

(5i) This can be proved by noting that $\delta[g(x)]$ will differ from zero only when $g(x)=0$ which means that this holds for values $x=x_i$ which are the roots of $g(x)$: $g(x_i)=0$.

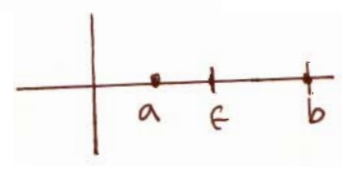
Hence in the vicinity of each root we can expand $g(x)$ as

$$g(x) = \underbrace{g(x_i)}_0 + (x-x_i) \left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x_i} + \frac{1}{2} (x-x_i)^2 \left. \frac{d^2g}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} + \dots \tag{8}$$

$$= (x-x_i) \left\{ \left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x_i} + \frac{1}{2} (x-x_i) \left. \frac{d^2g}{dx^2} \right|_{x_i} + \dots \right\} \cong (x-x_i) \underbrace{\left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x_i}}_{\text{Constant} \equiv a} \tag{9}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence near a root } x_i: \delta[g(x)] &\cong \delta \left[\left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x_i} (x-x_i) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\left| \left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x_i} \right|} \delta(x-x_i) \leftarrow \text{using (e)} \tag{10} \end{aligned}$$

Since we can repeat this process for each root, we sum over all the roots. This can be seen from the following example: Consider the function $g(x) = (x-a)(x-b)$ with roots at $x=a$ and $x=b$. Given $g(x)$ we have



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta[g(x)] f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\epsilon} dx \delta[(x-a)(x-b)] f(x) + \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} dx \delta[(x-a)(x-b)] f(x) \tag{11}$$

Near $x=a$ (I) gives: (I) $\cong f(a) \int_{-\infty}^{\epsilon} dx \delta[(x-a)(a-b)] = \frac{f(a)}{|a-b|} \underbrace{\int_{-\infty}^{\epsilon} dx \delta(x-a)}_1 \tag{12}$

$$= \frac{1}{|a-b|} f(a)$$

Near $x=b$ (II) gives: (II) $\cong f(b) \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} dx \delta[(b-a)(x-b)] = \frac{f(b)}{|b-a|} \tag{13}$

Combining the results in (11)-(13) we have

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$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta[g(x)] f(x) = \frac{1}{|a-b|} f(a) + \frac{1}{|b-a|} f(b) = \frac{1}{|a-b|} [f(a) + f(b)] \quad (14)$$

Compare this to the result using the formula in (5i):

$$dg/dx = d/dx (x^2 - (a+b)x + ab) = 2x - (a+b) \quad (15)$$

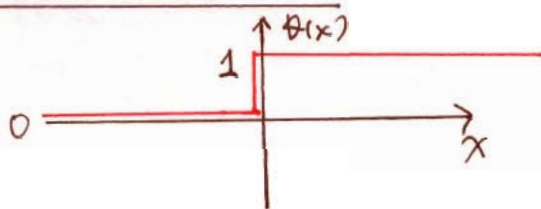
$$\left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right|_{x=a} = 2a - (a+b) = a-b \quad (16)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right|_{x=b} = 2b - (a+b) = b-a$$

$$\text{Hence } \delta[g(x)] = \sum_i \frac{1}{|\partial g / \partial x|_{x_i}} \delta(x-x_i) = \frac{1}{|a-b|} \delta(x-a) + \frac{1}{|b-a|} \delta(x-b) \quad (17)$$

and this clearly reproduces (14) above. ✓

The Step Function $\theta(x)$:



$$\theta(x) = 1; x > 0$$

$$\theta(x) = 0; x < 0$$

$$\theta(0) \equiv 1/2$$

Claim: $\frac{d}{dx} \theta(x) = \delta(x)$ (1)

Proof: Consider $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{d}{dx} \theta(x) f(x)$ where $f(\pm\infty) = 0$

Then $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left[\frac{d}{dx} \theta(x) \right] f(x) = \theta(x) f(x) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \theta(x) \frac{d}{dx} f(x)$ (2)

$$= - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = - \int_0^{\infty} df(x) = - [f(\infty) - f(0)] = + f(0) \quad (3)$$

Comparing wavy in (2) & (3) we see that $\left[\frac{d}{dx} \theta(x) \right]$ has the same effect as $\delta(x)$. ✓

SPECIFIC REPRESENTATIONS OF $\delta(x)$:

As noted previously, $\delta(x)$ is not a conventional mathematical function. Rather it can be viewed as the limiting case of a function whose width decreases as its height increases (when some parameter is varied) in such a way that its area remains = 1.

We present several examples:

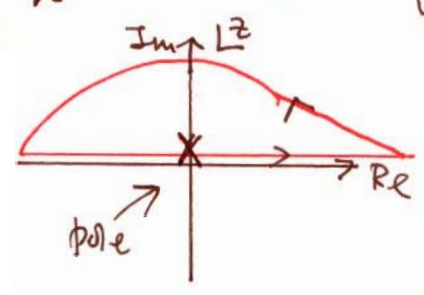
(A) $f_a(x) \equiv \frac{1}{a\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/a^2}$; $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx f_a(x) = 1$ independent of a (1)

Then $\delta(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} f_a(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{a\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/a^2}$ (2)

Here we note that as $a \rightarrow 0$ $e^{-x^2/a^2} \rightarrow 0$ for $x \neq 0$; moreover $e^{-x^2/a^2} \rightarrow 0$ faster than $1/a \rightarrow \infty$. Hence $f_a(x \neq 0) = 0$ as $a \rightarrow 0$. However, as $a \rightarrow 0$ $f_a(0) \sim \infty$ to keep the area constant.

(B) $h_g(x) = \frac{\sin gx}{\pi x}$ (3) This can be integrated using contour integration (see end of semester!)

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx h_g(x) = \text{Im} \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{x} e^{igx} = \frac{1}{\pi} \text{Im} \left\{ \pi i [e^{igx}]_{x=0} \right\} = 1$ (4)



We note that for $x \approx 0$ $h_g(x) \approx \frac{g}{\pi}$; Hence as $g \rightarrow \infty$ $h_g(x \approx 0) \rightarrow \infty$

Since $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx h_g(x) = 1$ (for all values of g) it follows that [28, 29]

the remaining contributions for $x \neq 0$ are becoming vanishingly small.

This happens because $\sin(gx)$ oscillates very rapidly as $g \rightarrow \infty$

(this is the Riemann-Lebesgue Theorem). We can thus finally

write:

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{g \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin gx}{\pi x} \quad (5)$$

(c) The 3rd representation that we consider is

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} \quad (6)$$

Clearly the r.h.s. of (6) vanishes as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ for all $x \neq 0$. For $x=0$ the r.h.s. $\rightarrow 1/\epsilon$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, so (6) has the correct behavior.

Note that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{1}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\epsilon}{\pi} \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{\epsilon} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} \quad (7)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right) = 1 ; \underline{\text{independent of } \epsilon}$$

Hence the function in (6) also has unit area (independent of ϵ), and as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ this function vanishes everywhere except at $x=0$.

From the previous discussion this establishes that (6) is a valid representation of $\delta(x)$.

Comments on Representations of $\delta(x)$:

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Here we evaluate some of the integrals we discussed previously.

Consider
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} \Rightarrow I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-y^2} \quad (1)$$

Hence
$$I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx dy e^{-(x^2+y^2)} \quad (2)$$

Transforming to polar coordinates: $dx dy \rightarrow 2\pi r dr$ $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$

$$\therefore I^2 = 2\pi \int_0^{\infty} dr \cdot r e^{-r^2} \xrightarrow{\rho=r^2} 2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} d\rho e^{-\rho} = \pi e^{-\rho} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \pi \quad (3)$$

$$\hookrightarrow d\rho = 2r dr$$

Hence $I^2 = \pi \Rightarrow$
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} = \sqrt{\pi} \quad (4)$$

It follows from (4) that
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-y^2/a^2} = a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} = a\sqrt{\pi} \quad (5)$$

Hence
$$\frac{1}{a\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-y^2/a^2} = 1 ; \text{ independent of } a \quad (6)$$

Other related integrals can be evaluated in a similar way: Consider

$$I^3 = (\sqrt{\pi})^3 = \iiint_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx dy dz e^{-(x^2+y^2+z^2)} = 4\pi \int_0^{\infty} dr \cdot r^2 e^{-r^2} \quad (7)$$

Hence
$$\int_0^{\infty} dr \cdot r^2 e^{-r^2} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{4} \quad (8)$$

Another way to derive Eq. (8) is to start with Eq. (6)

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and let $b = 1/a^2$. Then

$$f(b) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-by^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{b}} \quad (9)$$

$$\frac{df(b)}{db} = - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \cdot y^2 e^{-by^2} = \frac{d}{db} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{b}} \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{b^3}} \quad (10)$$

Combining (9) & (10) we find:

$$\int_0^{\infty} dy y^2 e^{-by^2} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \dots = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{b^3}} \quad (11)$$

Setting $b=1$ in (11) then leads immediately to (8). ✓

KEY THEOREM IN POTENTIAL THEORY:

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If the divergence and curl of a vector field $\vec{V}(\vec{r})$ are known,

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}(\vec{r}) = s(\vec{r}) \sim \text{charges} \quad (1a)$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{V}(\vec{r}) = \vec{c}(\vec{r}) \sim \text{currents} \quad (1b)$$

throughout space, and if there are no sources or currents at ∞ [$s(\infty) = 0$ $\vec{c}(\infty) = 0$] then $\vec{V}(\vec{r})$ is uniquely given by

$$\vec{V}(\vec{r}) = -\vec{\nabla}\phi(\vec{r}) + \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{r}) \quad (2)$$

where ($\vec{x} \equiv \vec{r}$)

$$\phi(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \frac{s(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \quad (3)$$

$$\vec{A}(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \frac{\vec{c}(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \quad ; r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}') = \sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2} \quad (4)$$

Proof: We first show that (2) is a solution, and then show that it is the unique solution.

$$\text{Consider first } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = -\nabla^2 \phi(\vec{x}) + \vec{\nabla} \cdot [\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{x})] \quad (5)$$

$\stackrel{\text{O}}{=} \text{using (8)}$

$$\text{Hence } \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \nabla_{(\vec{x})}^2 \left\{ \frac{s(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \right\} \quad (6)$$

↑ this means that ∇^2 acts only on \vec{x} and not on \vec{x}' in $\{ \dots \}$

Then

$$\nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \nabla^2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2}} \right) = -4\pi \delta^3(\vec{r}) = -4\pi \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') \quad (7)$$

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Hence $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = -\nabla^2 \phi(\vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \left\{ -4\pi \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') S(\vec{x}') \right\}$ (8)

$\therefore \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = S(\vec{x}) \checkmark$ (9)

This establishes that Eq.(2) is indeed the solution to Eq. (1a).
~~✗~~

We next show that Eq.(2) is also the solution to Eq. (1b).
 This requires some more effort, but allows us to gain some practice manipulating ∇^2 , $\vec{\nabla}_x$, ...

From (2) we have: $\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{V} = \vec{\nabla}_x \left\{ -\vec{\nabla} \phi + \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \right\}$ (10)
 $= -\underbrace{\vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla} \phi)}_0 + \vec{\nabla}_x (\vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}) = -\vec{\nabla} \vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} (\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A})$
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Hence $\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \nabla_{(x)}^2 \left\{ \frac{\vec{c}(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \right\}$ (11) → I
 $+ \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \left\{ \vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{c}(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \right) \right\}$ → II

We will later show that **II** = 0. Assuming this for now we can directly repeat the steps leading to (9) which then give from **I**

$\vec{\nabla}_x \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \left[\nabla_{(x)}^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \right] \vec{c}(\vec{x}') = -\frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' (-4\pi \delta^3(\vec{x} - \vec{x}')) \vec{c}(\vec{x}')$ (12)

$\therefore \vec{\nabla}_x \vec{V}(\vec{x}) = \vec{c}(\vec{x}) \checkmark$ (13)

This establishes that (2) is also a solution of Eq. (4b), 36,37
 provided that we can now show that $\textcircled{\text{II}} = 0$.

Define $\textcircled{\text{II}} \equiv \vec{D} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \left[\vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \cdot \frac{\vec{c}(\vec{x}')}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \right]$ (14)

To clarify the following steps we insert subscripts on $\vec{\nabla}$ so that we can keep track of them. Both $\vec{\nabla}_{(x)}$ operators only operate on \vec{x} :

$$\vec{D} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \vec{\nabla}_1 \left[\vec{\nabla}_2 \cdot \left(\frac{\vec{c}}{r} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \vec{\nabla}_1 \left[\vec{c}(\vec{x}') \cdot \vec{\nabla}_2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) \right]$$
 (15)

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' (\vec{c} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_2) (\vec{\nabla}_1 (1/r)) \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' (\vec{c} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) (\vec{\nabla} (1/r))$$
 (16)

Note here that both $\vec{\nabla}$ operators only act on $1/r = 1/r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')$, since $1/r$ contains the only dependence on \vec{x} . This can be made clearer if we write \vec{D} in the form

$$\vec{D} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int d^3x' \left[\vec{c}(\vec{x}') \cdot \vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \right] \left[\vec{\nabla}_{(x)} \left(\frac{1}{r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')} \right) \right]$$
 (17)

We next introduce the following trick: First we now will denote

$$\vec{\nabla}_{(x)} = \hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \dots + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \equiv \vec{\nabla}$$
 (18)

$$\vec{\nabla}' = \hat{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x'} + \hat{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial y'} + \hat{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial z'}$$
 (19)

Trick: $\vec{\nabla}' g[r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')] = -\vec{\nabla} g[r(\vec{x}, \vec{x}')] \quad (20)$

Example: let $g(r) = \frac{1}{2} c r^2 = \frac{1}{2} c [(x-x')^2 + (y-y')^2 + (z-z')^2]$ (21)