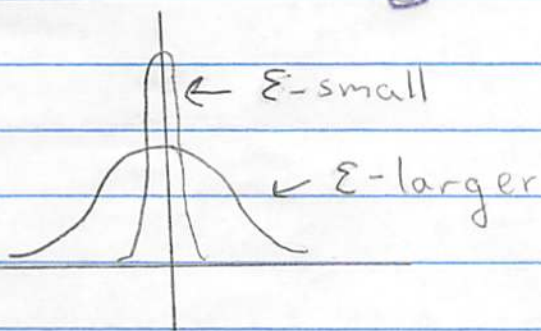


Brief Review of δ -fns

A Dirac Sequence $\delta_\varepsilon(x)$ a family of (symmetric $\delta_\varepsilon(-x) = \delta_\varepsilon(x)$) functions parametrized by ε whose integral is unity, but which approaches zero (or more precisely whose integral approaches zero) in any closed interval not containing the origin as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$

Examples

① Gaussians (not that common)



$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\varepsilon^2}} e^{-x^2/2\varepsilon^2}$$

② Lorentzians (quite common)

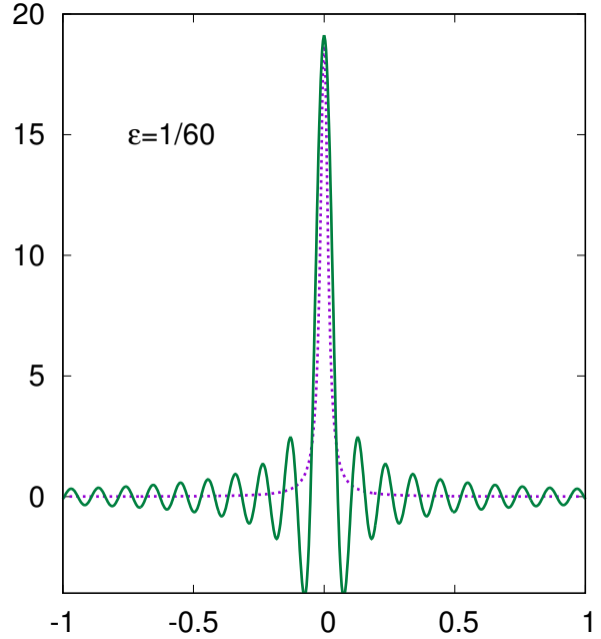
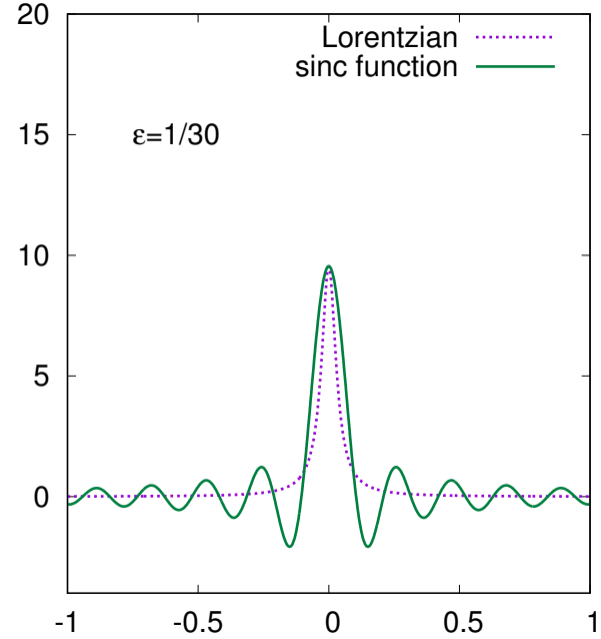
See figure on next page

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\varepsilon}{x^2 + \varepsilon^2}$$

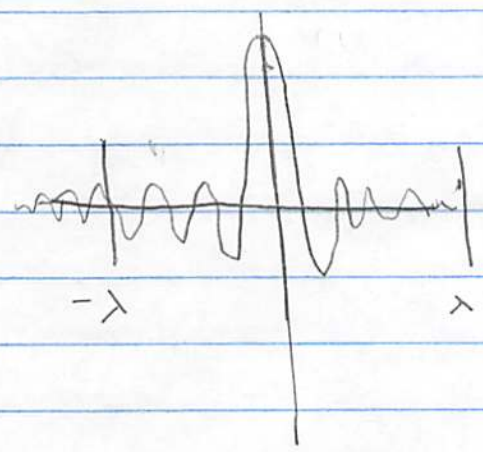
③ Sinc function (very common)

See figure on next page

$$\frac{\sin(x/\varepsilon)}{\pi x}$$



Lets look at the sinc-fcn (see handout)



- it does not approach zero as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ for $x \neq 0$. Only its integral in any interval approaches 0.

- Pick an interval $[-\lambda, \lambda]$ with $\lambda \ll 1$ but $\lambda \gg \epsilon$ and integrate

Then

$$I = \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} \frac{\sin(x/\epsilon)}{\pi x} dx$$

$$= \int_{-\lambda}^{\lambda} \frac{\sin(x/\epsilon)}{\pi(x/\epsilon)} \frac{dx}{\epsilon}$$

measure x in units of ϵ

$$= \int_{-\lambda/\epsilon}^{\lambda/\epsilon} \frac{\sin(u)}{\pi u} du$$

change variables $u = x/\epsilon$

Look at limits as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ with λ fixed
 $\lambda/\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(u)}{\pi u} du$$

take $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$

$$I = 1$$

we will do this integral later in course

• Thus $\frac{\sin(x/\epsilon)}{\pi x}$ is a dirac sequence!

For any smooth test fcn

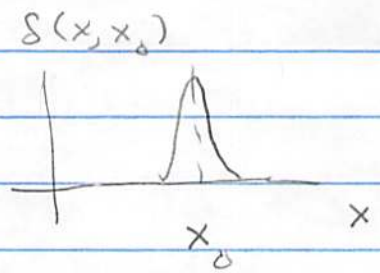
$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int dx \delta_{\epsilon}(x) f(x) = f(0)$$

Can show:

sometimes written $\delta(x, x_0)$

① $\int dx \delta(x - x_0) f(x) = f(x_0)$

② $\delta(ax) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta(x)$



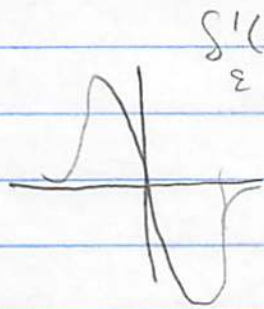
③ $\delta(g(x)) = \sum_a \frac{1}{|g'(x_a)|} \delta(x - x_a)$

Here x_a are the places where $g(x_a) = 0$ and $g(x) \approx g'(x_a)(x - x_a)$ near x_a

④ For any given family of functions can integrate by parts

$$\int_{-x_0}^{x_0} dx \frac{d}{dx} \delta_{\epsilon}(x, x_0) f(x) = \int_{x_0-\lambda}^{x_0+\lambda} dx \delta(x, x_0) \left(-\frac{df}{dx}\right) = -f'(x_0)$$

But note, since $\delta_\epsilon(x)$ is even $\delta_\epsilon(x) = \delta_\epsilon(-x)$, $\delta'_\epsilon(x)$ is odd:



$$\frac{d}{dx_0} \delta_\epsilon(x-x_0) = -\frac{d}{dx} \delta_\epsilon(x-x_0)$$

So

$$\int dx \frac{d}{dx_0} \delta(x-x_0) f(x) = f'(x_0)$$

(5) Then the integral of the δ -fun gives

$$\int_{-\infty}^x \delta(x-x_0) = \Theta(x-x_0)$$

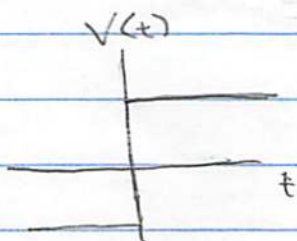
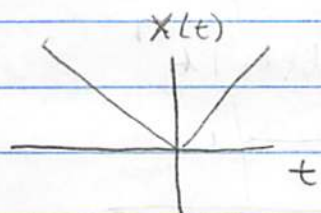
← or $\Theta(x, x_0)$

$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > x_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < x_0 \\ \text{ambiguous:} \\ \text{usually} \\ 1/2 & \text{if } x = x_0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \Theta(x, x_0) = \delta(x-x_0)$$

Example: Particle with a kick: $\dot{x}(t) = x_0 + \int_{-\infty}^t \alpha(t') dt'$

$$x(t) = |t|$$



$$\alpha(t) = 2\delta(t)$$

Formally

$$x(t) = t\theta(t) - t\theta(-t)$$

$$v(t) = \dot{x} = \left[\theta(t) + t\delta(t) - \theta(-t) + t\delta(t) \right]$$

$$= \left(\theta(t) - \theta(-t) + \underline{2t\delta(t)} \right)$$

throw away
term
or keep?

$$a(t) = \left(\delta(t) + \delta(t) + \underline{2\delta(t)} + 2t\delta'(t) \right)$$

$$= \left(2\delta(t) + \underline{2\delta(t)} - 2\delta(t) \right)$$

use
(4)

$$a(t) = 2\delta(t)$$

doesn't matter

In cases where there is ambiguity,
you will need to use fourier analysis.
We will turn to this next.

The Hilbert space:

- For definiteness take periodic functions from $[-L/2, L/2]$, $f(x)$, sometimes called vectors.
- Closed under addition and multiplication by complex numbers, etc, i.e.

$k_1 f_1(x) + k_2 f_2(x)$ is in the Hilbert Space

- Comes with an inner product

$\langle g, f \rangle = \text{complex number}$

which is a linear map from the functions to numbers. Almost always in physics this takes the form:

$$\int_a^b dx g^*(x) f(x) w(x)$$

positive definite weight function.

This is 1 for periodic fns

Required properties:

① $\langle g, k_1 f_1 + k_2 f_2 \rangle = k_1 \langle g, f_1 \rangle + k_2 \langle g, f_2 \rangle$

② $\langle g, f \rangle^* = \langle f, g \rangle$

So

$$\langle k_1 g_1 + k_2 g_2, f \rangle = k_1^* \langle g_1, f \rangle + k_2^* \langle g_2, f \rangle$$

(3) Then $\langle f, f \rangle \geq 0$ with $\langle f, f \rangle = 0$ iff $f = 0$

The norm is defined as:

Then

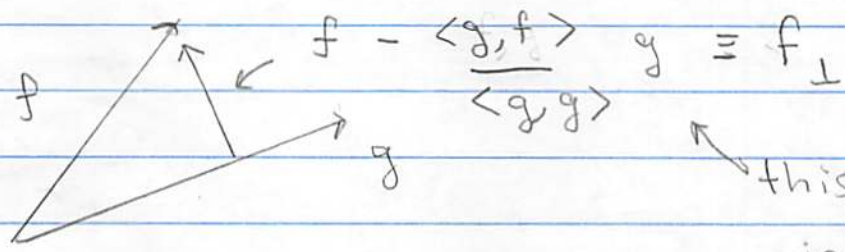
$$\|f\| \equiv \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle}$$

And $\|f\| = \left(\int dx |f|^2 \right)^{1/2}$ is known

as the L^2 norm.

The Cauchy-Schwarz and triangle inequalities

(1) Cauchy Schwarz $|\langle f, g \rangle| \leq \|f\| \|g\|$



this is the piece of f "orthogonal to g"

Then

$$\langle f_{\perp}, f_{\perp} \rangle \geq 0$$

Its "length" must be greater than zero.

Then with $\lambda = \langle g, f \rangle / \langle g, g \rangle$ find:

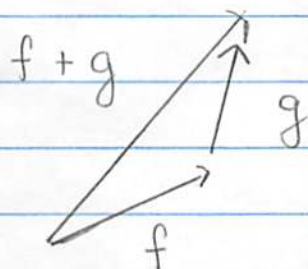
$$\begin{aligned}\langle f - \lambda g, f - \lambda g \rangle &= \langle f, f \rangle - \lambda^* \langle g, f \rangle - \lambda \langle f, g \rangle + |\lambda|^2 \langle g, g \rangle \\ &= \langle f, f \rangle - \frac{\langle f, g \rangle \langle g, f \rangle}{\langle g, g \rangle} \geq 0\end{aligned}$$

Or multiplying by $\langle g, g \rangle$ and taking $\sqrt{\quad}$:

$$\|f\| \|g\| \geq |\langle f, g \rangle|$$

② Triangle Inequality

$$\|f + g\| \leq \|f\| + \|g\|$$



Proof: Look at $\langle f + g, f + g \rangle$
and use Cauchy Schwarz.
See Book.

Complete Sets of fcn's:

Suppose we have a set of functions which are orthogonal

(1) $\langle u_n, u_m \rangle = \int_a^b w(x) u_n^*(x) u_m(x) = C_n \delta_{nm}$

We will find the best approximation of a given function through the expansion

(2) $f_{\text{approx}}(x) = \sum_n f_n \frac{u_n(x)}{C_n}$
← inserted for convenience

Then it is not hard to show that

(3) $f_m = \langle u_m, f \rangle = \int_a^b w(x) u_m^*(x) f(x)$

provides the best approximation of $f(x)$ i.e. minimizes

$\| f - f_{\text{approx}} \|^2$

(4) A basis is complete if $\| f - f_{\text{approx}} \| \rightarrow 0$ as more terms are added.

Then $f(x) = f_{\text{approx}}(x)$

In this case

$$f(x) = \sum_n f_n \frac{u_n(x)}{C_n} = f_{\text{approx}}(x)$$

$$= \sum_n \int_a^b dx' W(x') \frac{u_n^*(x')}{C_n} f(x') \frac{u_n(x)}{C_n}$$

$$f(x) = \int_a^b dx' W(x') \left(\sum_n \frac{u_n^*(x') u_n(x)}{C_n} \right) f(x')$$

↳ this needs to be

$$\frac{\delta(x'-x)}{W(x)} \text{ so that}$$

$$= \int_a^b dx' W(x') \frac{\delta(x'-x)}{W(x')} f(x')$$

$$= f(x)$$

Thus the requirement for completeness is

$$(4) \quad \sum_n \frac{u_n^*(x') u_n(x)}{C_n} = \frac{\delta(x'-x)}{W(x')}$$

for x' and x in $[a, b]$

Periodic Fcns

Take periodic fcns from $[-L/2, \dots, L/2]$
A set of orthogonal functions are

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u_n^s(x) &= \sin(k_n x) \\ u_n^c(x) &= \cos(k_n x) \\ u_0(x) &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} &\text{with } k_n = \frac{2\pi n}{L} \\ &n = 1, 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Instead of using these it is better to use

$$u_n(x) = e^{ik_n x} \left\} \begin{aligned} &\text{with } k_n = \frac{2\pi n}{L} \end{aligned}$$

Then the orthogonality and expansion take the form $n = \dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \langle u_m, u_n \rangle = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx \, u_m^*(x) u_n(x) = L \delta_{nm}$$

↑ prove me!

$$\textcircled{2} \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_n f_n u_n(x)$$

or more explicitly, $f(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_n f_n e^{ik_n x}$ The coefficients f_n are given by

$$\textcircled{3} \quad f_n = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} u_n^*(x) f(x) = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} e^{-ik_n x} f(x)$$

Later we will study completeness

The Power Spectrum and Parseval's Theorem

$$\langle f | f \rangle = \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} dx |f|^2$$

Using

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_n f_n u_n(x)$$

and

$$\langle u_n, u_m \rangle = L \delta_{nm}$$

Find

$$\langle f | f \rangle = \frac{1}{L} \sum_n |f_n|^2$$

In general a plot of $|f_n|^2$ vs. n is known as the power spectrum. If not all f_n are taken then

$$\langle f | f \rangle \geq \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-N}^N |f_n|^2 \quad (\text{Bessels Inequality})$$

Similar inequalities for all complete sets

$$\langle f, f \rangle \geq \sum_n \frac{|f_n|^2}{c_n}$$

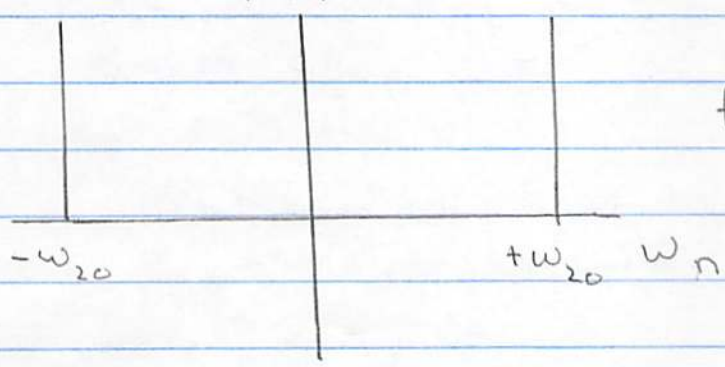
Example 1: Use time instead of space

$$f(t) = A \cos(\omega_{20} t)$$

$$\omega_{20} = \frac{2\pi \cdot 20}{T}$$

$$= \frac{AT}{2} \left[\frac{e^{i\omega_{20}t}}{T} + \frac{e^{-i\omega_{20}t}}{T} \right]$$

Fcns are periodic from $-T/2 \dots T/2$
 $|f_n|^2$



$$f_{-20} = f_{20} = \frac{AT}{2}$$

Then

$$\langle f|f \rangle = \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} dt A^2 \cos^2 \omega t = A^2 T \langle \cos^2 \rangle = A^2 T / 2$$

use $\langle \cos^2 \rangle = \langle \sin^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2}$ $\langle \cos^2 + \sin^2 \rangle = \langle 1 \rangle = 1$

↑
mean value of \cos^2

$$\langle \cos \omega t \sin \omega t \rangle = 0$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \sum_n |f_n|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \left(\frac{A^2 T^2}{4} + \frac{A^2 T^2}{4} \right)$$

Example 2: AM modulation

See figure on next page
The amplitude depends on time as $A \cos(\omega_1 t)$

$$f(t) = A \cos(\omega_1 t) \cos(\omega_{20} t)$$

← modulation
← carrier frequency

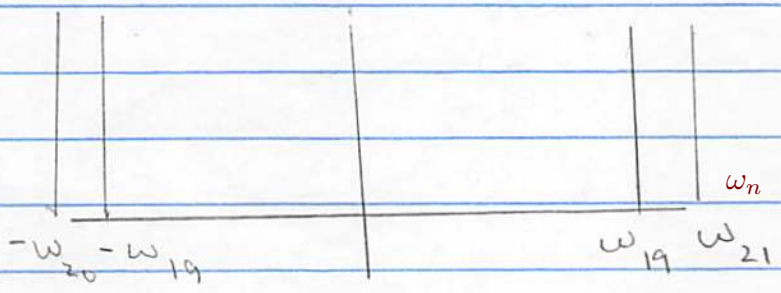
$$\omega_n \equiv \frac{2\pi n}{T}$$

$$= \frac{A}{4} (e^{i\omega_1 t} + e^{-i\omega_1 t}) (e^{i\omega_{20} t} + e^{-i\omega_{20} t})$$

$$= \frac{A}{4} [(e^{i\omega_{21} t} + e^{i\omega_{19} t}) + \text{conjugate}]$$

Power spectrum

$|f_n|^2$



$$f_n = \frac{AT}{4}$$

side bands (non-linear mixing)

Example 3: FM modulation

See figure on next page
the frequency depends on time

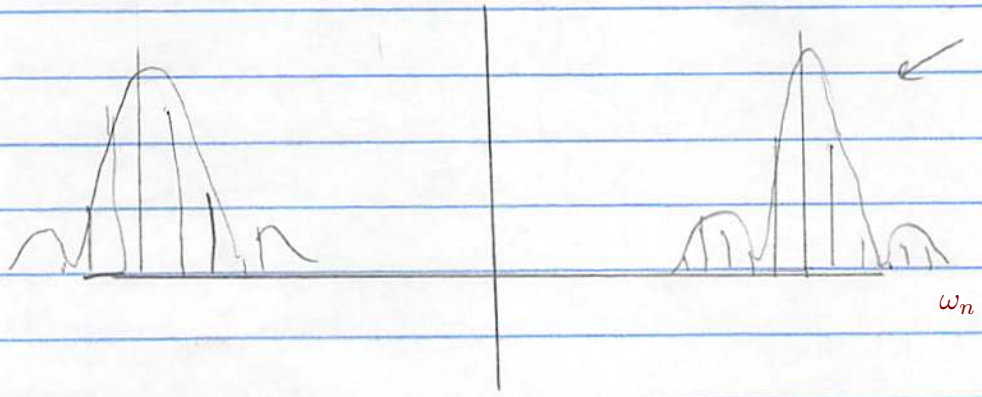
$$f(t) = A \cos(\omega(t)t)$$

$$\omega(t) = \omega_{20} + \beta \cos \omega_1 t$$

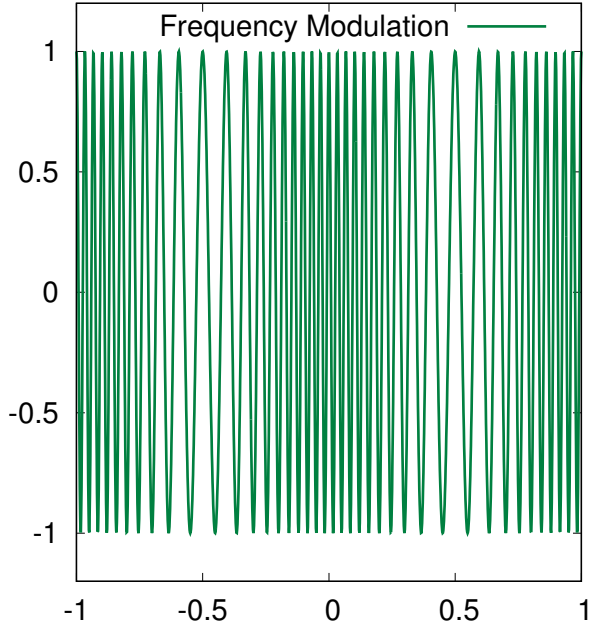
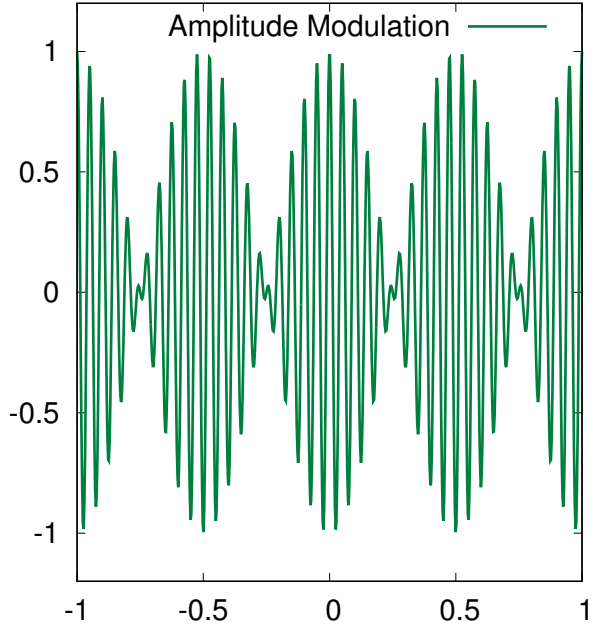
study in homework

Power spectrum

$|f_n|^2$



sidebands described by Bessel-funcs
Discussed in homework



Completeness of Fourier Series

We must show that for x, y in $[L/2 \dots L/2]$ that

$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_n (e^{ik_n y})(e^{-ik_n x}) = \delta(y-x)$$

More precisely cut off the sum from $-N/2 \dots N/2$. We should show for x in $(-L; L)$ that

$$\delta_N(x) \equiv \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2} e^{ik_n x} \quad k_n = 2\pi n/L$$

is a dirac sequence as $N \rightarrow \infty$ (take $\epsilon \equiv 1/N$)

This is the most important sum in all of physics! Define $\theta \equiv 2\pi x/L$

$$\delta_N(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2} e^{in\theta} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{n=-N/2}^{N/2} z^n$$

Use $1+z+\dots+z^n = (1-z^{n+1})/(1-z)$ (which you prove by multiplying both sides by $(1-z)$)

$$\delta_N(x) = \frac{z^{-N/2} (1 - z^{N+1})}{(1-z)}$$

$$= \frac{z^{-(N+1)/2} - z^{(N+1)/2}}{z^{-1/2} - z^{1/2}}$$

Take the denominator

$$z^{-1/2} - z^{1/2} = e^{-i\theta/2} - e^{i\theta/2} = 2i \sin(\theta/2)$$

Thus

sum of $N+1$ phases



$$S_N(x) = \frac{\sin((N+1)\theta/2)}{\sin(\theta/2)} \quad \theta = 2\pi x/L$$



this is the diffraction pattern of $(N+1)$ slits. A graph of this function, is given below. See picture below!!

Clearly this function consists of a set of spikes which get narrow and tall. Your homework will be to show that this is a correctly normalized Dirac Sequence

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} S_N(x) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - mL) \quad m \text{ integer}$$

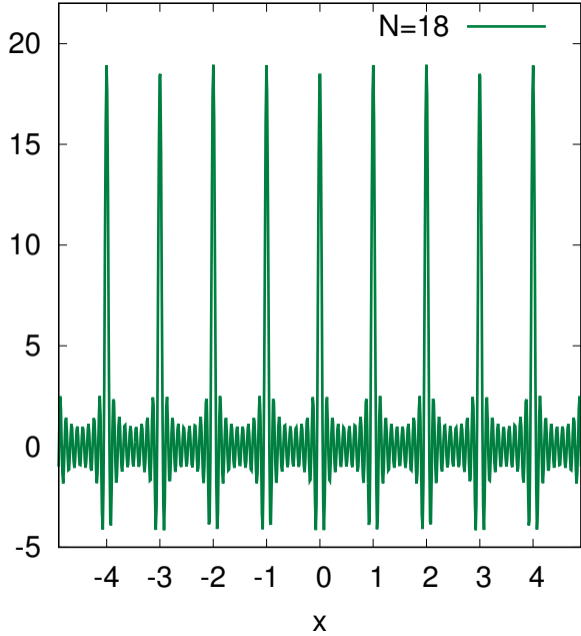
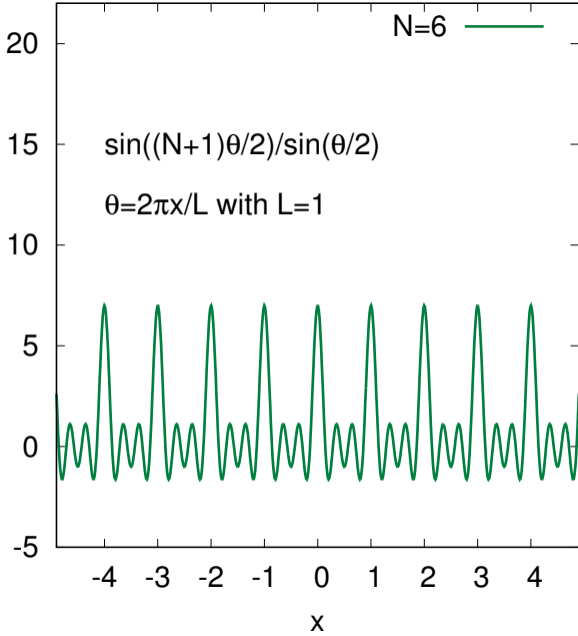
this is a δ -fcn for $-L < x < L$

This proves completeness of the fourier series

We have shown more generally that

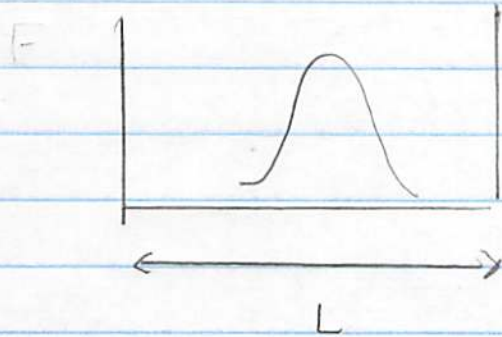
$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_n e^{i2\pi n x/L} = \sum_m \delta(x - mL)$$

↑ This is the basis of the Poisson-Summation



Fourier Transforms

Now



- Now take the box $\rightarrow \infty$, but keep k_n fixed

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_n f_n e^{ik_n x} \quad k_n = \frac{2\pi n}{L}$$

- So k -becomes kind of continuous, $\Delta k = \frac{2\pi}{L}$ increment is very small

$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_n = \sum_n \frac{\Delta k}{2\pi} \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dk}{2\pi} \quad f_n = f(k)$$

So

$$f(x) = \int \frac{dk}{2\pi} f(k) e^{ikx}$$

$$f(k) = F(k) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ikx} f(x)$$

The completeness always

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$$\frac{1}{L} \sum_n e^{i k_n x} = \sum_m \delta(x - mL)$$

which becomes $\frac{1}{L} \sum = \int \frac{dk}{2\pi}$ and $k = n \Delta k$. So

we find

$$\int \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{ik(x-y)} = \delta(x-y)$$

and $\int dx e^{-i(k-k')x} = 2\pi \delta(k-k')$

Summarizing $\langle x|k \rangle = e^{ikx}$ $\langle k|x \rangle = e^{-ikx}$

k-space $f(k) = \int dx e^{-ikx} f(x) = \langle k|f \rangle$

x-space $f(x) = \int \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{ikx} f(k)$

orthog $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(k-k')x} dx = 2\pi \delta(k-k')$

complete $\int \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{+ik(y-x)} = \delta(y-x)$