous function. This distributional solution agree with the classical solution everywhere except at x = 0, where the classical derivative y'' does not exist.

(iii) We need to find the primitives of the distributions $xe^x\delta_0$, and $e^x\delta_0$. Note that $x\delta_0=0$ by Question 5 in Sheet 2. So

 $\int x e^x \delta_0$ is a constant function by the identity theorem, and we can set it equal to 0. Next note that

$$\langle e^x \delta_0, \varphi \rangle = \langle \delta_0, e^x \varphi \rangle = e^0 \varphi(0) = \varphi(0) = \langle \delta_0, \varphi \rangle$$

So $\int e^x \delta_0 = \int \delta_0 = H$. The particular solution is given by

$$y_p(x) = x e^{-x} H(x)$$

The general solution is given by

$$y(x) = x e^{-x} H(x) + (c_1 + c_2 x) e^{-x}$$

which is a regular distribution given by a function with a jump discontinuity at x = 0.

Question 2

The principal logarithm is defined on the cut plane $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ as

$$\log z := \log |z| + i \operatorname{Arg}(z), \quad \operatorname{Arg}(z) \in (-\pi, \pi)$$

Define $\log(x+i0)$ and $\log(x-i0)$ for each $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ by the rules

$$\langle \log(x \pm i0), \varphi \rangle := \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log(x \pm i\varepsilon) \varphi(x) dx$$

(a) Show that $\log(x \pm i0)$ hereby are distributions on \mathbb{R} .

Now let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and define the distributions $(x+i0)^{-k}$ and $(x-i0)^{-k}$ as

$$(x \pm i0)^{-k} := \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} \log(x \pm i0)$$
 in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$

(b) Show that for each $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ with $\varphi^{(j)}(0) = 0$ for $j \in \{0, ..., k\}$ we have

$$\langle (x \pm i0)^{-k}, \varphi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^k} dx$$

(c) Prove that $\log(x + i0) - \log(x - i0) = 2\pi i \widetilde{H}$, where H is the Heaviside function. Deduce the Plemelj-Sokhotsky jump relations:

$$(x+i0)^{-k} - (x-i0)^{-k} = 2\pi i \frac{(-1)^k}{(k-1)!} \delta_0^{(k-1)}$$

where δ_0 is Dirac's delta-function on \mathbb{R} concentrated at 0.

(d) Show that

$$x(x \pm i0)^{-1} = 1$$
 in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$

Deduce that

$$(x+i0)^{-1}(x\delta_0) = 0 \neq \delta_0 = ((x+i0)^{-1}x)\delta_0$$

Next, show, for instance by using the differential operator $x \frac{d}{dx}$ on the case k = 1 iteratively, that

$$x^k(x \pm i0)^{-k} = 1$$
 in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$

holds for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. (a) We need to show that $\log(x \pm i0) \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$. First we show that $\log(x + i0) \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.

• $\log(x+i0)$ is well-defined:

We have

$$\left|\log(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon)\right| = \left|\log\left(\sqrt{x^2+\varepsilon^2}\right) + \mathrm{i}\operatorname{Arg}(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon)\right| \le \pi + \frac{1}{2}\left|\log(x^2+\varepsilon^2)\right|$$

Then

$$\left|\left\langle \log(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon),\varphi\right\rangle\right| \leq \sup_{x\in\mathbb{R}}|\varphi(x)|\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0}\int_{\mathrm{supp}\,\varphi}\left(\pi+\frac{1}{2}\left|\log(x^2+\varepsilon^2)\right|\right)\mathrm{d}x$$

Note that $|\log(x^2 + \varepsilon^2)|$ is bounded on supp $\varphi \setminus [-1, 1]$. And

$$\int_{-1}^{1} \left| \log(x^2 + \varepsilon^2) \right| \, \mathrm{d}x \le 2 + 4 \left| \int_{0}^{1} \log x \, \mathrm{d}x \right| = 2 + 4 < \infty$$

Hence $|\langle \log(x+i\varepsilon), \varphi \rangle| < \infty$. It is well-defined.

In addition, the same proof also shows that

 $\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{K} |\log(x+i\varepsilon)| \, dx$ true but I'm

not sum that you're

proven these

limits actually

exist.

is bounded on any compact set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

• $\log(x+i0)$ is linear:

For $\varphi_1, \varphi_2 \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

 $\langle \log(x+i0), \lambda_1 \varphi_1 + \lambda_2 \varphi_2 \rangle = \lim_{\epsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log(x+i\epsilon) (\lambda_1 \varphi_1(x) + \lambda_2 \varphi_2(x)) dx$ $= \lambda_1 \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log(x + i\varepsilon) \varphi_1(x) dx + \lambda_2 \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log(x + i\varepsilon) \varphi_2(x) dx$ $= \lambda_1 \left\langle \log(x + i0), \varphi_1 \right\rangle + \lambda_2 \left\langle \log(x + i0), \varphi_2 \right\rangle$

Hence log(x + i0) is a linear functional.

• $\log(x+i0)$ is continuous:

Suppose that $\{\varphi_n\}\subseteq \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\varphi\in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ such that $\varphi_n\to \varphi$ in $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$. Let $K\subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a compact set such that $\operatorname{supp} \varphi_n$, $\operatorname{supp} \varphi \subseteq K$. We have

$$\left| \left\langle \log(x+\mathrm{i}0), \varphi_n \right\rangle - \left\langle \log(x+\mathrm{i}0), \varphi \right\rangle \right| = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon) (\varphi_n(x) - \varphi(x)) \, \mathrm{d}x \right|$$

$$\leqslant \|\varphi_n - \varphi\|_{\infty} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_K \left| \log(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon) \right| \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$\leqslant \|\varphi_n - \varphi\|_{\infty} M(K) \to 0$$
as $\|\varphi_n - \varphi\|_{\infty} \to 0$. Hence $\log(x+\mathrm{i}0)$ is continuous.

What is distributed by the deduce that $\log(x+\mathrm{i}0) \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$. Similarly $\log(x-\mathrm{i}0) \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.

(b) First we note that there is a complex version of integration by parts. Suppose that f(x) = u(x) + iv(x) where u, v are differentiable real-valued functions. Then for $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)\varphi'(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(x)\varphi'(x) dx + i \int_{\mathbb{R}} v(x)\varphi'(x) dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} u'(x)\varphi(x) dx - i \int_{\mathbb{R}} v'(x)\varphi(x) dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} f'(x)\varphi(x) dx$$

Second, note that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}x^k}\log(x\pm\mathrm{i}\varepsilon) = \left.\frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}z^k}\log z\right|_{z=x\pm\mathrm{i}\varepsilon} = (-1)^{k-1}(k-1)!(x\pm\mathrm{i}\varepsilon)^{-k}$$

Then for $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\begin{split} \left\langle (x\pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-k}, \varphi \right\rangle &= \left\langle \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}x^k} \log(x\pm \mathrm{i}0), \varphi \right\rangle = \left\langle \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \log(x\pm \mathrm{i}0), (-1)^k \varphi^{(k)} \right\rangle \\ &= -\frac{1}{(k-1)!} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \log(x\pm \mathrm{i}\varepsilon) \varphi^{(k)}(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \end{split}$$

$$= \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(k-1)!} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}x^k} \log(x \pm i\varepsilon) \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\varphi(x)}{(x \pm i\varepsilon)^k} \, \mathrm{d}x$$

For sufficiently small $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists C > 0 such that

$$\left| \frac{\varphi(x)}{(x \pm i\varepsilon)^k} \right| \le C \left| \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^k} \right|$$

Since $\varphi^{(j)}(0) = 0$ for $j \le k$, we use the l'Hôptial's rule k times and find

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^k} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\varphi^{(k)}(x)}{k!} = 0$$

Hence $\left| \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^k} \right|$ is bounded near x = 0. Since supp φ is compact, the function is integrable over \mathbb{R} . By Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\left\langle (x \pm i0)^{-k}, \varphi \right\rangle = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\varphi(x)}{(x \pm i\varepsilon)^k} \, dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{\varphi(x)}{(x \pm i\varepsilon)^k} \, dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\varphi(x)}{x^k} \, dx$$

(c) For $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\log(x \pm i\varepsilon) = \frac{1}{2}\log(x^2 + \varepsilon^2) \pm i\arctan\frac{\varepsilon}{x}$$

Then

$$\log(x + i\varepsilon) - \log(x - i\varepsilon) = 2i \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{x}$$

For x > 0, $\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} 2i \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{x} = 0$; for x < 0, $\lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} 2i \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{x} = 2\pi i$.

Then for $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\begin{split} \left\langle \log(x+\mathrm{i}0) - \log(x-\mathrm{i}0), \varphi \right\rangle &= \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\log(x+\mathrm{i}\varepsilon) - \log(x-\mathrm{i}\varepsilon) \right) \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= 2\mathrm{i} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{x} \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= 2\mathrm{i} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \arctan \frac{\varepsilon}{x} \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &= 2\mathrm{i} \int_{-\infty}^{0} \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 2\pi\mathrm{i} \left\langle \widetilde{H}, \varphi \right\rangle \end{split} \tag{bounded convergence theorem)}$$

where \widetilde{H} is the distribution such that $\langle \widetilde{H}, \varphi(x) \rangle = \langle H, \varphi(-x) \rangle$ for $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$. We deduce that $\log(x+\mathrm{i}0) - \log(x-\mathrm{i}0) = 2\pi\mathrm{i}\widetilde{H}$. Taking the distributional derivative k times, we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x^k} \left(\log(x + \mathrm{i}0) - \log(x - \mathrm{i}0) \right) 2\pi \mathrm{i} \widetilde{H}^{(k)}$$

Using the result in (b) and the fact that $H' = \delta_0$, we have

$$(x+i0)^{-k} - (x-i0)^{-k} = 2\pi i \frac{(-1)^k}{(k-1)!} \delta_0^{(k-1)}$$

(d) For $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\langle x(x \pm i0)^{-1}, \varphi \rangle = \langle (x \pm i0)^{-1}, x\varphi(x) \rangle = \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{x}{x \pm i\varepsilon} \varphi(x) dx$$

The integrand is continuous and compactly supported. Hence by bounded convergence theorem we have

$$\langle x(x \pm i0)^{-1}, \varphi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \lim_{\varepsilon \searrow 0} \frac{x}{x \pm i\varepsilon} \varphi(x) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(x) dx = \langle 1, \varphi \rangle$$

Hence $x(x \pm i0)^{-1} = 1$. We deduce that

$$(x+i0)^{-1}(x\delta_0) = 0 \neq \delta_0 = ((x+i0)^{-1}x)\delta_0$$

which suggests the product of two general distributions may not be well-defined.

We use induction on k to prove that $x^k(x\pm i0)^{-k}=1$. The base case k=1 is proven above. Suppose that $x^k(x\pm i0)^{-k}=1$. Then

$$0 = x \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left(x^k (x \pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-k} \right) = k x^k (x \pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-k} - k x^{k+1} (x \pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-(k+1)} \implies x^{k+1} (x \pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-(k+1)} = x^k (x \pm \mathrm{i}0)^{-k} = 1$$

Hence $x^k(x \pm i0)^{-k} = 1$ for all $k \ge 1$

Question 3

Let $g \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R})$ and assume that g is T-periodic for some T > 0: g(x + T) = g(x) holds for almost all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Define for each $j \in \mathbb{N}$ the function

$$g_j(x) = g(jx), \quad x \in (0,1)$$

Prove that

$$g_j \to \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g dx$$
 in $\mathcal{D}'(0,1)$ as $j \to \infty$

Proof. Let

$$f(x) := g(x) - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt$$

and

$$F(x) := \int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x g(t) dt - \frac{x}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt$$

Then *F* is absolutely continuous and *T*-periodic:

$$F(x+T) = \int_0^{x+T} g(t) dt - \left(1 + \frac{x}{T}\right) \int_0^T g(t) dt = \int_T^{x+T} g(t) dt - \frac{x}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt = \int_0^x g(t) dt - \frac{x}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt = F(x)$$

In particular, F is bounded on \mathbb{R} , because $F(\mathbb{R}) = F([0, T])$ is compact.

For $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$\left\langle g_{j} - \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} g(t) \, \mathrm{d}t, \varphi \right\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(x) \left(g(jx) - \frac{1}{T} \int_{0}^{T} g(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \right) \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(jx) \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{F'(jx)}{j} \varphi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= -\frac{1}{j} \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(jx) \varphi'(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

Since *F* is bounded and φ' is compactly supported, there exists M > 0 such that

$$\left| \int_{\mathbb{R}} F(jx) \varphi'(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \right| \le M$$

for all $j \ge 1$. Then

$$\left| \left\langle g_j - \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g(t) \, \mathrm{d}t, \varphi \right\rangle \right| \leq \frac{M}{j} \to 0$$

as $j \to \infty$. We deduce that $g_j \to \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T g(t) dt$ in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$

Really nice arguement.

Ouestion 4

Let $\theta \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$.

- (i) Explain how the convolution $\theta * u$ is defined for a general distribution $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.
- (ii) Prove that $\theta * u \in C^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ when $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.
- (iii) Let $(\rho_{\varepsilon})_{{\varepsilon}>0}$ be the standard mollifier on \mathbb{R} . Show that for a general distribution $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ we have that

$$\rho_{\varepsilon} * u \to u \text{ in } \mathscr{D}'(\mathbb{R}) \text{ as } \varepsilon \setminus 0$$

(iv) Show that for each $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ we can find a sequence (u_i) in $\mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$ such that

$$u_i \to u$$
 in $\mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ as $j \to \infty$

Proof. (i) $\theta * u$ is the distribution defined by

$$\langle \theta * u, \varphi \rangle = \langle u, \widetilde{\theta} * \varphi \rangle$$

for all $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}(\mathbb{R})$, where $\widetilde{\theta}(x) := \theta(-x)$. We can check that the definition agrees with the usual convolution for regular distributions $u(x) \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R})$:

$$\langle \theta * u, \varphi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(x) (\widetilde{\theta} * \varphi)(x) \, dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(x) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(y) \widetilde{\theta}(x - y) \, dy \right) dx$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(y) \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} u(x) \theta(y - x) \, dx \right) dy \qquad (Fubini's Theorem)$$

$$= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \varphi(y) (\theta * u)(y) \, dy$$

Then by the adjoint identity scheme, $\theta * u$ is a distribution for any $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$.

(ii) Sorry that I did not have enough time to finish the rest of the question. In fact this is a bookwork question, whose complete proof is given in Lemma 4.12, Lemma 4.14 and Theorem 5.9. We don't really need the general form in Theorem 5.9. A variant of Lemma 4.12 is sufficient for (ii).

Question 5

Let

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was

super long...

$$p(\partial) = \sum_{|\alpha| \le k} c_{\alpha} \partial^{\alpha} \quad (k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } c_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{C})$$

be a partial differential operator on \mathbb{R}^n in the usual multi-index notation. For an open subset Ω of \mathbb{R}^n and $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\Omega)$ show that the supports always obey the rule:

$$\operatorname{supp}(p(\partial)u) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(u)$$

Give an example of a distribution $v \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$ such that the distributional derivative $v' \neq 0$ has compact support, but v itself hasn't. Next, show that also the singular supports satisfy the rule

$$sing.supp(p(D)u) \subseteq sing.supp(u)$$

and give an example of a distribution $u \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R}^2)$ and a partial differential operator $p(\partial)$ so

$$\operatorname{sing.supp}(u) = \mathbb{R}^2$$
 and $\operatorname{sing.supp}(p(\partial)u) = \emptyset$

Proof. For $x \notin \text{supp}(u)$, there exists an open neighbourhood $U \subseteq \Omega$ of x such that $u|_{U} = 0$. For $\varphi \in \mathcal{D}'(U)$,

$$\langle p(\partial)u, \varphi \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{|\alpha| \le k} c_{\alpha} \partial^{\alpha} u, \varphi \right\rangle = \left\langle u, \sum_{|\alpha| \le k} c_{\alpha} (-1)^{|\alpha|} \partial^{\alpha} \varphi \right\rangle = 0$$

Hence $p(\partial)u|_U = 0$. $x \notin \operatorname{supp}(p(\partial)u)$. We deduce that $\operatorname{supp}(p(\partial)u) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(u)$.

Let B(x) be the standard bump function on [-1,1], and let

$$v(x) = \int_0^x B(t) \, \mathrm{d}t + C$$

where C > 5 is a constant. Then ν is a smooth function, and it defines a regular distribution $\nu \in \mathcal{D}'(\mathbb{R})$. Its distributional derivative v' is exactly the usual derivative B(x). The support of v and v' as distributions are exactly the support as functions on \mathbb{R} . We have supp $(v) = \mathbb{R}$ and supp(v') = supp(B) = [-1, 1]. Therefore v' is compactly supported but v is not.

For $x \notin \text{sing.supp}(u)$, there exists an open neighbourhood $U \subseteq \Omega$ of x such that $a|_{U} \in C^{\infty}(U)$. Then $p(\partial)u|_{U} \in C^{\infty}(U)$. Hence $x \notin \text{sing.supp}(p(\partial)u)$. We deduce that sing. $\text{supp}(p(\partial)u) \subseteq \text{sing.supp}(u)$.

Consider the Dirichlet function on \mathbb{R}^2 :

$$u(x,y) = \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{Q}^2}$$
 but $u = 0$ in Line Branch

Then $u \in L^1_{loc}(\mathbb{R}^2)$, and it defines a regular distribution. Since u is nowhere continuous, sing. $\sup(u) = \mathbb{R}^2$. Consider the trivial differential operator $p(\partial) = 0$. Then $p(\partial)u = 0$ has singular support sing, supp $(p(\partial)u) = \emptyset$.

Question 6

Let $F:\mathbb{C}\to\mathbb{C}$ be an entire function that is not identically zero. Explain why the formula $f=\log |F|$ defines a distribution on \mathbb{C} Prove that its distributional Laplacian equals

$$\Delta f = \sum_{j \in J} 2\pi m_j \delta_{z_j}$$

where $\{z_j : j \in J\}$ are the distinct zeros for F and $\{m_j : j \in J\}$ their multiplicities.

[Hint: Use the Cauchy-Riemann operators to calculate the Laplacian.]

Proof. From complex analysis we know that the zeros of F are isolated. Suppose that $z_i \in \mathbb{C}$ is a zero of F with multiplicity m_i . Then in some open disc $B(z_i, r)$, we have

$$F(z) = (z - z_j)^{m_j} F_j(z)$$

where F_i is holomorphic with $F_i(z_i) \neq 0$. In $B(z_i, r)$, we can choose a branch cut and define a holomorphic branch of logarithm in the cut disc. We have

$$\log|F| = m_j \log|z - z_j| + \log|F_j|$$

 $\log |F_i|$ is locally bounded in the cut disc, and $\log |z-z_i|$ is locally integrable, as discussed in Question 2(a). Hence $\log |F_i|$ defined on a simply-connected subset of $\mathbb{C} \setminus F^{-1}(\{0\})$, is locally integrable. Thus $\log |F|$ is a regular distribution.

Sorry I did not have enough time to solve the question. I believe a good answer is given on https://math.stackexchange. com/questions/3056814.