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A CONTRIBUTION TO THE FOUNDATIONS OF NETWORK THEORY USING THE DISTRIBUTION THEORY

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In recent years there have appeared many publications concerning the formation of the foundations of Network Theory. In the papers by R. W. Newcomb [1], that by A. H. Zemanian [2] and M. R. Wohlers, E. J. Beltrami [3], the fundamental concepts of Network Theory were formulated by means of the Theory of distributions.

As a principal theorem in this theory it was proved that every single-valued, linear, continuous and time-invariant system T is convolutional, i.e.

$$T[x] = x * f$$

for some distribution f and for all distributions x. On the other hand, in the book by V. Doležal [4] there are considered operators constructed over the space of distributions which are not time-invariant. In this paper we shall give an analogous theorem about the meaning of convolution for a single-valued, linear and continuous system T which is not time-invariant, i.e.

$$T[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a$$

for some set $\{f_a\}$ of distributions depending on a parameter a and for all distributions x.

While a single-valued, linear, continuous and time-invariant system is determined by the response $f = T[\delta]$ to the Dirac's distribution $\delta = \delta_0$, it turns out that a system, which is not time-invariant, is determined by responses $f_a = T[\delta_a]$ to the shifted Dirac's distributions δ_a .

1. INTRODUCTION

The notation and terminology of the book [4] will, with a few minor exceptions, be used throughout. Let K denote the set of all infinitely differentiable real functions

 $\varphi(t)$ on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$ such that every $\varphi(t)$ vanishes identically outside some finite interval (which in general depends on φ). Further let D be the corresponding space of all distributions over K — that is the space of all linear and continuous functionals on K. We shall write $\langle f, \varphi \rangle$ as the value of the functional $f \in D$ for $\varphi \in K$.

The linear combination, product of a distribution with an infinitely differentiable function (see p. 40 in [4]), n-th distributional derivative (see p. 45 in [4]) and a shifted distribution (see p. 51 in [4]) will be denoted by $\alpha f + \beta g$, $\alpha(t) f$, $f^{(n)}$ and $P_b[f]$, respectively. Clearly the set **D** is a linear space (see p. 128 in [4]).

Let $f_n \in \mathbf{D}$, n = 1, 2, ... be a sequence of distributions. If $f \in \mathbf{D}$ then the symbol $f_n \to f$ means that the sequence converges to the distribution f (see p. 43 in [4]). Let us recall the theorem on completeness of the space \mathbf{D} .

Lemma 1.1. Let $f_n \in \mathbf{D}$, n = 1, 2, ... be a sequence of distributions. If $\langle f_n, \varphi \rangle$, n = 1, 2, ... is a convergent sequence of real numbers for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, then there exists (a unique) distribution $f \in \mathbf{D}$ such that $f_n \to f$.

Proof see p. 457 in [5].

Definition 1.1. Let $n \ge 0$ be an integer, and let \mathbf{D}_n be the set of all distributions having the following property: if $f \in \mathbf{D}_n$, then there exists a real continuous function z(t) on $(-\infty, +\infty)$ such that $f = z^{(n)}$, i.e.

$$\langle f, \varphi \rangle = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} z(t) \, \varphi^{(n)}(t) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

for every $\varphi \in K$. Let us also remark that in this article x(t) for $x \in \mathbf{D}_0$ always means a continuous function on $(-\infty, +\infty)$. Furthermore, let $\mathbf{D}_* = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \mathbf{D}_n$. Obviously, $\mathbf{D}_n(n'=0,1,\ldots)$ and \mathbf{D}_* are linear subspaces of \mathbf{D} .

Lemma 1.2. Let $f \in \mathbf{D}$; then there is a sequence $f_n \in \mathbf{D}_*$, n = 1, 2, ... such that $f_n \to f$.

Proof. Let $\alpha_n(t)$, n=1,2,... be a sequence of infinitely differentiable functions with properties $\alpha_n(t)=1$ for $-n \le t \le n$, $0 < \alpha_n(t) < 1$ for n < t < n+1 and -n-1 < t < -n, $\alpha_n(t)=0$ for $t \ge n+1$ and $t \le -n-1$. The rest of the proof is analogous to that of Lemma 5.4.5 in [4]. We get $\alpha_n f \in \mathbf{D}_*$ and $\alpha_n f \to f$.

If $f, g \in \mathbf{D}$ and b is a real number, then the equality f = g on the interval $(-\infty, b)$ means that f - g = 0 on $(-\infty, b)$ (see p. 41 in [4]).

From Lemma 3.1.2 [4] it follows that:

Lemma 1.3. Let b be a real number, $f \in \mathbf{D}$; then f = 0 on the interval $(-\infty, b)$ if and only if $\langle f, \varphi \rangle = 0$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$ with $\varphi(t) = 0$ on the interval $(c, +\infty)$, where c < b.

Definition 1.2. Let $\{f_a\}$ be a set of distributions from **D** depending on a parameter a, where a is an arbitrary real number. The distribution $g_a \in \mathbf{D}$ will be called the *partial derivative* of f_a with respect to the parameter a, if

$$\langle g_a, \varphi \rangle = \lim_{h \to 0} \left\langle \frac{f_{a+h} - f_a}{h}, \varphi \right\rangle$$

for every $\varphi \in K$. We shall write $g_a = \partial f_a / \partial a$.

Lemma 1.4. Let $f_a \in \mathbf{D}$ for an arbitrary real number a; then the partial derivative $\partial f_a | \partial a$ exists if and only if the function $\psi(t)$ has a derivative $\psi'(t)$ on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Proof follows from the equation

$$\left\langle \frac{f_{a+h}-f_a}{h}, \varphi \right\rangle = \frac{\psi(a+h)-\psi(a)}{h} \quad (h \neq 0).$$

Note. Clearly

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial a}, \varphi \right\rangle = \psi'(a)$$

for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Lemma 1.5. Let $f_a \in \mathbf{D}$ for an arbitrary real number a; then $g_a = \partial f_a / \partial a$ if and only if

$$(a_n - a)^{-1} (f_{a_n} - f_a) \to g_a$$

for all convergent sequences of real numbers $a_n \to a$ $(a_n \neq a)$, n = 1, 2, ...

Proof follows immediately from Lemma 1.4.

Definition 1.3. Let $\{f_a\}$ be a set of distributions from **D** depending on a parameter a, where a is an arbitrary real number. If $n \ge 0$ is an integer, then the distribution $\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n \in \mathbf{D}$ will be called the n-th partial derivative of f_a with respect to the parameter a, if

$$\frac{\partial^0 f_a}{\partial a^0} = f_a, \quad \frac{\partial^1 f_a}{\partial a^1} = \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial a}, \quad \frac{\partial^n f_a}{\partial a^n} = \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \left(\frac{\partial^{n-1} f_a}{\partial a^{n-1}} \right) \quad (n \ge 2).$$

Lemma 1.6. Let $f_a \in \mathbf{D}$ for an arbitrary real number a. If $n \geq 0$ is an integer, then the n-th partial derivative $\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n$ exists if and only if the function $\psi(t)$ has an n-th derivative $\psi^{(n)}(t)$ on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Proof follows from Lemma 1.4.

Note. Evidently

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial^n f_a}{\partial a^n}, \varphi \right\rangle = \psi^{(n)}(a)$$

for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Example. Let δ_a be the Dirac distribution (a being a real number). It is clear that $\psi(a) = \langle \delta_a, \varphi \rangle = \varphi(a)$ for every $\varphi \in K$ (see p. 40 in [4]). From Lemma 1.6 it follows that

(1.1)
$$\frac{\partial^n \delta_a}{\partial a^n} = (-1)^n \, \delta_a^{(n)}$$

for n = 0, 1, ...

Definition 1.4. Let a_i , i=0,1,...,m; ξ_i , i=1,2,...,m be real numbers, where $a_{i-1} \leq a_i$ and $a_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq a_i$ for i=1,2,...,m. The set $\mathcal{D} = \{a_0,a_1,...,a_m; \xi_1,\xi_2,...,\xi_m\}$ will be called a *division* (partial and with the points ξ_i) of the interval $(-\infty,+\infty)$. Let us put

$$\mu(\mathcal{D}) = \max_{i=1,2,\ldots,m} (a_i - a_{i-1}), \quad l(\mathcal{D}) = a_0 \quad \text{and} \quad r(\mathcal{D}) = a_m.$$

Let $\{f_a\}$ be a set of distributions from **D** depending on a parameter a, where a is an arbitrary real number. The distribution

$$s(\mathscr{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_i - a_{i-1}) f_{\xi_i}$$

will be called the *integral sum* of $\{f_a\}$ with respect to the division \mathcal{D} .

The sequence \mathscr{D}_n , $n=1,2,\ldots$ of divisions of the interval $(-\infty,+\infty)$ will be called the zero sequence, if $\mu(\mathscr{D}_n) \to 0$, $\mathfrak{l}(\mathscr{D}_n) \to -\infty$ and $\mathfrak{r}(\mathscr{D}_n) \to +\infty$. Let $\{f_a\}$ be a set of distributions from **D** depending on a parameter a, where a is an arbitrary real number. The distribution $g \in \mathbf{D}$ will be called the *integral* of $\{f_a\}$, if $\mathfrak{s}(\mathscr{D}_n) \to g$ for an arbitrary zero sequence of divisions of the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$. We shall write $g = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_a \, da$.

Lemma 1.7. Let $f_a \in \mathbf{D}$ for an arbitrary real number a. If ψ is a continuous function on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$ and ψ vanishes identically outside some finite interval for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$, then there exists the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_a da$.

Proof. Let \mathcal{D}_n , n = 1, 2, ... be an arbitrary zero sequence of divisions of $(-\infty, +\infty)$. If we put $g_n = s(\mathcal{D}_n) = \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i - a_{i-1}) f_{\xi_i}$, then we get

(1.2)
$$\langle g_n, \varphi \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \psi(\xi_i) \left(a_i - a_{i-1} \right)$$

for $\varphi \in K$. By the assumption there exist real numbers c, d such that $\psi(t) = 0$ on $(-\infty, c) \cup (d, +\infty)$. Thus there exists a positive integer n_0 such that $l(\mathcal{D}_n) \leq c$ and $r(\mathcal{D}_n) \geq d$ for every positive integer $n > n_0$. From (1.2) it follows that

$$\langle g_n, \varphi \rangle \to \int_c^d \psi(a) \, \mathrm{d}a = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi(a) \, \mathrm{d}a.$$

According to Lemma 1.1 there exists a distribution $g \in \mathbf{D}$ such that $g_n \to g$. Hence $\langle g, \varphi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi(a) \, \mathrm{d}a$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$. Consequently, the distribution g does not depend on the choice of the zero sequence \mathcal{D}_n , $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ of divisions. Therefore $g = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_a \, \mathrm{d}a$.

Note. Clearly

$$\left\langle \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f_a \, \mathrm{d}a, \, \varphi \right\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left\langle f_a, \, \varphi \right\rangle \, \mathrm{d}a$$

for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$.

Example. We have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta_a \, \mathrm{d}a = 1 \,,$$

where $\langle 1, \varphi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \varphi(t) dt$ for every $\varphi \in K$.

Let \mathscr{F} be the set of all distributions $\{f_a\}$ from D depending on a parameter a (where a is an arbitrary real number) such that $\psi \in K$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$.

Theorem 1.1. Let $f_a \in \mathbf{D}$ for an arbitrary real number a. The necessary and sufficient condition that $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ is the fulfillment of conditions:

- 1. The partial derivative $\partial^n f_a / \partial a^n$ exists for every positive integer n.
- 2. $\alpha_n f_{a_n} \to 0$ for every two sequences of real numbers α_n , a_n , $|a_n| \to +\infty$, n = 1, 2, ...

Proof. By Lemma 1.6 condition 1 is satisfied if and only if the function ψ is infinitely differentiable on the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$. We shall prove that condition 2 is satisfied if and only if the function ψ vanishes identically outside some finite interval for every $\varphi \in K$.

Let ψ vanish identically outside some finite interval for every $\varphi \in K$. Let α_n , a_n , n = 1, 2, ... be two sequences of real numbers and let $|a_n| \to +\infty$. Then $\langle \alpha_n f_{a_n}, \varphi \rangle = \alpha_n \langle f_{a_n}, \varphi \rangle = \alpha_n \psi(a_n) \to 0$ for every $\varphi \in K$. Hence $\alpha_n f_{a_n} \to 0$.

Let now $\alpha_n f_{a_n} \to 0$ for every two sequences of real numbers α_n , a_n , $|a_n| \to +\infty$, n = 1, 2, ... If there exists $\varphi \in K$ such that the corresponding function ψ does not vanish identically outside some finite interval, then there exists a sequence of real

numbers a_n , $|a_n| \to +\infty$, n=1,2,... such that $\psi(a_n) \neq 0$. Put $\alpha_n^{-1} = \psi(a_n)$. Hence $\langle \alpha_n f_{a_n}, \varphi \rangle = \alpha_n \langle f_{a_n}, \varphi \rangle = \alpha_n \psi(a_n) = 1 \to 0$, which is a contradiction. The Theorem is thus proved.

Theorem 1.2. Let $\{f_a\}, \{g_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$.

- 1. If α , β are real numbers, then $\{\alpha f_a, + \beta g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 2. If n is a positive integer, then $\{\partial^n f_a / \partial a^n\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 3. If b is a real number, then $\{h_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$, where $h_a = P_b[f_a]$.
- 4. If b is a real number, then $\{h_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$, where $h_a = f_{a-b}$.

Proof. Put $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ and $\chi(a) = \langle g_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$. Evidently $\psi, \chi \in K$.

- 1. If α , β are real numbers, then $\omega(a) = \langle \alpha f_a + \beta g_a, \varphi \rangle = \alpha \psi(a) + \beta \chi(a)$. Thus $\omega = \alpha \psi + \beta \chi \in K$. Hence $\{\alpha f_a + \beta g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 2. If *n* is a positive integer, then from Lemma 1.6 it follows that $\omega(a) = \langle \partial^n f_a | \partial a^n, \varphi \rangle = \psi^{(n)}(a)$. Thus $\omega = \psi^{(n)} \in K$. Hence $\{\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n\} \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 3. If b is a real number, then $\omega(a) = \langle h_a, \varphi \rangle = \langle P_b[f_a], \varphi \rangle = \langle f_a, \varphi(t+b) \rangle$. Clearly $\varphi(t+b) \in K$. Thus, we have $\omega \in K$. Hence $\{h_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$.
- 4. If b is a real number, then $\omega(a) = \langle h_a, \varphi \rangle = \langle f_{a-b}, \varphi \rangle = \psi(a-b)$. Thus $\omega \in K$. Hence $\{h_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$.

Theorem 1.3. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbf{D}_0$; then there exists the integral

$$g = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \alpha(a) f_a \, \mathrm{d}a$$

and for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$ we have

$$\langle g, \varphi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \alpha(a) \, \psi(a) \, \mathrm{d}a \,,$$

where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$.

Proof follows from Lemma 1.7 because $\langle \alpha(a) f_a, \varphi \rangle = \alpha(a) \psi(a)$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$.

Example. Evidently $\{\delta_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$ and for every $\alpha \in \mathbf{D}_0$ we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \alpha(a) \, \delta_a \, \mathrm{d}a = \alpha \, .$$

Theorem 2.1. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F} \text{ and } x \in D$; then there is a unique distribution $y \in D$ such that

$$(2.1) \langle y, \varphi \rangle = \langle x, \psi \rangle$$

for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Proof. 1. Let $x \in \mathbf{D}_n$ $(n \ge 0)$; then there exists a distribution $z \in \mathbf{D}_0$ such that $z^{(n)} = x$. By Theorem 1.2 it follows that $\{\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n\} \in \mathscr{F}$. According to Theorem 1.3 there exists a distribution $y = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} z(a) \left(\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n\right) da$. We have therefore $\langle y, \varphi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \chi(a) da$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\chi(a) = \langle (-1)^n z(a) \left(\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n\right), \varphi \rangle = (-1)^n z(a) \langle (\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n), \varphi \rangle = (-1)^n z(a) \psi^{(n)}(a)$. Hence $\langle y, \varphi \rangle = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} z(a) \cdot \psi^{(n)}(a) da = \langle z, (-1)^n \psi^{(n)} \rangle = \langle z^{(n)}, \psi \rangle = \langle x, \psi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$.

- 2. Let $x \in \mathbf{D}$; then according to Lemma 1.2 there is a sequence $x_n \in \mathbf{D}_*$, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ such that $x_n \to x$. By the first part of the proof there exist $y_n \in \mathbf{D}$ such that $\langle y_n, \varphi \rangle = \langle x_n, \psi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$. However, since $\psi \in \mathbf{K}$, then $\langle y_n, \varphi \rangle = \langle x_n, \psi \rangle \to \langle x, \psi \rangle$. By Lemma 1.1 there exists a distribution $y \in \mathbf{D}$ such that $\langle y_n, \varphi \rangle \to \langle y, \varphi \rangle$. Hence $\langle y, \varphi \rangle = \langle x, \psi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$.
 - 3. The uniqueness of distribution y follows from (2.1)

Definition 2.1. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F} \text{ and } x \in \mathbf{D}$; then the distribution y (see Theorem 2.1) will be denoted by $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$.

Note. Clearly

(2.2)
$$\left\langle \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a, \, \varphi \right\rangle = \langle x, \psi \rangle$$

for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a.

Examples. 1. Evidently

(2.3)
$$x = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a) da$$

for every $x \in \mathbf{D}$. The proof follows from $\varphi(a) = \langle \delta_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$ and for every real number a.

2. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$. Using (2.2) we have $\langle \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (\delta_b, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a, \, \varphi \rangle = \langle \delta_b, \psi \rangle = \psi(b) = \langle f_b, \, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$ and for every real number b. Thus

$$f_b = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (\delta_b, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a \, .$$

Theorem 2.2. If α , β are real numbers, $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x, y \in \mathbf{D}$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (\alpha x + \beta y, f_a) da = \alpha \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da + \beta \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (y, f_a) da.$$

Proof. Put $w = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (\alpha x + \beta y, f_a) da$, $u = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$ and $v = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (y, f_a) da$. Then $\langle w, \varphi \rangle = \langle \alpha x + \beta y, \psi \rangle = \alpha \langle x, \psi \rangle + \beta \langle y, \psi \rangle = \alpha \langle u, \varphi \rangle + \beta \langle v, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a. Hence $w = \alpha u + \beta v$ which completes the proof.

Theorem 2.3. If α , β are real numbers, $\{f_a\}$, $\{g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in \mathbf{D}$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \alpha f_a + \beta g_a) da = \alpha \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da + \beta \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) da.$$

Proof. According to Theorem 1.2, $\{\alpha f_a + \beta g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$. Denote $w = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \alpha f_a + \beta g_a) \, da$, $u = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, da$ and $v = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) \, da$. Then $\langle w, \varphi \rangle = \langle x, \alpha \psi + \beta \chi \rangle = \alpha \langle x, \psi \rangle + \beta \langle x, \chi \rangle = \alpha \langle u, \varphi \rangle + \beta \langle v, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in \mathbf{K}$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ and $\chi(a) = \langle g_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a. Hence $w = \alpha u + \beta v$ which completes the proof.

Theorem 2.4. If $x, x_n \in \mathbf{D}$, $n = 1, 2, ..., x_n \to x$ and $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x_n, f_a) da \to \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da.$$

Proof. Denote $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$ and $y_n = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x_n, f_a) da$ for $n \ge 1, 2, ...$ Then $\langle y_n, \varphi \rangle = \langle x_n, \psi \rangle \to \langle x, \psi \rangle = \langle y, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) \ge \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a. We have $y_n \to y$, q.e.d.

Theorem 2.5. If $x \in \mathbf{D}$ and $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \! \left(x^{(n)}, f_a \right) \mathrm{d} a \, = \, (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \! \left(x, \frac{\partial^n f_a}{\partial a^n} \right) \mathrm{d} a \, .$$

Proof. By Theorem 1.2 we have $\{\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n\} \in \mathcal{F}$. Put $u = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x t^n), f_a da$ and $v = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \partial^n f_a | \partial a^n) da$. Then $\langle u, \varphi \rangle = \langle x^{(n)}, \psi \rangle = \langle x, (-1)^n \psi^{(n)} \rangle \not= (-1)^n \cdot \langle x, \psi^{(n)} \rangle = (-1)^n \langle v, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ and $\psi^{(n)}(a) = \langle \partial^n f_a | \partial a^n, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a. Therefore $u = (-1)^n v$, q.e.d.

Example. We have

$$x^{(n)} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a^{(n)}) da$$

for every $x \in \mathbf{D}$. By (2.3), Theorem 2.5, Theorem 2.3 and (1.1),

$$x^{(n)} = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x^{(n)}, \delta_a) da = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(x, \frac{\partial^n \delta_a}{\partial a^n} \right) da = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a^{(n)}) da.$$

Theorem 2.6. If b is a real number, $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in \mathbf{D}$, then

$$P_b[y] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) \, \mathrm{d}a \,,$$

where $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$ and $g_a = P_b[f_a]$

Proof. According to Theorem 1.2, $\{g_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$. Then $\langle P_b[y], \varphi \rangle = \langle y, \varphi(t+b) \rangle = \langle x, \chi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\chi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi(t+b) \rangle = \langle P_b[f_a], \varphi \rangle = \langle g_a, \varphi \rangle$. Hence it follows that $P_b[y] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) \, da$. The theorem is proved.

Example. From Theorem 2.6 and (2.3) it follows that

$$P_b[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_{a+b}) \, \mathrm{d}a$$

for every $x \in \mathbf{D}$ and for an arbitrary real number b.

Theorem 2.7. If b is a real number, $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $x \in D$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (P_b[x], f_{a-b}) da.$$

Proof. By Theorem 1.2, $\{g_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$, where $g_a = f_{a-b}$. Denote $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a$ and $z = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (P_b[x], f_{a-b}) \, \mathrm{d}a$. Then $\langle y, \varphi \rangle = \langle x, \psi \rangle = \langle P_b[x], \psi(t-b) \rangle = \langle P_b[x], \chi \rangle = \langle z, \varphi \rangle$ for every $\varphi \in K$, where $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle$ and $\chi(a) = \psi(a-b) = \langle f_{a-b}, \varphi \rangle$ for every real number a. Thus y = z, q.e.d.

Theorem 2.8. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$ and let f_a vanish on $(-\infty, a)$ for every real number a. If b is a real number, $x \in \mathbf{D}$ and x vanishes on $(-\infty, b)$, then $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$ vanishes on $(-\infty, b)$.

Proof. Let $\varphi \in K$. If $\varphi(t) = 0$ on $(c, +\infty)$, where c < b, then by Lemma 1.3 it follows that $\psi(a) = \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle = 0$ for a > c. Since $\psi(t) = 0$ on $(c, +\infty)$, we have $\langle x, \psi \rangle = 0$. If we put $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da$, then, by (2.1), $\langle y, \varphi \rangle = 0$. From Lemma 1.3 it follows that y vanishes on $(-\infty, b)$.

3. LINEAR AND CONTINUOUS OPERATORS

Let **P** be a non-empty subset of the set **D** of all distributions. A mapping T of **P** into **D** (i.e. a rule whereby to each $x \in P$ a unique distribution $T[x] \in D$ is assigned) will be called the *operator* in **P**. The set **P** will be termed the *domain* of the operator T.

Definition 3.1. Let P be a non-empty subset of D. An operator T on P will be called *continuous* if the following implication holds:

(3.1) If
$$x, x_n \in \mathbf{P}$$
, $n = 1, 2, ..., x_n \to x$, then $T[x_n] \to T[x]$.

Definition 3.2. Let P be a linear subspace of D. An operator T on P will be called *linear* if the following condition holds:

(3.2) If α , β are real numbers and $x, y \in \mathbf{P}$, then $T[\alpha x + \beta y] = \alpha T[x] + \beta T[y]$. Note. From Definition 3.2 it follows that $O \in \mathbf{P}$ and T[O] = O.

Theorem 3.1. Let T be a linear and continuous operator on a linear subspace $\mathbf{P} \subset \mathbf{D}$. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\partial^n f_a / \partial a^n \in \mathbf{P}$ for every $n=0,1,2,\ldots$ and for every real number a. Then $\{g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\partial^n g_a / \partial a^n = T[\partial^n f_a / \partial a^n]$, where $g_a = T[f_a]$.

Proof. Let $a_n \to a$ $(a_n \neq a)$, n = 1, 2, ... be a convergent sequence of real numbers. By Lemma 1.5 we have

$$(a_n - a)^{-1} (f_{a_n} - f_a) \rightarrow \frac{\partial f_a}{\partial a}.$$

From this and (3.1), (3.2) it follows that $(a_n-a)^{-1}(g_{a_n}-g_a)=(a_n-a)^{-1}$. $(T[f_{a_n}]-T[f_a])=T[(a_n-a)^{-1}(f_{a_n}-f_a)]\to T[\partial f_a/\partial a]$, where $g_a=T[f_a]$. According to Lemma 1.5 there exists $\partial g_a/\partial a$ and $\partial g_a/\partial a=T[\partial f_a/\partial a]$. Similarly we obtain that there exists $\partial^n g_a/\partial a^n$ and $\partial^n g_a/\partial a^n=T[\partial^n f_a/\partial a^n]$ for every $n=2,3,\ldots$

Let a_n , α_n , n=1,2,... be two sequences of real numbers and let $|a_n| \to +\infty$. By Theorem 1.1 we have $\alpha_n f_{a_n} \to 0$. Then it follows from (3.1) and (3.2) that $\alpha_n g_n = \alpha_n T[f_{a_n}] = T[\alpha_n f_{a_n}] \to 0$. Finally from Theorem 1.1 it follows that $\{g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

Theorem 3.2. Let T be a linear and continuous operator on a linear subspace $\mathbf{P} \subset \mathbf{D}$. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$ and $\partial^n f_a / \partial a^n \in \mathbf{P}$ for every $n=0,1,2,\ldots$ and for every real number a. If $x \in \mathbf{D}_0$ and $y \in \mathbf{P}$, where $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(a) f_a \, da$, then $T[y] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(a) g_a \, da$, where $g_a = T[f_a]$.

Proof. According to Theorem 3.1, $\{g_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$. By Theorem 1.3 there exists $u = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(a) g_a da$. Let \mathscr{D} be an arbitrary division of the interval $(-\infty, +\infty)$. Using the notation of Definition 1.4 we have for the integral sums $s_1(\mathscr{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (a_i - a_{i-1})$.

 $x(\xi_i)f_{\xi_i}, \ s_2(\mathcal{D}) = \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i - a_{i-1}) \ x(\xi_i) \ g_{\xi_i}. \text{ From (3.2) it follows that } T[s_1(\mathcal{D})] = T[\sum_{i=1}^m (a_i - a_{i-1}) \ x(\xi_i) f_{\xi_i}] = \sum_{i=1}^m (a_i - a_{i-1}) \ x(\xi_i) \ T[f_{\xi_i}] = s_2(\mathcal{D}). \text{ If } \{\mathcal{D}_n\} \text{ is an arbitrary zero sequence of divisions of the interval } (-\infty, +\infty), \text{ then } s_1(\mathcal{D}_n) \to y \text{ and } s_2(\mathcal{D}_n) \to u. \text{ By (3.1) we have } s_2(\mathcal{D}_n) = T[s_1(\mathcal{D}_n)] \to T[y]. \text{ Hence } u = T[y], \text{ q.e.d.}$

Theorem 3.3. Let T be a linear and continuous operator on a linear subspace $\mathbf{P} \subset \mathbf{D}$. Let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$ and $\partial^n f_a | \partial a^n \in \mathbf{P}$ for every n = 0, 1, 2, ... and for every real number a. If $x \in \mathbf{D}_*$ and $y \in \mathbf{P}$, where $y = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a$, then $T[y] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) \, \mathrm{d}a$, where $g_a = T[f_a]$.

Proof. By Theorem 3.1 we have $\{g_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$. Thus, $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) da$ exists. From the proof of Theorem 2.1 it follows that there exists $z \in \mathbf{D}_0$ ($z^{(n)} = x$) such that $y = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} z(a) \left(\partial^n f_a \middle| \partial a^n \right) da$. Using Theorem 1.2, Theorem 3.1, Theorem 3.2, (3.2) and Theorem 2.1 we get $T[y] = (-1)^n \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} z(a) \left(\partial^n g_a \middle| \partial a^n \right) da = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, g_a) da$.

Note. If the operator T on a non-empty subset $P \subset D$ has the form

$$T[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a \quad (x \in \mathbf{P})$$

and if $\delta_a \in \mathbf{P}$ for every real number a, then from (2.4) it follows that $f_a = T[\delta_a]$.

Theorem 3.4. Let $P \subset D_*$ be a linear subspace and let $\delta_a^{(n)} \in P$ for every $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ and for every real number a. An operator T on P is linear and continuous if and only if it has the form

(3.3)
$$T[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da \quad (x \in \mathbf{P})$$

and $f_a = T[\delta_a]$.

Proof follows from Theorem 2.2, Theorem 2.4, (2.3), Theorem 3.3 and (2.4).

Theorem 3.5. Let $P(D_* \subset P \subset D)$ be a linear space. An operator T on P is linear and continuous if and only if it has the form

(3.3)
$$T[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) da \quad (x \in \mathbf{P})$$

and $f_a = T[\delta_a]$.

Proof. If the operator T has the form (3.3), then by Theorem 2.2 and Theorem 2.4 it is linear and continuous. Conversely, let T be a linear and continuous operator on P. Since $\delta_a^{(n)} \in D_*$ (D_* is a linear space) for every $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ and for every real

number a, then by Theorem 3.4 the operator T has the form (3.3) for every $x \in \mathbf{D}_*$. If $x \in \mathbf{P}$ then according to Lemma 1.2 there is a sequence $x_n \in \mathbf{D}_*$, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ such that $x_n \to x$. From (3.1) we have $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x_n, f_a) da = T[x_n] \to T[x]$. Finally from Theorem 2.4 it follows that the formula (3.3) holds for every $x \in \mathbf{P}$. This completes the proof.

Corollary. If T_1, T_2 are two linear and continuous operators on \mathbf{D} and $T_1[x] = T_2[x]$ for every $x \in \mathbf{D}_*$, then $T_1[x] = T_2[x]$ for every $x \in \mathbf{D}$.

Example. Let $\alpha(t)$ be a real function having all derivatives in $(-\infty, +\infty)$; then

$$\alpha x = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \alpha(a) \, \delta_a) \, \mathrm{d}a$$

for every $x \in \mathbf{D}$, because $\alpha(t) \delta_a = \alpha(a) \delta_a$.

Note. Let $f \in \mathbf{D}$. If f vanishes outside some finite interval, then the operator

$$T[x] = x * f \quad (x \in \mathbf{D})$$

is linear and continuous (see p. 137 in [5]). From Theorem 3.5 it follows that

$$T[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_a) \, \mathrm{d}a \; , \quad (x \in \mathbf{D}) \; ,$$

where $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$ and $f_a = T[\delta_a] = \delta_a * f = P_a[f]$ for every real number a.

Definition 3.3. A non-empty subset $P \subset D$ will be called *time-invariant*, if the following implication holds for every real number b:

If
$$x \in \mathbf{P}$$
, then $P_b[x] \in \mathbf{P}$.

Let P be a time-invariant subset of D. An operator T on P will be called *time-invariant* if the condition

$$(3.4) T[P_b[x]] = P_b[T[x]]$$

holds for every real number b and for every $x \in P$.

Example. If we put

$$T_1[x] = x' + x = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a' + \delta_a) da, \quad (x \in \mathbf{D})$$

then clearly the operator T_1 is time-invariant. On the other hand, it is obvious that the operator T_2 given by the formula

$$T_2[x] = tx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, a\delta_a) da \quad (x \in \mathbf{D})$$

is not time-invariant.

Theorem 3.6. Let $P \subset D$ be a time-invariant linear subspace and let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$.

- 1. If $f_a = P_a[f]$ for some $f \in \mathbf{D}$, then the operator T on \mathbf{P} given by (3.3) is time-invariant.
- 2. If the operator T on P given by (3.3) is time-invariant and $\delta \in P$, then $f_a = P_a[f]$, where $f = T[\delta]$.
- Proof. 1. If $f_a = P_a[f]$ for some $f \in \mathbf{D}$, then $f_{a+b} = P_b[f_a]$ for every real number b. From Theorem 2.6, Theorem 2.7 and (3.3) it follows that $T[P_b[x]] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (P_b[x], f_a)$. d $a = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, f_{a+b}) da = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, P_b[f_a]) da = P_b[T[x]]$ for every $x \in \mathbf{P}$. Thus, by Definition 3.3, the operator T is time-invariant.
- 2. If the operator T on P given by (3.3) is time-invariant and $\delta \in P$, then from (3.4) it follows that $T[\delta_a] = T[P_a[\delta]] = P_a[T[\delta]] = P_a[f]$, where $f = T[\delta]$. Hence, Theorem 3.6 is proved.

Definition 3.4. Let P be a non-empty subset of D. An operator T on P will be called *causal*, if for every pair of distributions $x, y \in P$, the following implication holds:

(3.5) If x = y on the interval $(-\infty, b)$, then T[x] = T[y] on the same interval.

Example. If we put

$$T_{\mathbf{i}}[x] = x'' = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a'') da \quad (x \in \mathbf{D}),$$

then the operator T_1 is causal. On the other hand, the operator T_2 , given by

$$T_2[x] = x + P_{-1}[x] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (x, \delta_a + \delta_{a-1}) da \quad (x \in \mathbf{D}),$$

is evidently not causal.

Lemma 3.1. Let $P \subset D$ be a linear subspace. A linear operator T on P is causal if and only if the following implication holds:

If $x \in \mathbf{P}$ vanishes on the interval $(-\infty, b)$, then T[x] vanishes on the same interval.

Proof. The necessity is obvious. In order to prove the sufficiency, observe that x = y on the interval $(-\infty, b)$ with $x, y \in P$ implies that x - y vanishes on the

interval $(-\infty, b)$. By supposition T[x - y] vanishes on the interval $(-\infty, b)$. From (3.2) it follows that T[x] = T[y] on the interval $(-\infty, b)$. Hence according to (3.5) the operator T is causal.

Theorem 3.7. Let $P \subset D$ be a linear subspace and let $\{f_a\} \in \mathscr{F}$.

- 1. If f_a vanishes on $(-\infty, a)$ for every real number a, then the operator T on P given by (3.3) is causal.
- 2. If the operator T on P given by (3.3) is causal and $\delta_a \in P$ for every real number a, then f_a vanishes on $(-\infty, a)$.

Proof follows from Theorem 2.8 and Lemma 3.1.

Theorem 3.8. Let $P \subset D$ be a time-invariant linear subspace and let $\{f_a\} \in \mathcal{F}$.

- 1. If $f_a = P_a[f]$ for some $f \in \mathbf{D}$, where f vanishes on $(-\infty, 0)$, then the operator T on \mathbf{P} given by (3.3) is time-invariant and causal.
- 2. If the operator T on P given by (3.3) is time-invariant and causal, and if $\delta \in P$, then $f_a = P_a[f]$, where f vanishes on $(-\infty, 0)$ and $f = T[\delta]$.

Proof follows from Theorem 3.7 and Theorem 3.6.

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