AN EXPLICIT DESCRIPTION OF THE RADIATION FIELD IN
3 + 1-DIMENSIONS

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Abstract. In previous work with A. Vasy and J. Wunsch, the author established an as-
symptotic expansion for the radiation field on asymptotically Minkowski spacetimes and
showed that the exponents seen in the expansion are given by the poles of a meromorphic
family of operators on the spacetime’s “boundary at infinity”. This note provides an explicit
accounting of these poles when the spacetime is 3 + 1-dimensional Minkowski space. We
conclude by stating the “resonant states” for the first few resonances and then posing a
combinatorial problem.

1. Introduction

For a forward solution $u$ of the inhomogeneous wave equation on Minkowski space,
$$\Box u = f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3 \times \mathbb{R}),$$
(or, equivalently, a solution $u$ of the homogeneous wave equation with compactly supported
initial data), the Friedlander radiation field of $u$ encodes the behavior of $u$ near null infinity.
With A. Vasy and J. Wunsch [1, 2], the author established an asymptotic expansion of
the radiation field on a class of asymptotically Minkowski spacetimes and showed that the
exponents of the expansion were given by the poles of a meromorphic family of operators
(called $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ in those papers) on the boundary at infinity. The purpose of this note is to
identify explicitly these poles in the setting of (3 + 1)-dimensional Minkowski space. In
particular, we prove the following theorem:

Theorem 1. The poles of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ are simple and located at $-\imath(k + 1)$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$. The
rank of the polar part of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ at $\sigma = -\imath(k + 1)$ is $\sum_{j=0}^{k} \dim(E_j) = (k + 1)^2$, where $E_j$ is the
eigenspace of $\Delta_{S^2}$ with eigenvalue $j$.

The rest of the introduction is devoted to explaining and motivating Theorem 1.

Suppose that $u$ is the solution of the homogeneous wave equation (or, equivalently, a
forward solution of the inhomogeneous wave equation) on 3 + 1-dimensional Minkowski
space:
$$\Box u = \partial_t^2 - \Delta u = 0 \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^3$$
$$\left(u, \partial_t u\right)|_{t=0} = (\phi, \psi) \in C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3) \times C_c^\infty(\mathbb{R}^3)$$
We now introduce polar coordinates $(r, \omega)$ in the spatial variables as well as a “lapse”
parameter $s = t - r$ and define an auxiliary function
$$v(r, s, \omega) = r^{-1} u(s + r, r \omega).$$
Friedlander [3] observed that the function $v$ is smooth in $\rho = r^{-1}$ and so can be extended to $\rho = 0$. The Friedlander radiation field of $u$ is then given by

$$\mathcal{R}_+[u](s,\omega) = \lim_{r \to \infty} \partial_s v(r,s,\omega).$$

In Minkowski spaces (and other static spacetimes), the radiation field has a number of desirable properties: Not only is it a unitary translation representation of the wave group, it can also be thought of as generalizing the Radon transform of the initial data. (Indeed, in $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^3$, if the initial data are $(0,\psi)$, then the radiation field is just the Radon transform of $\psi$.)

In previous work [1, 2], the author and collaborators showed that the radiation field admits an asymptotic expansion for suitably nice data. Indeed, on a class of asymptotically Minkowski spacetimes, the radiation field exists and admits an asymptotic expansion in powers of $s^{-1}$. The exponents seen arise as the poles of a meromorphic family of Fredholm operators, denoted $P_\sigma^{-1}$ on the “boundary at infinity”.

We let $M$ denote the radial compactification of Minkowski space with a defining function $\rho$ for the boundary. In other words, we can consider $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^3$ as the interior of a compact manifold with boundary via the coordinate change

$$t = \frac{1}{\rho} \cos \theta, \quad x = \frac{1}{\rho} \omega_j \sin \theta,$$

where $\omega_j \in \mathbb{S}^2$ and $\theta \in \mathbb{S}^1$. We denote by $C_\pm$ (depending on the sign of $t$) the regions of the boundary sphere $X \cong \mathbb{S}^3$ corresponding to where $|t| \gg |x|$, while we denote by $C_0$ the region of $X$ where $|t| \ll |x|$. These regions of $X$ naturally inherit conformal families of metrics; on Minkowski space, $C_\pm$ are naturally conformal to $\mathbb{H}^3$ and $C_0$ is naturally conformal to $2 + 1$-dimensional de Sitter space.

It is the region where $|t| \sim |x|$ that is of the most interest; we denote these regions by $S_\pm$ depending on the sign of $t$. By blowing up (in the algebro-geometric sense) the submanifolds $S_\pm$ in $M$, we obtain a manifold with corners that has two new boundary faces, denoted $\mathcal{I}_\pm$ and corresponding to past and future null infinity. Figure 1 provides a schematic view of this blow-up. The radiation field $\mathcal{R}_+[u]$ is then the rescaled restriction of $u$ to $\mathcal{I}_+$.}

![Figure 1. A schematic view of the blow-up. The lapse function $s$ increases along $\mathcal{I}^+$ towards $C_+$. In the typical Penrose diagram of Minkowski space, $C_\pm$ are collapsed to $i_\pm$ and $C_0$ is collapsed to $i_0$.](image)

Conjugating $\Box$ by $\rho$, multiplying by $\rho^{-2}$, and then taking the Mellin transform in $\rho$ yields a family of operators $P_\sigma$ on the boundary sphere $X \cong \mathbb{S}^3$. This has the effect of replacing...
all factors of $\rho \partial_\rho$ in $\rho^{-3} \Box \rho$ by $\sigma$. Although $P_\sigma$ is semiclassically hyperbolic (because $\Box$ is hyperbolic), on $C_\pm$ it is classically elliptic (indeed, it can be conjugated to the spectral family for the Laplacian on hyperbolic space). On $C_0$, $P_\sigma$ is hyperbolic and can be conjugated to a Klein-Gordon equation on de Sitter space, while at $S_\pm$ it is degenerate.

The Hamilton vector field of the symbol of $P_\sigma$ is radial at the conormal bundle of $S_\pm$ and so techniques dating back to Melrose [5] and refined by Vasy [6] provide a blueprint for establishing propagation estimates there.

The operator family $P_\sigma$ is not Fredholm on standard Sobolev spaces, but it is when considered on variable-order Sobolev spaces whose regularity lies below some threshold at $S_-$ (depending on the imaginary part of $\sigma$) and is larger than a similar threshold at $S_+$ (again, depending on the imaginary part of $\sigma$). As $P_\sigma$ is then invertible on these spaces for very large $\text{Im} \sigma$, we may invert to obtain a meromorphic family of Fredholm operators $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$. Because all light rays in Minkowski space escape to infinity, $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ has only finitely many poles in any horizontal strip in $\mathbb{C}$. The main result of both previous papers [1, 2] is that the radiation field for a forward solution has an asymptotic expansion whose exponents are these poles, which are identified as the resonances of the asymptotically hyperbolic operator at $C_+$. For 3 + 1-dimensional Minkowski space, however, this asymptotically hyperbolic operator is the spectral family of the Laplacian on $\mathbb{H}^3$, which has no resonances. In this case, the resonant states associated to the poles of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ must be supported in $S_+$ (rather than $C_+$).

Theorem 1 describes the locations of these poles and the dimension of the corresponding nullspace of $P_\sigma$.

The proof of Theorem 1 proceeds in several steps. We first recall from [1] that any resonant state must be supported at the intersection of the light cones and the boundary at infinity because odd-dimensional hyperbolic space has no resonances. This reduces the problem of finding the null spaces of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ (and the corresponding resonant states) to understanding when $P_{\sigma}$ has nullspace consisting of a distribution of the form

$$\sum_{k=0}^{M} a_k \delta^{(k)}(v) \otimes \phi_\lambda,$$

where $\phi_\lambda$ is a spherical harmonic with eigenvalue $\lambda$. This immediately implies that the poles of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ are contained in the negative imaginary integers and reduces the problem of finding the null spaces of an explicit family of matrices. For $\sigma = -i(M + 1)$, $P_\sigma$ preserves the family of such distributions and so the problem of finding the null space of $P_\sigma$ reduces to a linear algebra problem. We write down the matrix representing $P_\sigma$ and compute its determinant explicitly. This shows that the matrix has one-dimensional null space precisely when $\lambda = k(k + 1)$ for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, M$ and hence that $P_{-i(M+1)}$ has null space of dimension

$$\sum_{k=0}^{M} \dim(E_k),$$

where $E_k$ is the space of spherical harmonics with eigenvalue $k(k + 1)$.

Unfortunately, finding the elements of the null space explicitly is sufficiently complicated that we were unable to solve it here by purely combinatorial means. It is perhaps surprising how difficult it is to find an explicit expression for elements of the nullspace of $P_{-i(k+1)}$. However, given the connection of the radiation field with the Radon transform, such an expression would provide an explicit formula for the Radon transform in terms of spherical
harmonics. Such formulas exist but are similarly complicated (and have representation-theoretic underpinnings).

In Section 2 we describe some of the geometry of the radial compactification of Minkowski space, and then in Section 3 we define the operator $P_\sigma$ and recall some of its properties. We also introduce a convenient coordinate system that simplifies the linear algebra in the following section. Section 4 recasts the problem of describing the poles and corresponding resonant states in terms of linear algebra and finishes the proof of Theorem 1. Included in Section 4 is the exact form of the resonant states corresponding to the first few poles of $P^{-1}_\sigma$. Finally, in Section 5 we conclude by appealing for a combinatorial expression for the elements of the null space of $P_\sigma$ in this context.

2. Geometry

The radiation field is the rescaled restriction of a solution $u$ of the wave equation to null infinity. In this section we describe a compactification of Minkowski space on which this statement is a natural one.

We begin by introducing coordinates on Minkowski space given by
\[
t = \frac{1}{\rho} \cos \theta
\]
\[
x = \frac{1}{\rho} \omega_j \sin \theta
\]
where $\omega_j \in S^2$. In terms of these coordinates, the metric on Minkowski space is given by
\[
g := -dt^2 + \sum_{j=1}^3 dx_j^2 = -\cos 2\theta \frac{d\rho^2}{\rho^4} - 4 \sin \theta \cos \theta \frac{d\theta \, d\rho}{\rho^2} + \cos 2\theta \frac{d\theta^2}{\rho^2} + \sin^2 \theta \frac{d\omega^2}{\rho^2}
\]
We now replace the coordinate $\theta$ by $v = \cos 2\theta$ to obtain
\[
g = -\frac{v}{\rho^2} \frac{d\rho^2}{\rho^4} + \frac{dv}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{\rho^2} + \frac{v}{4(1-v^2)} \frac{dv^2}{\rho^2} + \frac{1 - v}{2} \frac{d\omega^2}{\rho^2}
\]
The inverse metric (in coordinates $(\rho, v, \omega)$) is then given by
\[
g^{-1} \to \begin{pmatrix}
-v \rho^4 & 2(1-v^2) \rho^3 & 0 \\
2(1-v^2) \rho^3 & 4v(1-v^2) \rho^2 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \frac{2\rho^2}{1-v} h^{-1}
\end{pmatrix},
\]
where $h$ is the standard (round) metric on $S^2$.

This radial compactification of Minkowski space has two distinguished submanifolds where $\rho = 0$ and $v = 0$, which we call $S_\pm$ ($S_\pm$ are distinguished by the sign of $t - S_+$ is the set in the future where $\rho = 0$ and $v = 0$, while $S_-$ is the corresponding set in the past.

3. The Operators

The central object of study is the operator $L$, given by
\[
L = \rho^{-3} \Box_g \rho.
\]
Here the conjugation by $\rho$ should be thought of as accounting for the standard decay for solutions of the wave equation, while the prefactor of $\rho^{-2}$ turns a “scattering operator” in the sense of Melrose [5] into a “b-operator” [4].
We record here the precise form of $L$:

$$L = v(\rho \partial_{\rho})^2 + (2 + 4v)\rho \partial_{\rho} - 4(1 - v^2)\rho \partial_{\rho} \partial_{\nu} - 4v(1 - v^2)\partial_{v}^2 - 4(1 - v - 3v^2)\partial_{v} - \frac{2}{1 - v} \Delta_{\omega} + (2 + 3v)$$

The operator $P_{\sigma}$ is the reduced normal operator $\hat{N}(L)(\sigma)$, which effectively replaces $\rho \partial_{\rho}$ by $\rho \sigma$ and is obtained by conjugating $L$ by the Mellin transform in $\rho$:

$$P_{\sigma} = -v\rho^2 + (2 + 4v)\rho \sigma - 4\rho \sigma(1 - v^2)\partial_{\nu} - 4v(1 - v^2)\partial_{v}^2 - 4(1 - v - 3v^2)\partial_{v} - \frac{2}{1 - v} \Delta_{\omega} + (2 + 3v)$$

Although the expression above for $P_{\sigma}$ is useful for the global problem of identifying the Fredholm properties of $P_{\sigma}$, for our explicit computation it is more convenient to work with a different coordinate system valid near $S_+$. For the remainder of this note, we instead take

$$\rho = \frac{1}{t + r}, \quad v = \frac{t - r}{t + r}.$$ 

In these coordinates, we may write

$$\Box = \partial_{t}^2 - \partial_{r}^2 - \frac{2}{r} \partial_{r} - \frac{1}{r^2} \Delta_{\omega}$$

$$= 4\rho^2 \left[ -\rho \partial_{\rho} \partial_{\nu} + \frac{1}{1 - v} (\rho \partial_{\rho} + (1 + v) \partial_{v} - \frac{1}{(1 - v)^2} \Delta_{\omega} \right]$$

We then have

$$L = \rho^{-3} \Box \rho = 4 \left[ -\rho \partial_{\rho} \partial_{\nu} - 2\partial_{\nu} - v\partial_{\nu} + \frac{1}{1 - v} (\rho \partial_{\rho} + (1 + v) \partial_{v} - \frac{1}{(1 - v)^2} \Delta_{\omega} \right]$$

and

$$P_{\sigma} = 4 \left[ -(\sigma + 2) \partial_{\nu} - v\partial_{\nu}^2 + \frac{\sigma + 1}{1 - v} + \frac{1 + v}{1 - v} \partial_{v} - \frac{1}{(1 - v)^2} \Delta_{\omega} \right].$$

We may then multiply $P_{\sigma}$ by $(1 - v)^2/4$ and group the terms with the same degree of homogeneity:

$$\frac{(1 - v)^2}{4} P_{\sigma} = \left[ -(\sigma + 1) \partial_{\nu} - v\partial_{\nu}^2 \right]$$

$$+ \left[ 2(\sigma + 2)v\partial_{\nu} + 2v^2\partial_{v}^2 + (\sigma + 1) - \Delta_{\omega} \right]$$

$$+ \left[ -(\sigma + 3)v^2\partial_{v} - v^3\partial_{v}^2 - (\sigma + 1)v \right]$$

4. The poles of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$

At each pole of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$, the residue can be identified with an operator whose image is a “resonant state”. As $P_{\sigma}$ is not self-adjoint, the residue operators do not project onto these states, but we abuse terminology by calling them resonant states anyway. We know from the results of [1] that if $f$ is supported away from $C_-$, then $P_{\sigma}^{-1} f$ is supported in $C_+$. Moreover, if $P_{\sigma}^{-1} f$ is not supported in $S_+$, then the pole (and corresponding state) can be identified with a resonance of a Laplace-like operator on $C_+$. In $n + 1$-dimensional Minkowski space, this operator is the Laplacian on $\mathbb{H}^n$.

Because $\mathbb{H}^n$ has no resonances, we can conclude that all resonant states of $P_{\sigma}^{-1}$ on 3 + 1-dimensional Minkowski space must be supported in $S_+$. The resonant states must therefore
be sums of the following form:

\[ \sum_{k=0}^{M} \alpha_k \delta^{(k)}(v) \otimes \phi_\lambda(\omega), \]

where \( \phi_\lambda \) is a spherical harmonic with eigenvalue \( \lambda \).

In the rest of this section, we prove Theorem 1 in several steps. We first compute the action of \( P_\sigma \) on such a sum, which shows that \( P_\sigma \) has no null space unless \( \sigma = -i(M+1) \) for \( M=0,1,\ldots \). For such a \( \sigma \), we then interpret \( \frac{(1-v^2)}{4} P_\sigma \) (which has the same null space as \( P_\sigma \) when acting on such distributions) as a family of matrices depending on \( \lambda \). We compute this determinant and show that the matrix has a 1-dimensional null space exactly when \( \lambda = k(k+1) \) for \( k=0,1,\ldots, M \). Appealing to the well-known dimension of the space of spherical harmonics with eigenvalue \( k(k+1) \) then completes the proof of Theorem 1.

We now record the action of \( \frac{(1-v^2)}{4} P_\sigma \) on distributions of the form above \( (1) \). We rely on the following well-known fact:

\[ v^r \delta^k(v) = \frac{k!}{(k-r)!} \delta^{(k-r)}(v) \]

We then have the following:

\[
\frac{(1-v^2)}{4} P_\sigma (\delta^{(k)}(v) \otimes \phi_\lambda(\omega)) = \left[(-i\sigma + 1) + (k+2)\right] \delta^{(k+1)} \otimes \phi_\lambda \\
+ [-2(i\sigma+2)(k+1)+(k+1)(k+2)+(i\sigma+1)+\lambda] \delta^{(k)} \otimes \phi_\lambda \\
+ [-i(\sigma+3)k(k+1)+k(k+1)(k+2)+(i\sigma+1)k] \delta^{(k-1)} \otimes \phi_\lambda
\]

In particular, for a sum of the form \( (1) \) to lie in the null space of \( P_\sigma \), the leading term must vanish and so \( M + 1 - i\sigma = 0 \), i.e., \( i\sigma = M + 1 \). We may then take \( \sigma = -i(M+1) \), apply \( P_\sigma \) to such a sum, and rearrange the terms to find the following:

\[
\frac{(1-v^2)}{4} P_{-i(M+1)} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{M} \alpha_k \delta^{(k)}(v) \otimes \phi_\lambda(\omega) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{M} \left[ (k-1-M) \alpha_{k-1} \\
+ (\lambda + M + 2 + 2(k+1)(k-M-1)) \alpha_k \\
+ (k+1)(M + 2 + (k+2)(k-M-1)) \alpha_{k+1} \right] \delta^{(k)}(v) \otimes \phi_\lambda(\omega)
\]

We have now reduced the problem to finding a vector of coefficients \( \alpha_k \) so that the sum \( (2) \) vanishes. This is equivalent to finding the null space of a matrix \( M - A_M \), where \( A_M \) is the tridiagonal \( (M+1) \times (M+1) \)-matrix with the following entries:

\[
a_{k,k} = 2(k+1)(M + 1 - k) - M - 2 \\
a_{k-1,k} = k((k+1)(M + 2 - k) - M - 2) \\
a_{k,k-1} = M + 1 - k
\]

Here all indices \( (k \text{ and } k-1) \) should be interpreted as taking the values \( 0,1,\ldots,M \).

The rest of the proof of Theorem 1 then follows from the following proposition:

Note: This formula is a priori valid only for \( r \leq k \), but if we interpret \( (k-r)! = \Gamma(k-r+1) \), then the denominator is infinite for \( r > k \) and so the right-hand side is zero there.
Proposition 2. The matrix $A_M$ has simple eigenvalues $k(k+1)$ for $k = 0, 1, \ldots, M$. In particular, we have that

$$\det(\lambda I - A_M) = p_M(\lambda),$$

where

$$p_k(\lambda) = \prod_{j=0}^{k} (\lambda - j(j + 1)).$$

Proposition 2 follows immediately by taking $k = M$ in the following lemma:

Lemma 3. Let $d_k$ be the determinant of the $(k+1) \times (k+1)$-minor of $\lambda I - A_M$ consisting of the first $k+1$ columns and rows of the matrix (i.e., the columns and rows labeled $0, 1, \ldots, k$). If $p_k(\lambda)$ is as in Proposition 2, then

$$d_k = \sum_{\ell=0}^{k+1} c_{k,\ell} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (M - k + \ell - j) \right) p_{k-\ell}(\lambda),$$

where

$$c_{k,\ell} = \frac{(-1)^\ell}{\ell!} \left( \frac{(k+1)!}{(k+1-\ell)!} \right)^2,$$

and we interpret $p_{-1}(\lambda) = 1$.

Observe that all terms containing $p_{k-\ell}(\lambda)$ with $\ell \geq 1$ in the expression for $d_k$ in Lemma 3 are multiplied by a factor $(M - k)$ and hence vanish when $k = M$, leaving only the term $c_{M,0}p_M(\lambda) = p_M(\lambda)$.

Proof of Lemma 3. The matrix $A_M$ is tridiagonal, so $d_k$ can be computed recursively:

$$d_k = (\lambda - a_{k,k})d_{k-1} + a_{k,k-1}a_{k-1,k}d_{k-2}.$$

We therefore proceed by induction, interpreting $d_{-1} = 1$ so that the lemma holds for $k = -1$. In particular, we have $c_{-1,0} = 1$ and $c_{-1,\ell} = 0$ for $\ell \geq 1$.

In computing below, we use the following relationship between the $p_k$:

$$\lambda p_{k-1-\ell}(\lambda) = p_{k-\ell}(\lambda) + (k - \ell)(k - \ell + 1)p_{k-1-\ell}(\lambda)$$

We now compute the two terms in the recursive expression for $d_k$. We first have the following:

$$(\lambda - a_{k,k})d_{k-1} = (\lambda + M + 2 - 2(k+1)(M + 1 - k)) \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} c_{k-1,\ell} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{\ell} (M - k + 1 + \ell - j) \right) p_{k-1-\ell}(\lambda)$$

$$= \sum_{\ell=0}^{k} c_{k-1,\ell} \left( \prod_{j=0}^{\ell-1} (M - k + \ell - j) \right) p_{k-\ell}(\lambda)$$

$$+ \sum_{\ell=1}^{k+1} c_{k-1,\ell-1} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{\ell-1} (M - k + \ell - j) \right) [(k - \ell + 1)(k - \ell + 2) + M + 2 - 2(k+1)(M + 1 - k)] p_{k-\ell}(\lambda)$$
The second term is given by

\[ a_{k-1,k}a_{k-1,k}d_{k-2} = \sum_{\ell=2}^{k+1} c_{k-2,\ell-2} \left( \prod_{j=1}^{\ell-1} (M - k + \ell - j) \right) k(M + 2 + (k + 1)(k - M - 2)) p_{k-\ell}(\lambda) \]

Adding the two terms and equating coefficients with the desired expression for \( d_k \), we find that

\[
(M - k)c_{k,\ell} = (M - k + \ell)c_{k-1,\ell} \\
+ [(k - \ell + 1)(k - \ell + 2) + 2(k + 1)(k - M - 1) + M + 2] c_{k-1,\ell-1} \\
+ k [M + 2 + (k + 1)(k - M - 2)] c_{k-2,\ell-2}.
\]

We rewrite this equation suggestively:

\[
(M - k)c_{k,\ell} = (M - k) \left( c_{k-1,\ell} - (2k + 1)c_{k-1,\ell-1} - k^2 c_{k-2,\ell-2} \right) \\
+ \ell c_{k-1,\ell} + ((k - \ell + 1)(k - \ell + 2) - k) c_{k-1,\ell-1} - k^2 c_{k-2,\ell-2}
\]

Equation (3) and the induction hypothesis then imply that

\[
c_{k,\ell} = c_{k-1,\ell} - (2k + 1)c_{k-1,\ell-1} - k^2 c_{k-2,\ell-2}
\]

finishing the proof of the lemma.

4.1. The first few resonant states. In this section we record the first five sets of eigenvectors of the matrix \( A_M \).

For \( M = 0 \), we have that \( A_0 = (0) \), so its only eigenvalue is 0 with eigenvector (1).
For \( M = 1 \), we have that

\[ A_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \]
so that the eigenvectors are
\[ v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \]

For \( M = 2 \), we have
\[ A_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \]
with eigenvectors
\[ v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \]

For \( M = 3 \), we record the matrix
\[ A_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 7 & 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 & 9 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}, \]
so that the eigenvectors are
\[ v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ 6 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_6 = \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ -6 \\ 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 18 \\ 9 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \]

Finally, for \( M = 4 \), the matrix is
\[ A_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 10 & 12 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 12 & 18 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 10 & 16 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \]
so that the eigenvectors are
\[ v_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 24 \\ -24 \\ 12 \\ 12 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -24 \\ 12 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_6 = \begin{pmatrix} 24 \\ -12 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_{12} = \begin{pmatrix} -24 \\ 12 \\ 8 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_{20} = \begin{pmatrix} 24 \\ 96 \\ 8 \\ 16 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \]

5. A combinatorial problem

We conclude this note by posing a combinatorial problem. In principle it is possible to determine the resonant states of \( P_{\sigma^{-1}} \) by purely combinatorial means. Specifically, this would be achieved by explicitly finding the eigenvectors of the matrix \( A_M \) above. The computation above shows that the eigenvalues are \( k(k+1) \) for \( k = 0, \ldots, M \).

**Problem 4.** Find a general expression for the eigenvectors of the matrix \( A_M \).
The resolution of this problem would provide an explicit formula for the resonant states of $P_\sigma$ on Minkowski space and thus give an explicit expression for the radiation field in terms of spherical harmonics. Such a formula would then make it feasible to compute the radiation field explicitly for non-trivial examples.

Moreover, given the connection between the radiation field and the Radon transform, such a formula should also recover a formula for the Radon transform in terms of a spherical harmonic decomposition. Existing formulas typically rely on the Funk–Hecke formula and thus involve the Legendre polynomials. We therefore expect that the general expression for the eigenvectors of $A_M$ ought to be expressible in terms of coefficients of Legendre polynomials.

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