A BANACH GELFAND TRIPLE Prototypical for Modulation Spaces and their use in time-frequency analysis

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The GOAL of this presentation is to convey the concepts of <u>modulation spaces</u>, <u>Banach Frames</u> and <u>Banach Gelfand Triples</u> by describing them and show their usefulness in the context of mathematical analysis, in particular <u>time-frequency analysis</u>

- Recall some concepts from linear algebra, especially that of a *generating system*, a *linear independent* set of vectors, and that of the dual vector space;
- already in the context of Hilbert spaces the question arises: what is a correct generalization of these concepts?
- Banach Gelfand Triple (comparable to rigged Hilbert spaces) are one way out;



Aside from the various technical terms coming up I hope to convey implicitly a few other messages:

- staying with Banach spaces and their duals one can do amazing things (without touching the full theory of topological vector spaces, Lebesgue integration, or usual distribution theory);
- alongside with the norm topology just the very natural w*-topology, just in the form of pointwise convergence of functionals, for the dual space has to be kept in mind (allowing thus among other to handle non-reflexive Banach spaces);
- diagrams and operator descriptions allow to naturally generalize concepts from finite dimensional theory up to th category of Banach Gelfand triples.

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A Typical Musical STFT

A typical waterfall melody (Beethoven piano sonata) depictured using the spectrogram, displaying the energy distribution in the TF = time-frequency plan:



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compared to musical score ...



The key-players for time-frequency analysis

Time-shifts and Frequency shifts

$$T_x f(t) = f(t-x)$$

and $x, \omega, t \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$M_{\omega}f(t)=e^{2\pi i\omega\cdot t}f(t)$$
.

Behavior under Fourier transform

$$(T_x f)^{\hat{}} = M_{-x} \hat{f} \qquad (M_\omega f)^{\hat{}} = T_\omega \hat{f}$$

The Short-Time Fourier Transform

$$V_{g}f(\lambda) = \langle f, \underline{M}_{\omega} T_{t}g \rangle = \langle f, \pi(\lambda)g \rangle = \langle f, \underline{g}_{\lambda} \rangle, \ \lambda = (t, \omega);$$



For people in representation theory I could explain the spectrogram is just displaying to you a typical representation coefficient of the (projective) Schrödinger Representation of the (reduced) Heisenberg Group \mathbb{H}^d (for d = 1).

According to Roger Howe this group has the phantastic "hinduistic multiplicity in one" property of allowing a variety of different looking but in fact mathematically equivalent representations (due to the von-Neumann uniqueness theorem), which indicates the connection to quantum mechanics, the theory of coherent states, and related topics (where e.g. rigged Hilbert spaces, the bras and kets appear already), where concepts as described below are in fact also helpful (to put expressions such as continuous integral representations on a firm mathematical ground); but we will start from known grounds...

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Geometric interpretation of matrix multiplication



$$T = \widetilde{T} \circ P_{Row}, \quad pinv(T) = inv(\widetilde{T}) \circ P_{Col}.$$



We will be mostly interested (as models for Banach Frames and Riesz projection bases) in the situation of matrices of maximal ranks, i.e. in the situation where $r = \operatorname{rank}(A) = \max(m, n)$, where $A = (a_1, \dots, a_k)$. Then either the synthesis mapping $x \mapsto A * x = \sum_k x_k a_k$ has trivial kernel (i.e. the column vectors of A are a linear independent set, spanning the column-space of which is of dimension r = n), or the analysis mapping $y \mapsto A' * y = (\langle y, a_k \rangle)$ has trivial kernel, hence the column spaces equals the target space (or r = m), or the column vectors are a spanning set for \mathbb{R}^m .



For *Riesz basic sequences* we have the following diagram:



Definition

A sequence (h_k) in a separable Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is a *Riesz basis* for its closed linear span (sometimes also called a Riesz basic sequence) if for two constants $0 < D_1 \leq D_2 < \infty$,

$$D_1 \|c\|_{\ell^2}^2 \leq \left\|\sum_k c_k h_k
ight\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \leq D_2 \|c\|_{\ell^2}^2, \qquad orall c \in \ell^2$$

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We are calculating with all kind of numbers in our daily life. But just recall the most beautiful equation

$$e^{2\pi i} = 1.$$

It uses the exponential function, with a (purely) imaginary exponent to get a nice result, more appealing than (the equivalent)

$$cos(2\pi) + i * sin(2\pi) = 1$$
 in \mathbb{C} .

But actual computation are done for rational numbers only!! Recall

$$\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$$

Existing examples of Gelfand Triples

So-called *Gelfand Triples* are already widely used in various fields of analysis. The prototypical example in the theory of PDE is certainly the *Schwartz Gelfand triple*, consisting of the space of test functions $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ of rapidly decreasing functions, densely sitting inside of $(\mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_2)$, which in turn is embedded into the space of tempered distributions $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d) \hookrightarrow \mathsf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d).$$
 (2)

Alternatively (e.g. for elliptic PDE) one used

$$\mathcal{H}_{s}(\mathbb{R}^{d}) \hookrightarrow \mathsf{L}^{2}(\mathbb{R}^{d}) \hookrightarrow \mathcal{H}'_{s}(\mathbb{R}^{d}).$$
(3)

It is obtained via the Fourier transform form

$$\mathbf{L}^2_w(\mathbb{R}^d) \hookrightarrow \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d) \hookrightarrow \mathbf{L}^2_w(\mathbb{R}^d)'.$$

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We teach in our linear algebra courses that the following properties are equivalent for a set of vectors $(f_i)_{i \in I}$ in **V**:

- **①** The only vector perpendicular to a set of vectors is \emptyset ;
- **2** Every $v \in \mathbf{V}$ is a linear combination of these vectors.

An attempt to transfer these ideas to the setting of Hilbert spaces one comes up with several different generalizations:

- a family is *total* if its linear combinations are dense;
- a family is a *frame* if there is a bounded linear mapping from \mathcal{H} into $\ell^2(I) \ f \mapsto \mathbf{c} = c(f) = (c_i)_{i \in I}$ such that

$$f=\sum_{i\in I}c_if_i\quad\forall f\in\mathcal{H}.$$

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There is another, *equivalent* characterization of frames. First, it is an obvious consequence of the characterization given above, that

$$f = \sum_{i \in I} c_i f_i \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}.$$
 (6)

implies that there exists C, D > 0 such that

$$C\|f\|^{2} \leq \sum_{i \in I} |\langle f, f_{i} \rangle|^{2} \leq D\|f\|^{2} \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{H}.$$
(7)

For the converse observe that $Sf := \sum_{i \in I} \langle f, f_i \rangle f_i$ is a strictly positive definite operator and the *dual frame* (\tilde{f}_i) satisfies

$$f = \sum_{i \in I} \langle f, \widetilde{f}_i \rangle f_i = \sum_{i \in I} \langle f, f_i \rangle \widetilde{f}_i$$



(3)

There is one very interesting example (the prototypical problem going back to D. Gabor, 1946): Consider the family of all time-frequency shifted copies of a standard Gauss function $g_0(t) = e^{-\pi |t|^2}$ (which is invariant under the Fourier transform), and shifted along $\mathbb{Z}(T_n f(z) = f(z - n))$ and shifted also in time along \mathbb{Z} (the modulation operator is given by $M_k h(z) = \chi_k(z) \cdot h(z)$, where $\chi_k(z) = e^{2\pi i k z}$. Although D. Gabor gave some heuristic arguments suggesting to expand every signal from $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ in a unique way into a (double) series of such "Gabor atoms", a deeper mathematical analysis shows that we have the following problems (the basic analysis has been undertaken e.g. by A.J.E.M. Janssen in the early 80s)

TF-shifted Gaussians: Gabor families





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Problems with the original suggestion

Even if one allows to replace the time shifts from along \mathbb{Z} by time-shifts along $a\mathbb{Z}$ and accordingly frequency shifts along $b\mathbb{Z}$ one faces the following problems:

- for a ⋅ b = 1 (in particular a = 1 = b) one finds a total subset, which is not a frame nor Riesz-basis for L²(ℝ), which is redundant in the sense: after removing one element it is still total in L²(ℝ), while it is not total anymore after removal of more than one such element;
- or a · b > 1 one does not have anymore totalness, but a Riesz basic sequence for its closed linear span (⊊ L²(ℝ));
- for a ⋅ b < 1 one finds that the corresponding Gabor family is a Gabor frame: it is a redundant family allowing to expand f ∈ L²(ℝ) using ℓ²-coefficients (but one can remove infinitely many elements and still have this property!);



Since the Fourier transform is one of the central transforms, both for abstract harmonic analysis, engineering applications and pseudo-differential operators let us take a look at it first. People (and books) approach it in different ways and flavours:

- It is defined as integral transform (Lebesgue!?);
- It is computed using the FFT (what is the connection);
- Should engineers learn about tempered distributions?
- How can we reconcile mathematical rigor and still stay in touch with applied people (physics, engineering).



For practical applications the discrete (finite) Fourier transform is of upmost importance, because of its algebraic properties [joint diagonalization of circulant matrices, hence fast multiplication of polynomials, etc.] and its computational efficiency (FFT algorithms of signals of length N run in Nlog(N) time, for $N = 2^k$, due to recursive arguments).

It maps a vector of length *n* onto the values of the polynomial generated by this set of coefficients, over the unit roots of order *n* on the unit circle (hence it is a Vandermonde matrix). It is a unitary matrix (up to the factor $1/\sqrt{n}$) and maps pure frequencies onto unit vectors (engineers talk of *energy preservation*).



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If we define the Fourier transform for functions on \mathbb{R}^d using an integral transform, then it is useful to assume that $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$, i.e. that f belongs to the space of Lebesgues integrable functions.

$$\hat{f}(\omega) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(t) \cdot e^{-2\pi i \omega \cdot t} dt$$
 (8)

The inverse Fourier transform then has the form

$$f(t) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \hat{f}(\omega) \cdot e^{2\pi i t \cdot \omega} \, d\omega, \qquad (9)$$

Strictly speaking this inversion formula only makes sense under the additional hypothesis that $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$. One often speaks of Fourier analysis followed by Fourier inversion as a method to build f from the pure frequencies (Fourier synthesis).

Unfortunately the Fourier transform does not behave well with respect to L^1 , and a lot of functional analysis went into fighting the problems (or should we say symptoms?)

- For $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ we have $\hat{f} \in C_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ (but not conversely, nor can we guarantee $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)$);
- ② The Fourier transform f on L¹(ℝ^d) ∩ L²(ℝ^d) is isometric in the L²-sense, but the Fourier integral cannot be written anymore;
- Convolution and pointwise multiplication correspond to each other, but sometimes the convolution may have to be taken as improper integral, or using summability methods;
- L^{p} -spaces have traditionally a high reputation among function spaces, but tell us little about \hat{f} .



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A schematic description of the situation

the classical Fourier situation





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The usual way out of this problem zone is to introduce generalized functions. In order to do so one has to introduce test functions, and give them a reasonable topology (family of seminorms), so that it makes sense to separate the *continuous* linear functionals from the pathological ones. The "good ones" are admitted and called generalized functions, since most reasonable ordinary functions can be identified (uniquely) with a generalized function (much as 5/7 is a complex number!). If one wants to have Fourier invariance of the space of distributions, one must Fourier invariance of the space of test functions (such as $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$). If one wants to have - in addition also closedness with respect to differentiation one has to take more or less $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$. BUT THERE IS MORE!



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A schematic description of the situation



Without differentiability there is a minimal, Fourier and isometrically translation invariant Banach space (called $(\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0})$ or $(\mathbf{M}^1(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{M}^1})$), which will serve our purpose. Its dual space $(\mathbf{S}_0'(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0'})$ is correspondingly the largest among all Fourier invariant and isometrically translation invariant "objects" (in fact so-called local pseudo-measures or quasimeasures, orginally introduced in order to describe translation invariant systems as convolution operators).

Although there is a rich zoo of Banach spaces around (one can choose such a family, the so-called Shubin classes - to intersect in the Schwartz class and their union is corresondingly $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^d)$), we will restrict ourselves to the situation of Banach Gelfand Triples, mostly related to $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

The S_0 -Banach Gelfand Triple



The key-players for time-frequency analysis

Time-shifts and Frequency shifts (II)

$$T_x f(t) = f(t-x)$$

and $x, \omega, t \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$M_{\omega}f(t)=e^{2\pi i\omega\cdot t}f(t)$$
.

Behavior under Fourier transform

$$(T_x f)^{\hat{}} = M_{-x} \hat{f} \qquad (M_\omega f)^{\hat{}} = T_\omega \hat{f}$$

The Short-Time Fourier Transform

$$V_{g}f(\lambda) = \langle f, \underline{M}_{\omega} T_{t}g \rangle = \langle f, \pi(\lambda)g \rangle = \langle f, \underline{g}_{\lambda} \rangle, \ \lambda = (t, \omega);$$



A function in $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is in the subspace $S_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if for some non-zero g (called the "window") in the Schwartz space $S(\mathbb{R}^d)$

$$\|f\|_{\mathcal{S}_0} := \|V_g f\|_{\mathbf{L}^1} = \iint_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d} |V_g f(x, \omega)| dx d\omega < \infty.$$

The space $(\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0})$ is a Banach space, for any fixed, non-zero $g \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$), and different windows g define the same space and equivalent norms. Since $\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ contains the Schwartz space $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^d)$, any Schwartz function is suitable, but also compactly supported functions having an integrable Fourier transform (such as a trapezoidal or triangular function) are suitable. It is convenient to use the Gaussian as a window.

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Lemma

Let
$$f \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$$
, then the following holds:
(1) $\pi(u,\eta)f \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ for $(u,\eta) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d$, and
 $\|\pi(u,\eta)f\|_{\mathbf{S}_0} = \|f\|_{\mathbf{S}_0}$.
(2) $\hat{f} \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and $\|\hat{f}\|_{\mathbf{S}_0} = \|f\|_{\mathbf{S}_0}$.

In fact, $(\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0})$ is the smallest non-trivial Banach space with this property, and therefore contained in any of the \mathbf{L}^p -spaces (and their Fourier images).



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Definition

A triple, consisting of a Banach space **B**, which is dense in some Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , which in turn is contained in **B**' is called a Banach Gelfand triple.

Definition

If $(\mathbf{B}_1, \mathcal{H}_1, \mathbf{B}'_1)$ and $(\mathbf{B}_2, \mathcal{H}_2, \mathbf{B}'_2)$ are Gelfand triples then a linear operator \mathcal{T} is called a [unitary] Gelfand triple isomorphism if

- **1** A is an isomorphism between \mathbf{B}_1 and \mathbf{B}_2 .
- A is [a unitary operator resp.] an isomorphism between H₁ and H₂.
- A extends to a weak* isomorphism as well as a norm-to-norm continuous isomorphism between B'₁ and B'₂.

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In principle every CONB (= complete orthonormal basis) $\Psi = (\psi_i)_{i \in I}$ for a given Hilbert space \mathcal{H} can be used to establish such a unitary isomorphism, by choosing as \mathbf{B} the space of elements within \mathcal{H} which have an absolutely convergent expansion, i.e. satisfy $\sum_{i \in I} |\langle x, \psi_i \rangle| < \infty$. For the case of the Fourier system as CONB for $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{L}^2([0, 1])$, i.e. the corresponding definition is already around since the times of N. Wiener: $\mathbf{A}(\mathbb{T})$, the space of absolutely continuous Fourier series. It is also not surprising in retrospect to see that the dual space $\mathsf{PM}(\mathbb{T}) = \mathsf{A}(\mathbb{T})'$ is space of *pseudo-measures*. One can extend the classical Fourier transform to this space, and in fact interpret this extended mapping, in conjunction with the classical Plancherel theorem as the first unitary Banach Gelfand triple

isomorphism, between $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{PM})(\mathbb{T})$ and $(\ell^1, \ell^2, \ell^\infty)(\mathbb{Z})$.

The Fourier transform \mathcal{F} on \mathbb{R}^d has the following properties:

- \mathcal{F} is an isomorphism from $S_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ to $S_0(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d)$,
- **2** \mathcal{F} is a unitary map between $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and $L^2(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d)$,
- \mathcal{F} is a weak* (and norm-to-norm) continuous bijection from $\mathbf{S}'_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ onto $\mathbf{S}'_0(\widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d)$.

Furthermore, we have that Parseval's formula

$$\langle f,g \rangle = \langle \widehat{f},\widehat{g} \rangle$$
 (10)

is valid for $(f,g) \in S_0(\mathbb{R}^d) \times S_0'(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and therefore on each level of the Gelfand triple $(S_0, L^2, S_0')(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

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Gröchenig and Leinert have shown (J. Amer. Math. Soc., 2004):

Theorem

Assume that for $g \in \boldsymbol{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ the Gabor frame operator

$$S:f\mapsto \sum_{\lambda\in ig \Lambda} \langle f,\pi(\lambda)g
angle\,\pi(\lambda)g$$

is invertible as an operator on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, then it is also invertible on $S_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ and in fact on $S_0'(\mathbb{R}^d)$. In other words: Invertibility at the level of the Hilbert space automatically !! implies that S is (resp. extends to) an isomorphism of the Gelfand triple automorphism for $(S_0, L^2, S_0')(\mathbb{R}^d)$.

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It is not difficult to show, that the norms of $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')(\mathbb{R}^d)$ correspond to norm convergence in $(\mathbf{L}^1, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{L}^\infty)(\mathbb{R}^{2d})$. The FOURIER transform, viewed as a BGT-automorphism is uniquely determined by the fact that it maps pure frequencies onto the corresponding point measures δ_ω .



$$\label{eq:product} \begin{split} \textbf{P} &= \mathcal{C} \circ \mathcal{R} \text{ is a projection in } \textbf{Y} \text{ onto the range } \textbf{Y}_0 \text{ of } \mathcal{C} \text{, thus we} \\ \text{have the following commutative diagram.} \end{split}$$





The frame diagram for Hilbert spaces:





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The frame diagram for Hilbert spaces (S_0, L^2, S_0') :





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Assume that $g \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ is given and some lattice Λ . Then (g, Λ) generates a Gabor frame for $\mathcal{H} = \mathbf{L}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ if and only if the coefficient mapping \mathcal{C} from $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')(\mathbb{R}^d)$ into $(\ell^1, \ell^2, \ell^\infty)(\Lambda)$ as a left inverse \mathcal{R} (i.e. $\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{C} = Id_{\mathcal{H}}$), which is also a GTR-homomorphism back from $(\ell^1, \ell^2, \ell^\infty)$ to $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')$. In practice it means, that the dual Gabor atom \tilde{g} is also in $\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and also the canonical tight atom $S^{-1/2}$, and therefore the whole procedure of taking coefficients, perhaps multiplying them with some sequence (to obtain a Gabor multiplier) and resynthesis is well defined and a BGT-morphism for any such pair.



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One can however also fix the Gabor system, with both analysis and synthesis window in $\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ (typically one will take g and \tilde{g} respectively, or even more symmetrically a tight Gabor window). Then one can take the multiplier sequence in different sequence spaces, e.g. in $(\ell^1, \ell^2, \ell^\infty)(\Lambda)$.

Lemma

Then the mapping from multiplier sequences to Gabor multipliers is a Banach Gelfand triple homomorphism into Banach Gelfand triple of operator ideals, consisting of the Schatten classe $S_1 =$ trace class operators, $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{HS}$, the Hilbert Schmidt operators, and the class of all bounded operators (with the norm and strong operator topology).

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In contrast to the pure Hilbert space case (the box-function is an ideal orthonormal system on the real line, but does *NOT allow* for any deformation, without loosing the property of being even a Riesz basis):

Theorem (Fei/Kaiblinger, TAMS)

Assume that a pair (g, Λ) , with $g \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ defines a Gabor frame or a Gabor Riesz basis respectively [note that by Wexler/Raz and Ron/Shen these to situations are equivalent modulo taking adjoint subgroups!], then the same is true for slightly perturbed atoms or lattices, and the corresponding dual atoms (biorthogonal generators) depend continuously in the $(\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0})$ -sense on both parameters.

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In another, very recent paper, Charly Groechenig has discovered that there is another analogy to the finite dimensional case: There one has: A square matrix is invertible if and only if it is surjective or injective (the other property then follows automatically). We have a similar situation here (systematically describe in Charly's paper):

K.Grchenig: Gabor frames without inequalities, Int. Math. Res. Not. IMRN, No.23, (2007).



(3)

We know also from linear algebra, that any linear mapping can be expressed by a matrix (once two bases are fixed). We have a similar situation through the so-called kernel theorem. It uses $\mathbf{B} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{S}_0', \mathbf{S}_0)$.

Theorem

There is a natural BGT-isomorphism between $(\mathbf{B}, \mathcal{H}, \mathbf{B}')$ and $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')(\mathbb{R}^{2d})$. This in turn is isomorphic via the spreading and the Kohn-Nirenberg symbol to $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}_0')(\mathbb{R}^d \times \widehat{\mathbb{R}}^d)$. Moreover, the spreading mapping is uniquely determined as the BGT-isomorphism, which established a correspondence between TF-shift operators $\pi(\lambda)$ and the corresponding point masses δ_{λ} .

It is not difficult to show, that the norms of $(\mathbf{S}_0, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{S}'_0)(\mathbb{R}^d)$ correspond to norm convergence in $(\mathbf{L}^1, \mathbf{L}^2, \mathbf{L}^\infty)(\mathbb{R}^{2d})$. Therefore it is interesting to check what the *w**-convergence looks like:

Lemma

For any $g \in \mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ a sequence σ_n is w^* -convergent to σ_0 if and only the spectrograms $V_g(\sigma_n)$ converge uniformly over compact sets to the spectrogram $V_g(\sigma_0)$.

The FOURIER transform, viewed as a BGT-automorphism is uniquely determined by the fact that it maps pure frequencies onto the corresponding point measures δ_{ω} .



From the practical point of view this means, that one has to look at the spectrograms of the sequence σ_n and verify whether they look closer and closer the spectrogram of the limit distribution $V_g(\sigma_0)$ over compact sets.

The approximation of elements from $S_0(\mathbb{R}^d)$ takes place by a bounded sequence.

Since any Banach-Gelfand triple homomorphism preserves this property (by definition) one can reduce many problems to w^* -dense subsets of $(\mathbf{S}_0(\mathbb{R}^d), \|\cdot\|_{\mathbf{S}_0})$. Let us look at some concrete examples: Test-functions, finite discrete measures $\mu = \sum_i c_i \delta_{t_i}$, trigonometric polynomials

 $q(t) = \sum_{i} a_i e^{2\pi i \omega_i t}$, or discrete AND periodic measures (this class is invariant under the generalized Fourier transform and can be realized computationally using the FFT).



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The w^* - topology: approximation strategies

- How to approximate general distributions by test functions: Regularization procedures via product convolution operators, $h_{\alpha}(g_{\beta} * \sigma) \rightarrow \sigma$ or TF-localization operators: multiply the STFT with a 2D-summability kernel before resynthesis (e.g. partial sums for Hermite expansion);
- how to approximate an L¹-Fourier transform by test functions: and classical summability
- how to approximate a test function by a finite disrete sequence using quasi-interpolation (N. Kaiblinger):
 Q_Ψf(x) = ∑_i f(x_i)ψ_i(x).

