

Mathematical Foundations of Infinite-Dimensional Statistical Models:

4.1 Definitions and Basic Approximation Theory

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Notation and Preliminaries

- ▶ $L_p(A), L_\infty(A)$
- ▶ $C(A)$ denotes the space of continuous functions on A
- ▶ $C_u(A)$ denotes the space of uniformly continuous functions on A .
- ▶ $C_{per}(A)$ denotes the space of continuous periodic functions on A ,
 $f(a)=f(b)$, when A is a half-open bounded interval with endpoints a, b
- ▶ The L_p - Sobolev space of order $m \in \mathbb{N}$

$$H_p^m(A) = \{f \in L^p : D^j f \in L^p \forall j = 1, \dots, m : \|f\|_{H_p^m(A)} \equiv \|f\|_p + \|D^m f\|_p < \infty\}$$

Notation and Preliminaries : Weak derivative

- ▶ For $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ an interval, a function $f \in L^p(A)$ is said to be weakly differentiable if there exists a locally integrable function Df – the weak derivative of f – such that

$$\int_A f(u)\phi'(u)du = - \int_A Df(u)\phi(u)du$$

for every infinitely differentiable function ϕ of compact support in the interior of A .

- ▶ The L_p - Sobolev space of order $m \in \mathbb{N}$

$$H_p^m(A) = \{f \in L^p : D^j f \in L^p \forall j = 1, \dots, m : \|f\|_{H_p^m(A)} \equiv \|f\|_p + \|D^m f\|_p < \infty\}$$

Notation and Preliminaries

- ▶ $C^m(A)$,

$$C^m(A) = \{f^{(j)} \in C_u(A) : \forall j = 1, \dots, m : \|f\|_{C^m(A)} \equiv \|f\|_\infty + \|f^{(m)}\|_p < \infty\}$$

- ▶ $C^\infty(A)$ denotes the space of infinitely differentiable functions defined on A
- ▶ $C_0^\infty(A)$ is the subspace which consists of all $\phi \in C^\infty(A)$ that have compact support in the interior of A .
- ▶ Schwartz space $S(\mathbb{R})$ consists of all functions $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$ such that all derivatives $f^{(\alpha)}$, $\alpha \geq 0$, exist and decay at $\pm\infty$ faster than any inverse polynomial.

Notation and Preliminaries : Convolution

- ▶ For measurable functions f, g , defined on \mathbb{R} , their convolution is

$$f * g(x) \equiv \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x-y)g(y)dy, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

- ▶ If $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}), g \in L^q(\mathbb{R}), 1 \leq p, q \leq \infty$ such that $1/p + 1/q = 1$
then, $f * g \in C(\mathbb{R})$ and $\|f * g\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_q$ (Hölder's inequality)
- ▶ If $f \in L^p(\mathbb{R}), g \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$
then, $f * g$ is well defined a.e., and $\|f * g\|_p \leq \|f\|_p \|g\|_1$ (Minkowski's inequality)
- ▶ If $f \in C(\mathbb{R}), g \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$
then, $f * g$ is defined everywhere, and $f * g \in C(\mathbb{R})$

Notation and Preliminaries : Convolution

- ▶ We can also define

$$f * \mu(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x - y) d\mu(y), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

for $\mu \in M(\mathbb{R})$, where $M(\mathbb{R})$ denotes the spaces of finite signed measures on \mathbb{R} , and one has likewise $\|f * \mu\|_p \leq \|f\|_p |\mu|(\mathbb{R})$, where $|\mu|$ is the total variation measure of μ .

Notation and Preliminaries : Fourier transform

- ▶ For a function $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, Fourier transform

$$\mathcal{F}[f](u) \equiv \hat{f}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x)e^{itx} dx, u \in \mathbb{R}$$

- ▶ If $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$ is such that $\hat{f} \in L^1(\mathbb{R},)$ the Fourier inversion theorem

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{f}) \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{iu \cdot} \hat{f}(u) du = f \quad \text{a.e.}$$

- ▶ One immediately has

$$\|\hat{f}\|_{\infty} \leq \|f\|_1, \quad \|f\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \|\hat{f}\|_1$$

the (inverse) Fourier transformation is injective from L^1 to L^{∞}

Notation and Preliminaries : Fourier transform

- ▶ $f \in L^1 \cap L^2$, Plancherel's theorem states that

$$\|f\|_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \|\hat{f}\|_2, \quad \langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \langle \hat{f}, \hat{g} \rangle$$

and $\sqrt{2\pi}\mathcal{F}$ extends continuously to an isometry from L^2 to L^2

- ▶ Some basic properties

1. $\mathcal{F}[f(\cdot - k)](u) = e^{-iku} \hat{f}(u)$
2. $\mathcal{F}[f(a\cdot)](u) = a^{-1} \hat{f}(u/a), \quad a > 0$
3. $\mathcal{F}[f * g](u) = \hat{f}(u) \hat{g}(u), \quad \mathcal{F}[f * \overline{f(-\cdot)}](u) = |\hat{f}(u)|^2$
4. $\frac{d^N}{(du)^N} \hat{f}(u) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) (-ix)^N e^{-ixu} dx, \quad (iu)^N \hat{f}(u) = \mathcal{F}[D^N f](u)$

- ▶ Fourier transform \mathcal{F} maps the Schwartz space $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ into itself.

Notation and Preliminaries : Fourier transform

- ▶ Instead of \mathbb{R} the group is $(0, 2\pi]$ with addition modulo 2π , we have similar results.
- ▶ In particular, any 2π -periodic $f \in L^2((0, 2\pi])$, decomposes into its Fourier series

$$f = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_k e^{ik \cdot}, \text{ in } L^2((0, 2\pi]), \quad c_k \equiv c_k(f) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) e^{-ikx} dx, \{c_k\} \in \ell_2$$

- ▶ in fact, $f \mapsto \{c_k\}$ gives a Hilbert space isometry between $L^2((0, 2\pi])$ and ℓ_2 . If, further, $\{c_k\} \in \ell_1$, then the Fourier series of f converges a.e. on $(0, 2\pi]$ (pointwise if f is continuous)

Notation and Preliminaries : Fourier transform

- ▶ Fourier inversion and Fourier series can be linked to each other by the Poisson summation formula: if $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R})$, then the periodised sum

$$S(x) = \sum_{l \in \mathbb{Z}} f(x + 2\pi l), \quad x \in (0, 2\pi]$$

converges a.e., belongs to $L^1((0, 2\pi])$ and the Fourier coefficients of S are given by

$$c_k(S) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \hat{f}(k) = \mathcal{F}^{-1}[f](-k)$$

Notation and Preliminaries : The Schwartz space

- ▶ Define a countable family of seminorms on $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$

$$\|f\|_{m,r} = \max_{\alpha \leq r} \left\| (1 + |\cdot|^2)^m f^{(\alpha)} \right\|_{\infty}, \quad m, r \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$$

these seminorms provide a metrisable locally convex topology on $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$

- ▶ $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ is complete, and the set $C_0^{\infty}(\mathbb{R})$ is dense in $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$

Notation and Preliminaries : The Schwartz space

- ▶ $\mathcal{S}^* \equiv \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})^*$ is the topological dual space of $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$, tempered distributions, or Schwartz distributions, equipped with the weak topology: $T_n \rightarrow T$ in \mathcal{S}^* if $T_n(\phi) \rightarrow T(\phi)$ for every $\phi \in \mathcal{S}$
- ▶ Weak differentiation is continuous operation from \mathcal{S}^* to \mathcal{S}^*
- ▶ μ is a finite measure or any signed measure of at most polynomial growth at $\pm\infty$ ($|\mu|(x; |x| < R) \lesssim (1 + |R|^2)^l$ for all $R > 0$, some $l \in \mathbb{N}$) then, the action of μ on $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ defines an element of $\mathcal{S}^*(\mathbb{R})$.

$$f \mapsto \int_{\mathbb{R}} f d\mu$$

- ▶ any $f \in L^p$ acting on $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ by $\phi \mapsto \int f \phi$ defines an element of $\mathcal{S}^*(\mathbb{R})$

Notation and Preliminaries : The Schwartz space

- ▶ Fourier transform of $T \in \mathcal{S}^*$ as the element $\mathcal{F}T$ of \mathcal{S}^* whose action on \mathcal{S} is given by

$$\phi \mapsto \mathcal{F}T(\phi) = T(\hat{\phi})$$

- ▶ For $T = f \in L^1$,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{f}(u)\phi(u)du = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-iux} f(x)\phi(u)dudx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(u)\hat{\phi}(u)du$$

In particular, the Fourier transform maps \mathcal{S}^* continuously onto itself, and $\mathcal{F}^{-1}[\mathcal{F}T] = T$ in \mathcal{S}^* .

- ▶ We can by the same principles define periodic Schwartz distributions. For A any interval $(0,a]$

Approximate Identities

- ▶ Convolution with Kernels
- ▶ For $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we can define the convolution

$$K_h * f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} K_h(x-y)f(y)dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x-y)K_h(y)dy = f * K_h(x)$$

of f with a suitably 'localised' kernel function

$$K_h(x) = \frac{1}{h}K\left(\frac{x}{h}\right), \quad h > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}$$

where K is typically chosen to be bounded and integrable and in particular satisfies $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(x)dx = 1$

- ▶ so as $h \rightarrow 0$ the function K_h looks more and more like a point mass δ_0 at 0

$$f * K_h \sim f * \delta_0 = \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x-y)d\delta_0(y) = f(x)$$

Approximate Identities

Proposition (4.1.1)

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, be a measurable function, and let $K \in L^1$ satisfy

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(x) dx = 1.$$

1. If f is bounded on \mathbb{R} and continuous at $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $K_h * f(x)$ converges to $f(x)$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.
2. If f is bounded and uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} , then $\|K_h * f - f\|_{\infty} \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$
3. If $f \in L^p$ for some $1 \leq p < \infty$, then $\|K_h * f - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$

Ortho-normal basis

► Let $\mathcal{L} \subset \mathbb{Z}$ be an index set. A family of functions $\{e_l : l \in \mathcal{L}\} \subset L^2(A)$ is called an ortho-normal basis.

1. $\langle e_k, e_l \rangle = 0$ whenever $k \neq l$ and $\langle e_l, e_l \rangle = \|e_l\|_2^2 = 1$ otherwise.
2. if the linear span

$$\left\{ \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}} c_l e_l : c_l \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

is norm-dense in $L^2(A)$

Projection kernel

- ▶ V the closed subspace of $L^2(A)$ generated by the linear span of $\{e_I : I \in \mathcal{L}'\}$ for some subset $\mathcal{L}' \subset \mathcal{L}$,
- ▶ $\pi_V(f)$ is the best L^2 -approximation of f from the subspace V .

$$\pi_V(f)(x) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{L}'} \langle f, e_I \rangle e_I(x) = \int_A \sum_{I \in \mathcal{L}'} e_I(x) e_I(y) f(y) dy$$

- ▶ we define the projection kernel

$$\pi_V(f)(x) = \int_A K_V(x, y) f(y) dy, \quad K_V(x, y) = \sum_{I \in \mathcal{L}'} e_I(x) e_I(y)$$

- ▶ We shall now discuss some classical examples of ortho-normal bases of L^2 including some basic historical examples of wavelet bases, which will be introduced in full generality later.

The Trigonometric Basis

- ▶ If $A = (0, 1]$, then the trigonometric basis of $L^2((0, 1])$ consists of the complex trigonometric polynomials

$$\left\{ e_l = e^{2\pi i l \cdot} = \cos(2\pi l \cdot) + i \sin(2\pi l \cdot) : l \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

- ▶ The partial sums can be represented as

$$S_N(f)(x) = \sum \langle f, e_l \rangle e_l(x) = \int_0^1 D_N(x-y)f(y)dy = D_N * f(x)$$

where

$$D_N(x) = \sum_{|l| \leq N} e^{2\pi i l x} = \frac{\sin((2N+1)\pi x)}{\sin(\pi x)}$$

- ▶ Dirichlet kernel, Proposition 4.1.1. does not hold, D_N is not bounded uniformly in $L^1(A)$
- ▶ Convergence of $S_N(f) \rightarrow f$ in $L^p(A)$, $p \neq 2$, or in $C_u(A)$ does not hold in general
- ▶ One way around this problem is based Fejer kernel

$$F_m = \frac{1}{m+1} \sum_{k=0}^m D_k$$

The Haar Basis

- ▶ $\left\{ \phi_{jk} \equiv 2^{j/2} \phi(2^j(\cdot) - k), k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}, j \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
- ▶ Partition \mathbb{R} into dyadic intervals $(k/2^j, (k+1)/2^j]$
- ▶ $K_j(x, y) = 2^j K(2^j x, 2^j y) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} 2^j \phi(2^j x - k) \phi(2^j y - k) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \phi_{jk}(x) \phi_{jk}(y)$
- ▶ It has some comparable approximation properties

Proposition (4.1.2)

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a measurable function, and let K be the Haar projection kernel.

1. If f is bounded on \mathbb{R} and continuous at $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $K_j(f)(x)$ converges to $f(x)$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.
2. If f is bounded and uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} , then $\|K_j(f) - f\|_\infty \rightarrow 0$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.
3. If $f \in L^p$ for some $1 \leq p < \infty$, then $\|K_j(f) - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$.

The Haar Basis

- ▶ $K_j(f)$

$$K_j(f) = K_0(f) + \sum_{l=0}^{j-1} (K_{l+1}(f) - K_l(f))$$

an elementary computation shows that

$$K_{l+1}(f) - K_l(f) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle \psi_{lk}, f \rangle \psi_{lk}$$

where $\psi = 1_{[0,1/2]} - 1_{(1/2,1]}$, $\psi_{lk}(x) = 2^{l/2} \psi(2^l x - k)$

$$f = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle \phi_k, f \rangle \phi_k + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle \psi_{lk}, f \rangle \psi_{lk}$$

- ▶ $\{\phi_k, \psi_{lk} : k \in \mathbb{Z}, l \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$ forms an ortho-normal basis of L^2 known as the Haar basis.

The Shannon Basis

- ▶ Consider a function $f \in \mathcal{V}_\pi$, where \mathcal{V}_π is the space of continuous functions $f \in L^2$ which have (distributional) Fourier transform \hat{f} supported in $[-\pi, \pi]$
- ▶ express \hat{f} with trigonometric basis.

$$\hat{f} = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_k e^{ik(\cdot)}, \quad \text{in } L^2([-\pi, \pi])$$

with Fourier coefficients given by

$$c_k = c_k(\hat{f}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{-iku} \hat{f}(u) du = f(-k)$$

the last identity following from (4.5) if $f \in L^1$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} c_k \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{iu(k+x)} du \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} f(k) \frac{\sin \pi(x-k)}{\pi(x-k)} \end{aligned}$$

The Shannon Basis

- ▶ $\phi(x) = \sin(\pi x)/(\pi x)$
- ▶ $\hat{\phi} = 1_{[-\pi, \pi]}$, and its interger translates of the function ϕ are ortho-normal in L^2 . (by Plancherel's theorem.)
- ▶ $\{\phi_k = \phi(\cdot - k) : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is an ortho-normal in \mathcal{V}_π
- ▶ $\{\phi_{jk} = 2^{j/2}\phi(2^j(\cdot) - k) : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ span $\mathcal{V}_{2^j\pi}$
- ▶ The projection of $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R})$ onto $\mathcal{V}_{2^j\pi}$ is

$$\Pi_{\mathcal{V}_{2^j\pi}}(f) = \sum_k \langle \phi_{jk}, f \rangle \phi_{jk}$$

- ▶ Like, haar basis, we can telescope these projections, by set ψ

$$\psi = \mathcal{F}^{-1} [\mathbf{1}_{[-2\pi, -\pi]} + \mathbf{1}_{[\pi, 2\pi]}]$$

- ▶ the functions $\{\psi_{lk} = 2^{l/2}\psi(2^l \cdot -k) : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ form an ortho-normal basis for $W_l = \mathcal{V}_{2^l\pi} \ominus \mathcal{V}_{2^{l-1}\pi}$

- ▶ f

$$f = \sum_k \langle \phi_k, f \rangle \phi_k + \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_k \langle \psi_{lk}, f \rangle \psi_{lk}$$

- ▶ the ortho-normal 'Shannon' basis $\{\phi_k, \psi_{lk} : k \in \mathbb{Z}, l \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}\}$
- ▶ We would like to construct ortho-normal bases of L^2 that are in a sense 'interpolating' between the Haar and Shannon bases, and this is what leads to wavelet theory, as we shall see later.

Approximation in Sobolev Spaces by General Integral Operators

- ▶ Consider the general framework of integral operators.
- ▶ $f \mapsto K_h(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} K_h(\cdot, y) f(y) dy = \frac{1}{h} \int_{\mathbb{R}} K\left(\frac{\cdot}{h}, \frac{y}{h}\right) f(y) dy, \quad h > 0$
- ▶ Calderon-Zygmund operators, with the obvious notational conversion
 $h = 2^{-j}$

Proposition (4.1.3)

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a measurable function, let K_h be as above and suppose that $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \sup_{v \in \mathbb{R}} |K(v, v - u)| du < \infty$, $\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(x, y) dy = 1$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then we have

1. If f is bounded on \mathbb{R} and continuous at $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $K_h(f)(x)$ converges to $f(x)$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.
2. If f is bounded and uniformly continuous on \mathbb{R} , then $\|K_h(f) - f\|_{\infty} \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.
3. If $f \in L^p$ for some $1 \leq p < \infty$, then $\|K_h(f) - f\|_p \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.

► To investigate further approximation properties we shall impose following conditions.

- (**M**): $c_N(K) \equiv \int_{\mathbb{R}} \sup_{v \in \mathbb{R}} |K(v, v - u)| |u|^N du < \infty$
- (**P**): For every $v \in \mathbb{R}$ and $k = 1, \dots, N - 1$

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} K(v, v + u) du = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}} K(v, v + u) u^k du = 0$$

Proposition (4.1.5)

Let K be a kernel that satisfies Condition **(M)**, **(P)** for some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and let

$$c(m, K) = c_m(K) \int_0^1 \frac{(1-t)^{m-1}}{(m-1)!} dt$$

for any integer $m \leq N$.

1. If $f \in H_p^m(\mathbb{R})$, $1 \leq p < \infty$, then

$$\|K_h(f) - f\|_p \leq c(m, K) \|D^m f\|_p h^m$$

2. If $f \in C^m(\mathbb{R})$, then

$$\|K_h(f) - f\|_\infty \leq c(m, K) \|f^{(m)}\|_\infty h^m$$

Littlewood-paley Decomposition

- ▶ The main idea behind the Haar and Shannon bases of L^2 was a partition of unity either in the time or the frequency domain.
- ▶ However, the functions used in the partition are not smooth or indicators of intervals.
- ▶ Use smooth functions, relaxing the requirement of orthogonality of the functions involved.

Littlewood-paley Decomposition

- Take $\phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$ to be symmetric function such that

$$\hat{\phi} \in C_0^\infty(\mathbb{R}), \quad \text{supp}(\hat{\phi}) \in [-1, 1], \quad \hat{\phi} = 1 \text{ on } \left[-\frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{4}\right]$$

Define, moreover,

$$\hat{\psi} = \hat{\phi}\left(\frac{\cdot}{2}\right) - \hat{\phi} \quad \text{equivalent to} \quad \psi = 2\phi(2\cdot) - \phi$$

so that $\hat{\psi}$ is supported in $\{2^{-1} \leq |u| \leq 2\}$. If we set $\psi_{2^{-j}} = 2^j \psi(2^j \cdot)$, then $\overline{\psi_{2^{-j}}} = \hat{\psi}(\cdot/2^j)$, and by a telescoping sum, for every $u \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\hat{\phi}(u) + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \hat{\psi}\left(u/2^j\right) = \lim_{J \rightarrow \infty} \left(\hat{\phi}(u) + \sum_{j=0}^{J-1} \hat{\psi}\left(u/2^j\right) \right) = \lim_J \hat{\phi}\left(u/2^J\right) = 1$$

Littlewood-paley Decomposition

- ▶ For f with Fourier transform $\hat{f}(u)$ and every $u \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\hat{f}(u) = \hat{f}(u)\hat{\phi}(u) + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \hat{\psi}\left(u/2^i\right) \hat{f}(u)$$

- ▶ Then, f is

$$f = f * \phi + \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} f * \psi_{2^{-j}} = \lim_{J \rightarrow \infty} f * \phi_{2^{-j}}$$

where $\phi_{2^{-j}} = 2^j \phi(2^j \cdot)$

- ▶ since $\hat{\phi}(0) = 1$, we see that $\int \phi = 1$, and since $\phi \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R})$, we conclude from Proposition 4.1 .1 that the last limit holds in L^p whenever $f \in L^p$
- ▶ Moreover, $\int_{\mathbb{R}} x^k \phi(x) dx$ equals zero for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$ because $D^k \mathcal{F}[\phi](0)$ does, so Proposition 4.1 .5 applies for every N with $h = 2^{-j}$.