

Dimensionality: A Powerful Tool for Understanding and Calculating in Science

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the first example of a calculation that requires you to change the number of dimensions in our problem in order to get to the answer comes around with the integral:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{J} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\{-x^2\} dx ; \\ \therefore \mathcal{J}^2 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\{-x^2 - y^2\} dx dy ; \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} \exp\{-r^2\} r dr d\theta ; \\ &= \pi . \\ \Rightarrow \mathcal{J} &= \sqrt{\pi} . \end{aligned}$$

That is, in order to solve a **1**-dimensional problem we had to resort to going to a **2**-dimensional one!

Similar ideas apply to many areas of science, particularly physics! 😊

- General Relativity (Kaluza-Klein);
- Quantum Field Theory (dimensional regularization, dimensional [de]construction); &
- String Theory (extra dimensions).

R: Kaluza-Klein

Kaluza-Klein theory was very popular in the 1970s, in part because the most general supergravity theory is most easily written in eleven dimensions. It can be generalized beyond the original formulation to include not only electromagnetism, but other gauge theories as well. (Bryce DeWitt showed this in 1963, as an exercise [!] in his Les Houches lectures.) These days it's rarely widely regarded, in a somewhat modified form, as an **element** of other theories. String theory, for example, requires more than four spacetime dimensions, and the "extra" dimensions are usually dealt with by "compactification" à la Kaluza-Klein. On the other hand, it's generally rejected as the ultimate answer to unification, though a few people are still fond of it. There are two main problems:

1. It's basically general relativity, and to make sense of it as a quantum theory, you would have to understand how to quantize general relativity. No one knows how to do that.
2. Witten showed twenty years ago that standard Kaluza-Klein theories are incompatible with the observed existence of chiral (left- or right-handed) fermions. There have been suggestions of ways out, for example by adding torsion or by looking at fermions as non-elementary solitons, but none has looked very appealing.

R: Dimensionally Reduced Gravitational Chern-Simons Term and its Kink

When the gravitational Chern-Simons term is reduced from 3 to 2 dimensions, the lower dimensional theory supports a symmetry breaking solution and an associated kink. Kinks in general relativity bear a close relation to flat space kinks, governed by identical potentials.

It should also be noted that Chern-Simons theory is **intimately** related to what is known as **Donaldson Invariants** and, as such, to the more recent **Seiberg-Witten Theory**. Furthermore, the **Chern character** is related to the **[Atiyah-Singer] index theorems!**

• **Gravitational Instantons:** complete d -dimensional Riemannian manifolds, (M, g) , which are either *Einstein* or *vacuum* satisfying one of the following boundary conditions:

1. M is compact without boundary;
2. (M, g) is asymptotically locally Euclidean, ALE, i.e., it has an “infinity” which is like that of E^d ; &
3. (M, g) is asymptotically locally Flat, ALF, i.e., it has an “infinity” which is like that of E^{d-1} with the last direction being periodic.

Yang-Mills Instantons: Given an action of the type,

$$S_{\text{YM}}^E[\mathcal{A}] = -\frac{1}{2} \int_M \text{tr}(\mathcal{F} \wedge *\mathcal{F}) ;$$
$$\mathcal{F} = d\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{A} \wedge \mathcal{A} = \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{F}_{\mu\nu} dx^\mu \wedge dx^\nu ;$$

here \mathcal{A} is the connection 1-form with values in a given gauge group, \mathcal{F} is the curvature 2-form and the Hodge-* operator is taken with respect to the Euclidean metric (i.e., $** = 1$). To evaluate this action it's important to find the *local minima* of the [Euclidean] action and compute the quantum fluctuations around them. An *instanton* is either a self-dual or an anti-self-dual field strength: $\mathcal{F} = \pm * \mathcal{F}$. Furthermore, the “big deal” about such a thing is the fact that it does **not** depend on the Hodge-* anymore, i.e., the action is independent of the signature of the metric! This means that this is a **topological beast**. 😊

Gravitational Chern-Simons: One should start by noting that: $d \text{tr}(\mathcal{F}^2) = 0$. Therefore, by Poincaré's Lemma, $\text{tr}(\mathcal{F}^2)$ is **locally exact**: $\text{tr}(\mathcal{F}^2) = dK$. Thus, the closed 4-form, $\text{tr}(\mathcal{F}^2)$, is identified with the **second Chern character** and K to the **Chern-Simons form**: $K = \text{tr}(\mathcal{A} d\mathcal{A} + \frac{2}{3} \mathcal{A} \wedge \mathcal{A} \wedge \mathcal{A})$. The link with *gravity* comes when one identifies the Christoffel connection with \mathcal{A} (the “gauge” connection), in the following way: $\Gamma_{\mu\nu}^\lambda = [A_\mu]_\nu^\lambda!$ That means that ν and λ are *internal indices* (gauge group), while μ is a spacetime index.

Dimensional Reduction: To effect the dimensional reduction from d , (t, x_1, \dots, x_{d-1}) , $d-1$, (t, x_1, \dots, x_{d-2}) , dimensions, we choose the Lorentz signature and set the Kaluza-
ein ansatz for the metric tensor G :

$$G_{\mu\nu} = \phi \begin{pmatrix} g_{\alpha\beta} - a_\alpha a_\beta & -a_\alpha \\ -a_\beta & -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

where $g_{\alpha\beta}$ is the metric tensor for the $d-1$ spacetime, a_α is a $d-1$ vector and ϕ is a scalar. Furthermore, because the Chern-Simons term is conformally invariant, it does not depend on ϕ , which we henceforth set to 1.

Thus, going from 3 to 2 dimensions, it's not hard to find that the gravitational Chern-Simons term is given by,

$$CS = -\frac{1}{8\pi^2} \int \sqrt{-g} (fr + f^3);$$

$$g = \det(g_{\alpha\beta});$$

$$f_{\alpha\beta} = \partial_\alpha a_\beta - \partial_\beta a_\alpha = \sqrt{-g} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta} f;$$

$\epsilon_{\alpha\beta}$: totally antisymmetric 2-dim symbol with $\epsilon_{01} = 1$;

r : 2-dimensional curvature.

Chern-Simons Dynamics: If the entire dynamics is governed by the Chern-Simons term, we get two types of solution:

1. **symmetry preserving;** &

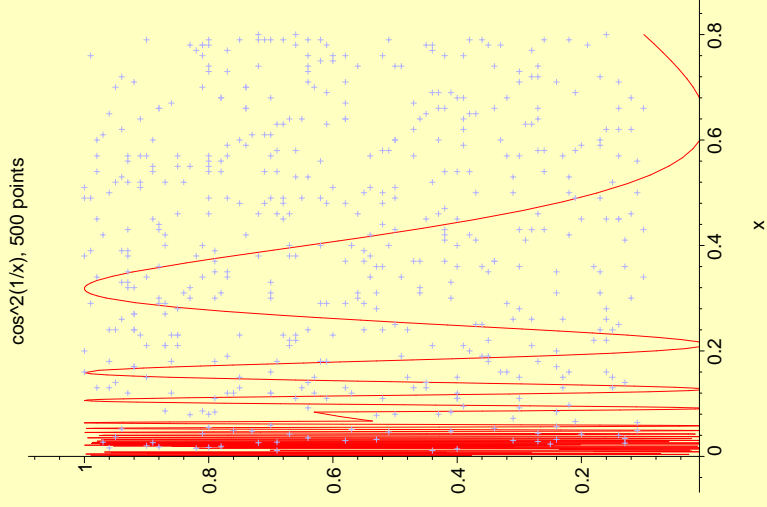
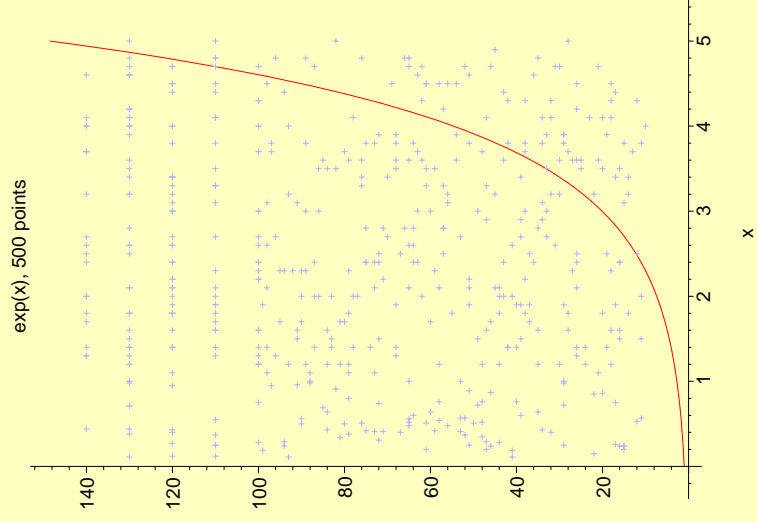
2. **symmetry breaking!**

Although both show constant curvature, the latter is maximally symmetric.

When the symmetry breaking solution is present, there's also a **kink** solution, which **interpolates** between the two symmetry breaking solutions!

FT: Mollification in 0-dimensions

This method tries to address the well known question of Monte Carlo simulations of highly oscillatory functions, as illustrated below:



→ **Convolution:** It's a mathematical operation defined as,

$$f, g \in \mathcal{S}(\mathbb{R}^n) \Rightarrow (f * g)(y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(y - x) g(x) dx .$$

Thus, it is not difficult to see that the convolution is somewhat like taking an average of f with respect to the weighting function g . Among the important properties of convolutions that we'll be using are:

$$f * g = g * f ;$$

$(f * g) * h = f * (g * h)$; if **all** except one of f, g, h have **compact support**.

$$\therefore \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (f * g) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g ; \text{ iff } u, v \text{ have compact support.}$$

→ **Approximate Identity (aka Mollifiers):** It is a **positive** C^∞ function, (denoted by $j_\epsilon(x)$), whose support lies in the sphere of unity radius about the origin in \mathbb{R}^n , satisfying $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} j_\epsilon(x) dx = 1$. The sequence of functions $j_\epsilon(x) = \epsilon^{-n} j(x/\epsilon)$ is called an **approximate identity**.

Mollification: This technique consists of using convolutions in order to smooth “badly behaved functions”. (On a more mathematical note, the mollifier technique is commonly used in order to generate functions from distributions/generalized functions.) Basically, the method consists of using a convolution of an **approximate identity** with the [generalized] function that we’d like to smooth. Thus, if $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **locally integrable**, the its mollification is defined to be:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_\epsilon &= j_\epsilon * f ; \\
 f_\epsilon(x) &= \int_U j_\epsilon(x-y) f(y) dy = \int_{B(0,\epsilon)} f(x-y) j_\epsilon(y) dy .
 \end{aligned}$$

Properties of Mollifiers:

1. $f_\epsilon \in C^\infty$;
2. $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} (T * j_\epsilon) = T$, **weakly** (almost everywhere), if T is a continuous and linear Schwartz function; &
3. If $f \in C^\infty(U)$, then $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} f_\epsilon = f$ **uniformly** on **compact** subsets of U .

→ **0-dim QFT:** To illustrate some features of QFT, let's consider spacetime to be 0-dim. Several features of higher dimensional QFTs can already be observed with this somewhat simple minded models. We have been analyzing those in order to generalize its results later.

$$L[\phi] = -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 - \frac{g}{4!} \phi^4 ;$$

$$\mathcal{Z}[g, j] = \int \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 - \frac{g}{4!} \phi^4 + j \phi \right\} d\phi .$$

Thus, by making the change of variables $\phi \mapsto \phi/g^{-1/4}$, it is not difficult to see that, thought as a function of g , $\mathcal{Z}[g, j]$ converges to an **analytic** function for $g \neq 0$. Also, there an *essential singularity* and a 4th-order branch point at $g = 0$. At this point, let's pretend that one did not know about this and one attempted to expand this function as a power series g :

$$\exp \left\{ -\frac{g}{4!} \phi^4 \right\} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-g)^m \phi^{4m}}{(4!)^m m!} ; \quad \exp\{j \phi\} = \sum_{2k=0}^{\infty} \frac{j^{2k} \phi^{2k}}{(2k)!} .$$

$$\mathcal{Z}[g, j] = \int \sum_{m, 2k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-g)^m j^{2k}}{(4!)^m m! (2k)!} \phi^{4m+2k} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 \right\} d\phi . \quad (1)$$

0-dim QFT (cont'd): Note that,

$$\int \phi^{2n} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 \right\} d\phi = \frac{(2n)!}{2^n n!} \underbrace{\int \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 \right\} d\phi}_{=\sqrt{\pi/2}}.$$

In order to give a graphical interpretation to the numbers that show up above, let's re-write (and note that, the integral can commute with the sum given that everything converges this particular case) in the following form:

$$\mathcal{Z}[g, j] = \sum_{m, 2k} \int \underbrace{\frac{(-g)\phi^4 \dots (-g)\phi^4}{4! \dots 4!}}_{m \text{ terms}} \cdot \frac{\underbrace{j\phi \dots j\phi}_{2k \text{ terms}}}{(2k)!} \cdot \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \phi^2 \right\} d\phi.$$

Alternatively, one could write a graph with $4m + 2k$ vertices and join them in pairs, what would be the correct answer. On the other hand, one could notice that there are two different "types" of ϕ : the ones that come from the ϕ^4 term and the ones that come from the $j\phi$ (source) term. To keep track of this in a graphical way, let's introduce two types of vertices:

1. m vertices with valence 4, which correspond to the $m\phi^4$ terms; &
2. $2k$ vertices with valence 1, which correspond to the $2kj\phi$ terms.

→ 0-dim QFT (cont'd): Thus, the integral can be replaced by a sum over graphs, since we keep track of the g 's, j 's and combinatorial factors. Now, consider the action of the group which permutes vertices and edges: this group has order $(4!)^m m! (2k)!$. This is exactly the combinatorial factor that should be attached to each graph. Thus, the Orbit-Stabiliser theorem can be used and the sum over all graphs can be replaced by the *sum over isomorphism classes of graphs weighted by $1 / \text{Aut}(G)$* . In this manner, one has the following graphical evaluation of the integral:

- \forall *isomorphism class of graphs, associate:*
 - $(-g)$ for each vertex of valence 4;
 - (j) for each vertex of valence 1; &
 - $[1 / \text{Aut}(G)]$.

At this point one remembers that the expansion performed was around an *essential singularity* and, so, is **not** valid as a power series. Thus, it will be shown now that it is an asymptotic expansion for the integral. For the sake of simplicity, let's do this for $\mathcal{Z}[g, 0]$, i.e., ignore the source terms. In order to do so, just recall that,

0-dim QFT (cont'd):

$$\left| \exp(x) - \sum_{n=0}^k \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \leq \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!}.$$

This means that the error in computing the integral for $\mathcal{Z}[g, 0]$ by taking the first k terms of the series obtained above is bounded by $C g^{k+1}$. C is a constant that depends on k but not on g . This shows that the series is an asymptotic expansion for the integral*

Borel Summation: At this point, the series that was computed for $\mathcal{Z}[g, j = 0]$ is of the form: $\sum_n a_n x^n$, with $a_n \approx C n!$ and there are known ways to sum series of this form, one of which is **Borel Summation**. The trick is the following: $x^{n+1} n! = \int_0^\infty t^n \exp\{-t/x\} dt$ since $\sum_n a_n x^n = \int_0^\infty \exp\{-t/x\} \left(\sum_n \frac{a_n}{n!} t^n \right) \frac{dt}{x}$. However, in QFT, there are a couple problems with this method: (1) It does **not** pick up *non-perturbative* effects; & (2) $g(t) \equiv \sum_n \frac{a_n}{n!} t^n$ may have singularities on $t > 0$.

An asymptotic expansion is something that becomes more accurate as $g \rightarrow 0$ with k fixed. A power series is something which becomes more accurate as $k \rightarrow 0$ with g fixed.

Mollifiers and 0-dim QFT: The idea is to mollify the *Partition Function* in order to be able to perform Monte Carlo computations in Minkowski spacetime! 😊

$$Z[j] = \frac{\int_U \left\{ \int_{\Gamma} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) e^{iS[\phi] + i \int \phi} [d\phi] \right\} [d\varphi]}{\int_U \left\{ \int_{\Gamma} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) e^{iS[\phi]} [d\phi] \right\} [d\varphi]},$$

Note that U is the domain of the mollifier, while Γ is the domain of the action. It is important to realize that Γ need **not** be the real line! Different domains of integration will give rise to different solutions of the field equations, therefore enabling us to pick distinct **phases** of the theory. (Note that the choice of domain of integration is intimately related to the definition of the **measure** of the path integral. Furthermore, it's completely analogous to choosing boundary conditions for the Schwinger-Dyson equations.) This is of utmost importance for **symmetry breaking!** 😊

[Monte Carlo] Simulations: In order to better perform the MC simulation we'll perform importance sampling and it's very convenient to choose a *sampling/importance function*, j_ϵ , that better resembles the integrand that we're dealing with. The job of the importance sampling is to pick out the most contributing pieces of the integrand and sample them better than the pieces that do not contribute all that much for our integration.

Choosing a Gaussian mollifier (see below), our choice of sampling function is (note that it amounts to performing a saddle-point/stationary phase expansion in the above integrand):

$$j_\epsilon(x) = \frac{e^{-(x/\epsilon)^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\epsilon};$$

$$W_\epsilon(\varphi) = \left| \frac{\exp\left\{i S(\varphi_0) - \frac{1}{2} S' \cdot (1 + \epsilon \cdot S'' \cdot \epsilon)^{-1} \cdot S'\right\}}{\sqrt{1 + \epsilon \cdot S'' \cdot \epsilon}} \right|.$$

→ **Examples:** In what follows, we'll show how this method works with the ϕ^3 - and ϕ^4 -theories (in 0-dim).

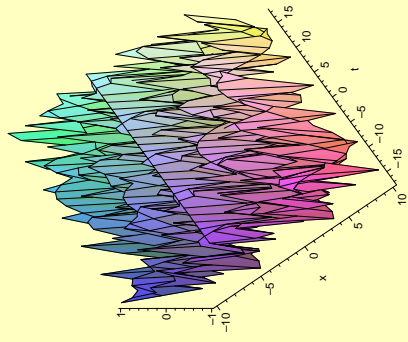
Airy Function:

$$\mathcal{Z}[J] = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{i\frac{\phi^3}{3} + iJ\phi\right\} d\phi}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left\{i\frac{\phi^3}{3}\right\} d\phi} \equiv \frac{\text{Ai}(J)}{\text{Ai}(0)}, \quad (2)$$

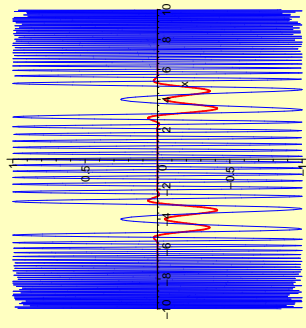
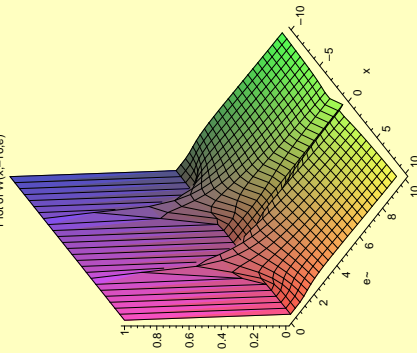
$$\mathcal{Z}[J] = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) \exp\left\{i\frac{\phi^3}{3} + iJ\phi\right\} d\phi d\varphi}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) \exp\left\{i\frac{\phi^3}{3}\right\} d\phi d\varphi} \equiv \frac{\text{Ai}(J)}{\text{Ai}(0)}. \quad (3)$$

Airy Function (cont'd):

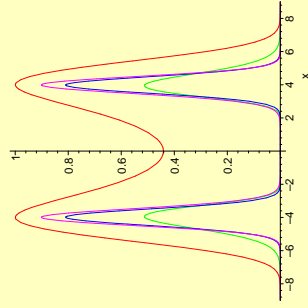
Plot of $\text{Re}(e^{i\pi} S(x, t))$



Plot of $W(x, -16e)$



Legend
Re($e^{i\pi} S(x, -16)$)
Im($e^{i\pi} S(x, -16)$)



Legend
 $W(x, -16.030)$
 $W(x, -16.008)$
 $W(x, -16.088)$

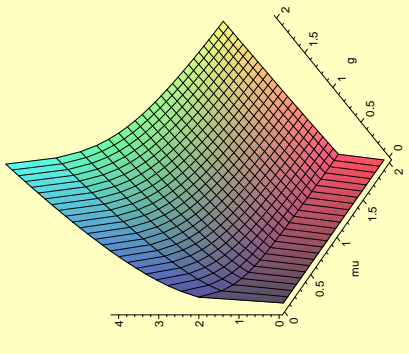
ϕ^4 -theory:

$$Z[J] = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{\Gamma} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) \exp\left\{i\frac{\mu}{2}\phi^2 + i\frac{g}{4}\phi^4 - iJ\phi\right\} d\phi d\varphi}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{\Gamma} j_{\epsilon}(\varphi - \phi) \exp\left\{i\frac{\mu}{2}\phi^2 + i\frac{g}{4}\phi^4\right\} d\phi d\varphi}.$$

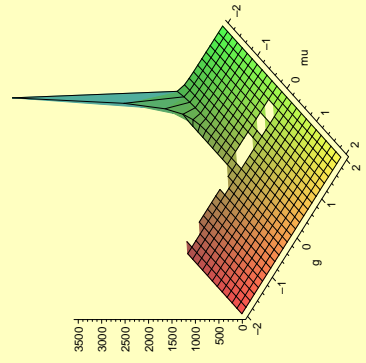
As usual, its parameters, (m, g) , will determine the phase structure of the theory. The following are the plots of the 2-point Green's function in the symmetric ($\mu \geq 0$) and broken-symmetric ($\mu < 0$) phases, respectively.

ϕ^4 -theory (cont'd):

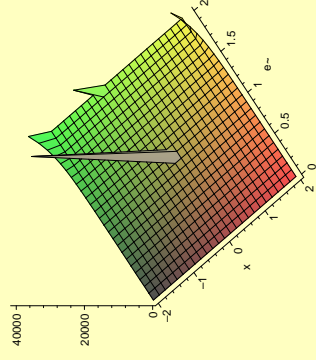
($m\mu^2=0$, g has higher order corrections)



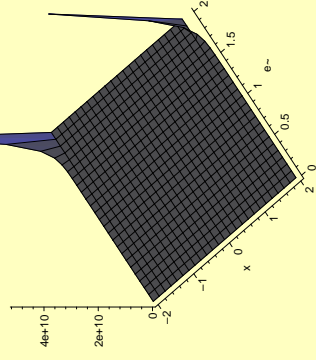
Broken Symmetric Phase
2-point Green's function at $\text{sp}(m\mu/g)$



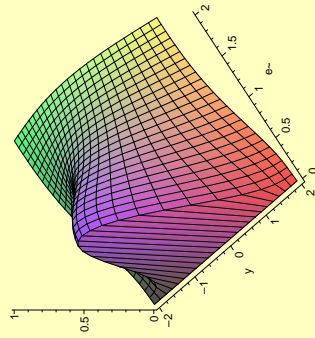
$w(x,-1,e)$



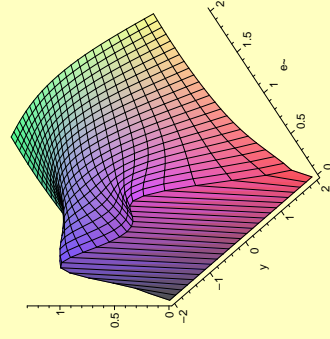
$w(x,1,e)$



$\langle \exp(-s(y,1,1,e)) \rangle$



$\langle \exp(-s(y,-1,1,e)) \rangle$



FT: Source-Galerkin in 0-dimensions

→ The Galerkin Technique: Given a differential equation $D[u] = 0$ an approximate solution can be obtained via the following method:

$$u_a = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i \phi_i(x) ;$$

Residue Equation: $R(a, x) = D(u_a) \neq 0$.

Solving the equation is equivalent to determining such set of coefficients $\{a\}$ that,

$$R(a, x) = 0 .$$

The Galerkin Technique (cont'd):

- Define inner product of two functions;
- Choose a set of weight functions w_i ;
- A set of equations is constructed by requiring that inner product of the residue with weight functions is equal to zero: $(R, w_i) = 0, \quad i = 0, \dots, N$;
- Provided that w_i are members of a complete set of functions the procedure outlined above guarantees that as $N \rightarrow \infty$ approximate solution u_a converges to the exact solution u in the mean; &
- The procedure outlined above is called the method of weighted residues. A specific choice of weight functions $w_i = \phi_i$ is called Galerkin method.

The Galerkin Technique (cont'd):

- We know from mathematics that Galerkin technique produces approximate solution, which converges to the exact solution as number of terms goes to infinity;
- In practice, the series has to be truncated. It likely that for nontrivial theories calculations for $N > 8$ will be impossible to perform. So we must ensure rapid convergence of the method and that high accuracy can be achieved even with a few terms in the ansatz; &
- The method in question produces approximate solution which converges to the exact solution in the mean. This implies that the accuracy of the result depends on the choice of inner product.

The Ultralocal ϕ^4 :

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{g}{4}\phi^4 + \frac{\mu}{2}\phi^2 - j\phi;$$

$$0 = \left(\mu \frac{d}{dj} + g \frac{d^3}{dj^3} - j \right) Z;$$

$$Z(j) = Z(0) \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} G_k j^k \right);$$

$$0 = gG_{n+3} + \mu G_{n+1} - nG_{n-1};$$

$$G_{2n} = (2n-1)!! \frac{U(n,t) + (-1)^n \rho U(n,-t)}{U(0,t) + \rho U(0,-t)};$$

$$G_{2n+1} = \frac{2n!!}{n!} (-t)^n \frac{V(n + \frac{1}{2}, t)}{V(\frac{1}{2}, t)} \alpha \frac{t^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{\frac{t^2}{4}}}{U(0,t) + \rho U(0,-t)};$$

where $t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2g}}; \mu = 1$

• **The Numerical Solution:** In analogy with the theoretical solution, a truncated power series can be chosen as an ansatz.

$$Z_a(j) = \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{1}{k!} a_k j^k$$

Residual equations are obtained using one of the inner products presented below.

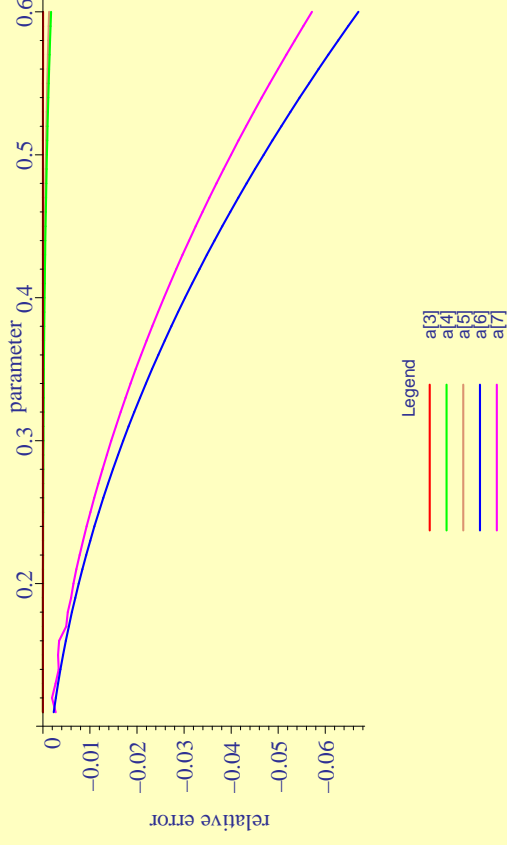
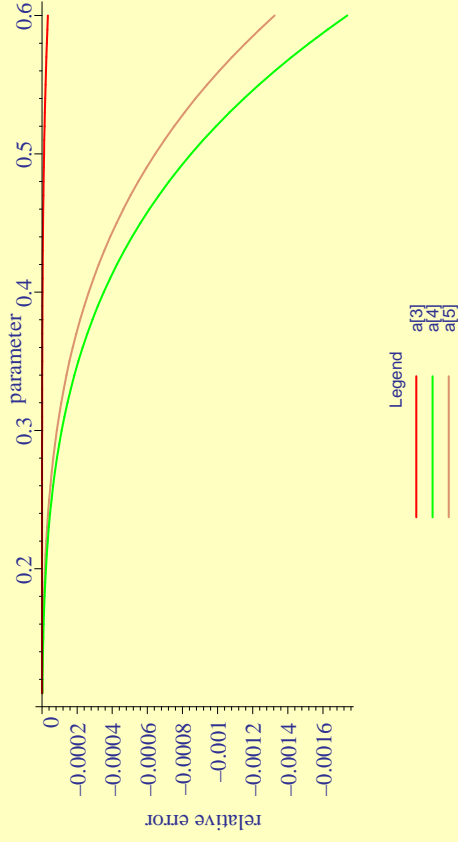
1.

$$\int_{-c}^c j^n R(j) dj, \quad n = 0, \dots, N - 3.$$

2.

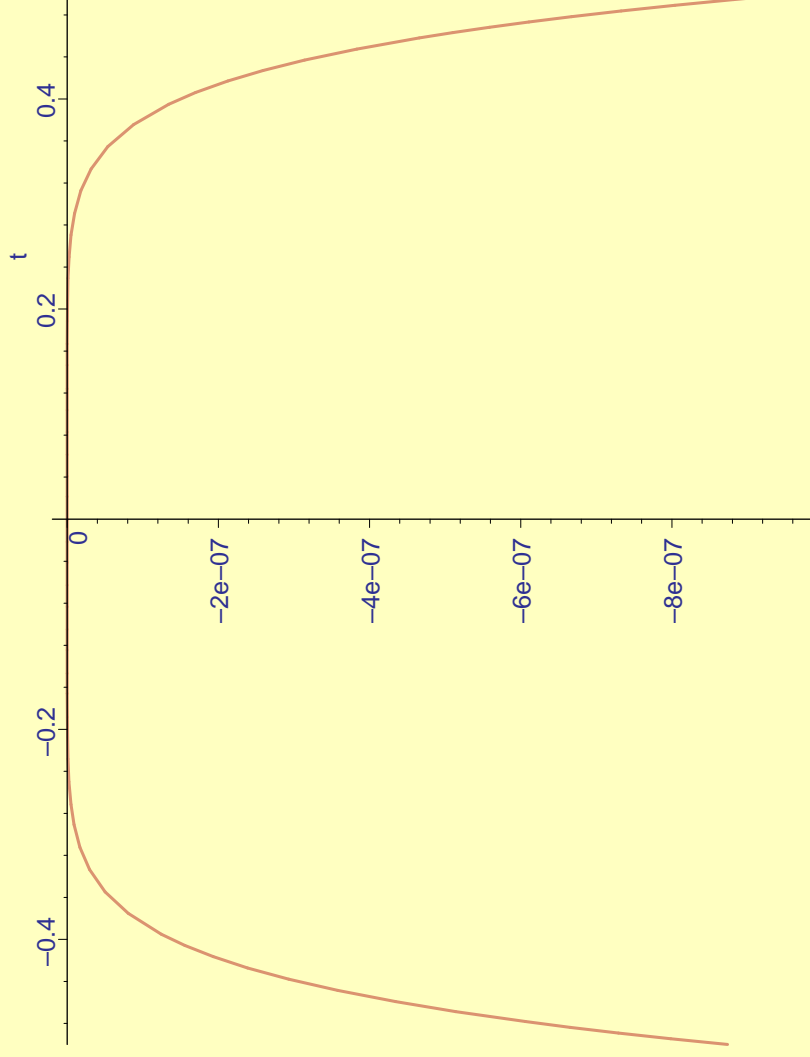
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} j^n R(j) \exp\left[-\frac{j^2}{\epsilon^2}\right] dj, \quad n = 0, \dots, N - 3.$$

The Numerical Solution (cont'd):



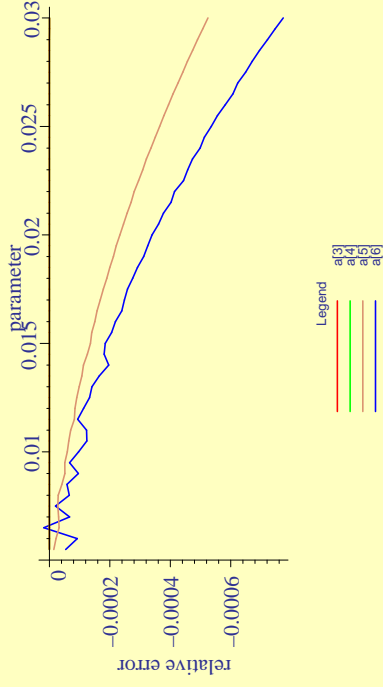
order by order relative error is plotted for N=7 and residual equations derived from $\int_{-c}^c j^n R(j) dj$ with respect to the range of integration c .

The Numerical Solution (cont'd):

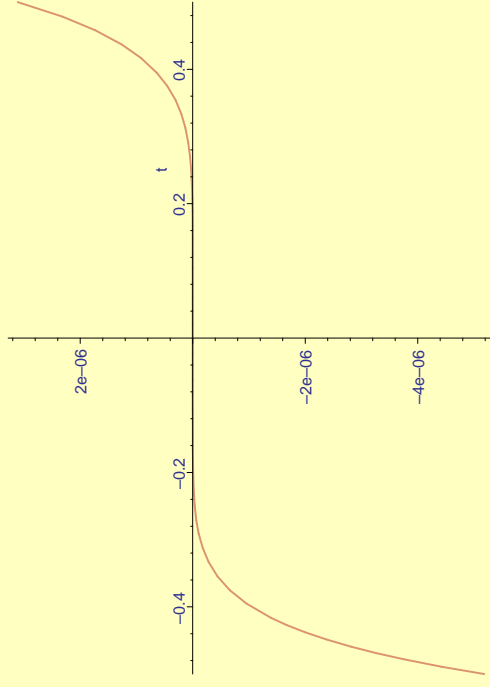


Absolute error in the generating functional $Z_\alpha(j)$ is plotted with respect to the value of j .

The Numerical Solution (cont'd):



Order by order relative error is plotted for $N \equiv 6$ with respect to the parameter ϵ .



Absolute error in the generating functional $Z_a(j)$ is plotted with respect to the value of j . Residual equations derived from

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} j^n R(j) \exp\left[-\frac{j^2}{\epsilon}\right] dj .$$

The Numerical Solution in Hermite Polynomials:

set of Hermite polynomials is defined by

$$H_n(\xi) = (-1)^n \exp\left\{\frac{\xi^2}{\epsilon^2}\right\} \frac{d^n \exp\left\{-\frac{\xi^2}{\epsilon^2}\right\}}{d\xi^n}$$

Or by a recursion relation

$$\begin{aligned} H_0(\xi) &= 1, \\ H_{n+1}(\xi) &= \frac{2\xi}{\epsilon^2} H_n(\xi) - H'_n(\xi). \end{aligned}$$

These polynomials are orthogonal under following inner product

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_k(x) H_l(x) \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{\epsilon^2}\right) dx = \delta^{kl}$$

The Numerical Solution in Hermite Polynomials (cont'd):

Now the trial function for the generating functional can be written as

$$Z_a(j) = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i H_i(j).$$

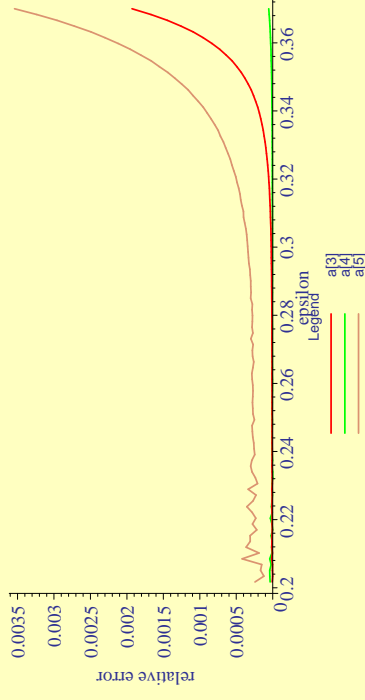
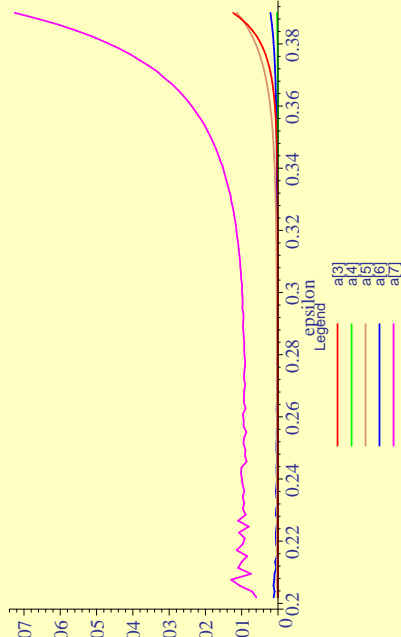
The residue is computed by substituting the above expression into the Schwinger-Dyson equations.

$$R(j) = \sum_{i=0}^N a_i \left(\mu \frac{d}{dj} H_i(j) - g \frac{d^3}{dj^3} H_i(j) + j H_i(j) \right).$$

Finally, a set of equations is obtained by requiring that the residue is orthogonal to a set of Hermite polynomials.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{i=0}^N a_i \left(\mu \frac{d}{dx} H_i(x) - g \frac{d^3}{dx^3} H_i(x) + j H_i(x) \right) \times H_k(x) \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{\epsilon^2}\right) dx = 0.$$

The Numerical Solution in Hermite Polynomials (cont'd):



Order by order relative error is plotted for $N = 7$ and $N = 5$. Residual equations derived from
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_n(j) R(j) \exp\left[-\frac{j^2}{\epsilon}\right] dj$$

with respect to the parameter ϵ .