

§4 Axioms of relativistic Quantum Field Theory

4.1.1 Tempered Distributions

4.1.1.1 Definition:

The Schwartz space $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ of rapidly decreasing smooth functions is defined by

$$\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \left\{ f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \mid f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R}^n) \right. \\ \text{and } P_{\alpha, \beta}(f) < \infty \text{ for} \\ \left. \text{every pair of multi-indices} \right. \\ \left. \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}^n \right\}$$

where the semi-norms (not necessarily positive def.)

$$P_{\alpha, \beta}(f) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} |x^\alpha \partial_\beta f(x)|$$

$$x^\alpha = x_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots x_n^{\alpha_n}$$

$$|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n$$

$$\partial_\beta = \frac{\partial^{|\beta|}}{\partial x_1^{\beta_1} \cdots \partial x_n^{\beta_n}}$$

$p_{\alpha, \beta}(f) < \infty$ means that even if you multiply a derivative of f by any power of x , the result stays bounded

So the condition encodes both smoothness (all derivatives exist and are continuous) and rapid decay

(all derivatives vanish faster than any polynomial grows)

Examples: $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$, Any $P(x)e^{-x^2}$ with P pol.

Not Schwartz: $f(x) = e^{-|x|}$ decays exponentially

but its derivative does not

decay rapidly enough, ^{der.} not smooth at $x=0$

$f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ decays only polynomially

4.1.2) Definition Tempered distribution

The continuous dual $\mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is the space of tempered distributions. A linear functional

$T: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is tempered iff it is continuous for the seminorm topology for all $p_{\alpha, \beta}$

The elements of $\mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ are called test functions.

Some distributions are represented by functions
for example for an arbitrary measurable and bounded
function g on $\mathbb{R}^n$ the functional

$$T_g(f) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g(x) f(x) dx, \quad f \in \mathcal{S}$$

defines a distribution.

A well-known distribution which cannot be represented
as a distribution of the form T_g for a $fct. g$ on $\mathbb{R}^n$
is the delta distribution.

$$\delta_y : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \quad f \mapsto f(y)$$

the evaluation at $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Nevertheless δ_y is frequently called the delta function
at y and one writes $\delta_y = \delta(x-y)$ in order to use
the formal integral

$$\delta_y(f) = f(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \delta(x-y) f(x) dx$$

here the r.h.s of the equation is defined by the L.H.S

Distributions have derivatives. For example

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} T(f) := -T\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} f\right)$$

$$\text{and } \partial_\alpha T(f) := (-1)^{|\alpha|} T(\partial^\alpha f), \quad f \in \mathcal{J}$$

if T is of the form T_g

$$\text{one obtains } \partial_\alpha T_g = T_{\partial_\alpha g}$$

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Ex: Let $H = \chi_{[0, \infty)}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ and define

$$\begin{aligned} T_H(f) &= \int_0^\infty f(t) dt & \text{then } T'_H(f) &= - \int_0^\infty f'(t) dt \\ & & &= f(0) = \delta_0(f) \text{ so } \delta_0 = H' \\ & & &\text{in the distributional sense.} \end{aligned}$$

4.13 Proposition:

Every tempered distribution $T \in \mathcal{S}'$ has a representation as a finite sum of derivatives of continuous functions of polynomial growth,

that is there exist $g_\alpha: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ s.t.

$$T = \sum_{0 \leq |\alpha| \leq k} \partial^\alpha T g_\alpha$$

4.2) Fourier transform on $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{S}'$

4.2.1 [D] Fix a non-degenerate bilinear form $x \cdot p$ on $\mathbb{R}^n$ (Euclidean or Minkowski). For $u \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ define

$$\mathcal{F}u(p) = \hat{u}(p) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} u(x) e^{ix \cdot p} dx$$

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}v(x) := (2\pi)^{-n} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} v(p) e^{-ix \cdot p} dp$$

for $u \in \mathcal{S}$ $\mathcal{F}u$ is also $\in \mathcal{S}$

4.2.2 Proposition: The Fourier transform is a linear continuous map $\mathcal{F}: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$

4.2.3 | Definition: Fourier transform of a distribution

For $T \in \mathcal{D}'$ define $\mathcal{F}T \in \mathcal{D}'$ by

$$(\mathcal{F}T)(\varphi) = T(\hat{\varphi}), \quad \varphi \in \mathcal{D}$$

Note that for a function g

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathcal{F}T_g)(\varphi) &= T_g(\hat{\varphi}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} g(x) \varphi(p) e^{ixp} dp dx \\ &= T_{\mathcal{F}g}(\varphi) \end{aligned}$$

Examples:

$$\mathcal{F}(\delta_0) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} \delta_0(x) e^{ixp} dx = 1$$

$$\mathcal{F}^{-1}(e^{ip \cdot y}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^D} \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} e^{ip \cdot (y-x)} dp = \delta(x-y)$$

$$\mathcal{F}(\partial_k u) = -i p_k \hat{u}$$

$$\mathcal{F}(\partial_\alpha u) = -i p_\alpha \hat{u}$$

4.2.4) Application to PDE

Let $P(X) = \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} X^{\alpha}$ be a polynomial

The PDE $P(-i\partial)u = v$ becomes

$P(p) \hat{u} = \hat{v}$ in Fourier space.

A fundamental solution is $G \in \mathcal{S}'$ with

$$P(-i\partial)G = \delta. \quad \text{If } T \in \mathcal{S}' \text{ solves}$$

$$PT = 1, \text{ then } G = \mathcal{F}^{-1}T \text{ is a}$$

fundamental solution and $u = G * v$ solves

$$P(-i\partial)u = v$$

where the convolution is defined by

$$u * v(x) := \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} u(y) v(x-y) dy$$

for $u, v \in \mathcal{S}$.

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4.3] The Klein-Gordon Equations

Let $\mathbb{R}^{1,D}$ denote Minkowski space with quadratic form

$$x^2 = \langle x, x \rangle = x_0^2 - \sum_{j=1}^{D-1} x_j^2$$

The d'Alembert operator is defined by

$$\square = \partial_0^2 - \sum_{j=1}^{D-1} \partial_j^2$$

4.3.1] For $m > 0$ the (inhomogeneous) Klein-Gordon

equation is $(\square + m^2)u = v$. In Fourier

space it reads $(-p^2 + m^2)\hat{u} = \hat{v}$, $p^2 = p_0^2 - \vec{p}^2$

A fundamental solution can be determined by solving

$$(-p^2 + m^2)T = 1$$

$$\text{so } T = (m^2 - p^2)^{-1}$$

As a distribution given by

$$T(v) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^{D-1}} \left(\text{PV} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{v(p)}{w(p) - p^2} dp \right) d^{\vec{p}}$$

$$w(p) = m^2 + \vec{p}^2$$

where PV is the principal value of the r.h.s.

The corresponding fundamental solution is called the propagator and is given by

$$G(x) = (2\pi)^{-D} \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} (m^2 - p^2)^{-1} e^{-ix \cdot p} dp$$

Free fields

$$(\Box + m^2) \phi = 0$$

$$(p^2 - m^2) \hat{\phi} = 0$$

therefore $\hat{\phi}$ has its support on the mass shell

$$\{p \in (\mathbb{R}^{1,D}) : p^2 = m^2\}$$

Consequently $\hat{\phi}$ is proportional to $\delta(p^2 - m^2)$

as a distribution, that is $\hat{\phi} = g(p) \delta(p^2 - m^2)$

and we get ϕ by the inverse Fourier transform

$$\phi(x) = (2\pi)^{-D} \int_{\mathbb{R}^D} g(p) \delta(p^2 - m^2) e^{-ipx} dp$$

manipulating this further and denoting by

$x^0 = t$ we arrive at (see Schattenloher for details)

Prop. 4.3.2

Any (tempered) solution of $(\Box + m^2)\phi = 0$

has Fourier support on $p^2 = m^2$ and can

be written for suitable $a, a^* \in \mathcal{S}'(\mathbb{R}^{D-1})$

as

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(t, x) := (2\pi)^{-D+1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{D-1}} & a(p) e^{i(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega(p)t)} \\ & + a^*(p) e^{-i(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega(p)t)} \frac{d\vec{p}}{2\omega(p)} \end{aligned}$$
