

## Lecture 25: Distributions Teaser

- Distributions further generalize the concept of weak solutions.

Recall that we "tested"  $f \in L^1_{loc}$  by

looking at  $\int f \varphi dx$ ,  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty$ .

we may then interpret  $f$  as a map  $C_c^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  given by

$$\varphi \mapsto \int f \varphi dx$$

- A distribution is a more general linear functional  $C_c^\infty \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . The term "distribution" was inspired by charge distributions in electrostatics:

### Model Problem: Coulomb's Law

- Coulomb's law of electrostatics says that a particle with electric charge  $q_0$ , located at the origin, generates an electric field  $E(x) = \frac{kq_0x}{|x|^3}$  for a constant  $k$ .

In the previous lecture, we discussed Gauss' law  
 $\nabla \cdot E = 4\pi k\rho$  for  $\rho$  the charge per unit

Volume.

- Coulomb's field isn't differentiable at 0 but away from 0,  $\nabla \cdot \frac{x}{r^3} = \frac{\nabla \cdot x}{r^3} - \frac{3x \cdot \nabla r}{r^5} = 3/r^3 - \frac{3x \cdot x}{r^5} = 0$ , consistent with Gauss' prediction in that charge density at a point is 0.

Hence, Coulomb predicts charge only at 0, but then as a function in  $L^1_{loc}$ , this is 0. To reconcile this, consider the weak form of Gauss' law

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} E \cdot \nabla \varphi dx = -4\pi k \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \rho \varphi dx$$

for all  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty$ .

- Since  $E$  is smooth except at 0, we integrate by parts away from 0.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} E \cdot \nabla \varphi dx &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\{\xi \cdot v \geq \epsilon\}} E \cdot \nabla \varphi dx \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\{\xi \cdot v = \epsilon\}} \eta \cdot E \varphi dS - 0 \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\{\xi \cdot v = \epsilon\}} -\frac{kq_0}{\epsilon^2} \varphi dS \quad (\eta = -\frac{x}{|\xi|})\end{aligned}$$

~~using~~  
 ~~$\epsilon \rightarrow 0$~~   
 Since  $\varphi$  is continuous, this limit approaches  
 $-kq_0(4\pi) \varphi(0)$   $(b/c \quad \frac{1}{4\pi} \epsilon^2 \int_{\{\xi \cdot v = \epsilon\}} \varphi dS \Rightarrow \varphi(0))$

The weak condition then requires

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \rho \varphi dx = q_0 \varphi(0)$$

for every  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty$ , or that  $\rho$  is a charge at the origin of magnitude  $q_0$ !

This "point density" is often called the Dirac Delta function  $\delta(x)$  defined so

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^m} f(x) \delta^m(x) dx = f(0)$$

for  $f \in C^0$ .

However,  $\delta$  is not a function and this isn't an integral! We consider  $\delta$  as the map  $f \mapsto f(0)$ .

$$\nabla \cdot \frac{x}{r^3} = 4\pi \delta$$

Roughly speaking, the above gives

## The Space of Distributions.

- A distribution on a domain  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a continuous linear functional  $C_c^\infty(U) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . We usually write its evaluation as a pairing
 
$$\varphi \mapsto \langle u, \varphi \rangle \quad \text{for } \varphi \in C_c^\infty.$$

Linearity means

$$\langle u, c_1 \varphi_1 + c_2 \varphi_2 \rangle = c_1 \langle u, \varphi_1 \rangle + c_2 \langle u, \varphi_2 \rangle$$

for all  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{C}, \varphi_1, \varphi_2 \in C_c^\infty$ .

Continuity means that if  $\varphi_{j_k} \rightarrow \varphi$ , then  $\langle u, \varphi_{j_k} \rangle \rightarrow \langle u, \varphi \rangle$ .

But what convergence do we want for  $\varphi_{j_k} \rightarrow \varphi$ ?

This convergence in  $C_c^\infty$  means that for some  $K \subseteq U$  compact,  $\text{Supp}(\varphi_j), \text{Supp}(\varphi) \subseteq K$  and

$\varphi_j \rightarrow \varphi, \partial^\alpha \varphi_j \rightarrow \partial^\alpha \varphi$  uniformly on  $K$  for all  $\alpha$ .

The set of distributions forms a vector space that we denote

- The set of distributions forms a vector space that we denote  $D'(U)$ . The theory of this space was developed independently by Sergei Sobolev & Laurent Schwartz.

functions in  $L^1_{\text{loc}}$  tie to distributions as we saw before: for  $f \in L^1_{\text{loc}}$ ,

$$\langle f, \varphi \rangle = \int_U f \varphi dx$$

Convergence in the space  $D'(U)$  is defined weakly:

$u_{j_k} \rightarrow u$  if  $\langle u_{j_k}, \varphi \rangle \rightarrow \langle u, \varphi \rangle$  for all  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty$

Given  $f \in L^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$  satisfying  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f dx = 1$ , define

$$f_\varepsilon(x) = \varepsilon^n f(\varepsilon x), \text{ for } \varepsilon > 0.$$

Then,  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} f_\varepsilon = f$ .

[pf] For  $\varphi \in C_c^\infty$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f_a, \varphi \rangle &:= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} a^n f(ax) \varphi(x) dx \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \varphi(x/a) dx\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so } \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle - \varphi(0) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(x) [\varphi(x/a) - \varphi(0)] dx$$

Since  $f$  is compactly supported,  $\varphi(x/a) \rightarrow 0$  Pick  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

only for  $x/a \in B$

$$\text{Pick } R > 0 \text{ so } \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B(0, R)} |f(x)| dx < \varepsilon.$$

Then, pick  $\tau > 0$  so if  $|y| < \tau$ ,

$$|\varphi(y) - \varphi(0)| < \varepsilon. \quad |x/a| \leq R/a < \tau$$

we have that for large  $a$ ,

and so

$$\begin{aligned}|\langle f_a, \varphi \rangle - \varphi(0)| &\leq \int_{B(0, R)} |f(x)| dx + \int_{\mathbb{R}^n \setminus B(0, R)} |f(x)| \cdot 2 \| \varphi \|_\infty dx \\ &\leq \varepsilon + 2\varepsilon \| \varphi \|_\infty\end{aligned}$$

□

$$\text{so } \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \langle f_a, \varphi \rangle = \varphi(0).$$

e.g.)  $H_t(x) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{4\pi t})^n} e^{-|x|^2/4t}$   
is a rescaling of  $\frac{1}{(4\pi)^n} e^{-|x|^2/4}$

$$\text{and } \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} H_t = \delta$$

• Distributional Derivatives are defined such that

for  $u \in D'(U)$ ,

$$\langle D^\alpha u, \varphi \rangle := (-1)^{|\alpha|} \langle u, D^\alpha \varphi \rangle$$

(like for weak derivatives)

- For example, we previously saw that

for  $H(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$

$$H'(x) = -\delta_0(x) \quad \text{in this sense:}$$

$$\langle H, \varphi' \rangle = \int_0^\infty \varphi'(x) dx = -\varphi(0) = \langle -\delta_0, \varphi' \rangle$$

## Fundamental Solutions

- Consider  $L$  a differential operator, such as  $\Delta$ . Assume we can solve for  $\Phi$  so

$$L\Phi = \delta.$$

Then, if we consider any PDE ~~equation~~  
 $\{Lu = f$ , we have that (within some assumptions)  $u = \Phi * f$  has

$$\begin{aligned} Lu &= L \left[ \int \Phi(x-y) f(y) dy \right] = \int L\Phi(x-y) f(y) dy \\ &= \int \delta(x-y) f(y) dy = f(x) \end{aligned}$$

- Transitioning to incorporating boundary data for Laplace's Equation, may take many forms. One uses Green's Functions.

- For evolution equations, one often uses the concept of a forward-in-time fundamental solution such as  $E^+(t, x) = \Phi(0, \infty)(t) \cdot H_t(x)$  for the heat equation. Then,

$$u(t, x) = f *_{t,x} E^+ + g *_{t,x} E^+(t, \cdot)$$

Solves  $\begin{cases} (\partial_t - \Delta) u = f \\ u(0, x) = g(x) \end{cases}$

- Adding this unit jump provides the general version of Duhamel's Principle.