

Date: 2014 Sep 5

δ -function

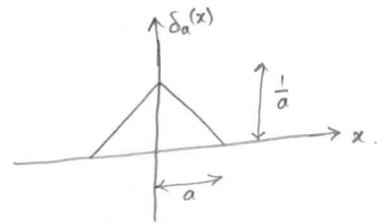
① Definition (that should be interpreted as a limiting case)

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ \infty, & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases}$$

and satisfies

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) = 1.$$

② Visual illustrative example



$$\delta(x) = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \delta_a(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ \infty, & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) &= \text{Area under } \delta_a(x) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (2a) \frac{1}{a} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

③ Dimension of δ -function :

$$[\delta(x)] = \frac{1}{[x]}$$

④ In physical problems bodies or particles are represented by a point. The mass density or charge density of a particle is described by a δ -function. For example, the mass density of a particle in 1-dimension and higher dimensions will be

$$\rho(x, y, z) = m \delta(x) \delta(y) \delta(z)$$

$$\rho(x, y, z) = \lambda \delta(x) \delta(y)$$

$$\rho(x, y, z) = \tau \delta(z)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{length}}$$

$$\tau = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{area}}$$

Notice

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dy \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dz \rho(x, y, z) = m$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dy \rho(x, y, z) = \lambda$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dz \rho(x, y, z) = \tau$$

confirm with total mass in the corresponding space.

⑤ Replacing $m \rightarrow q$ leads to the respective charge densities that we will encounter in this course.

⑥ A particular representation for δ -function is

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(x) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \operatorname{Im} \left(\frac{1}{x - i\epsilon} \right) & \frac{1}{x - i\epsilon} &= \frac{x + i\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2}\end{aligned}$$

For any $x \neq 0$ we can always find $\epsilon \ll x$, thus, $(x \neq 0)$.

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

For $x = 0$

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rightarrow \infty,$$

$x = 0$.

Further

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \frac{\epsilon}{x^2 + \epsilon^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{e^{\sec^2 \theta} d\theta}{e^{\sec^2 \theta}} \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \epsilon \tan \theta \\ dx &= \epsilon \sec^2 \theta d\theta\end{aligned}$$

The

function

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

is

the

Cauchy

distribution, which is

also known

as

the

Lorentz

distribution.



⑦ δ -function is the derivative of the Heaviside step function (θ -function)

$$\theta(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } t > 0, \\ 0, & \text{if } t < 0. \end{cases} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i\omega t}}{\omega + i\epsilon}$$



The integral representation for $\theta(t)$ can be verified using Cauchy's theorem in complex analysis.

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(t) &= \frac{d}{dt} \theta(t) \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i\omega t}}{\omega + i\epsilon} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d\omega}{2\pi} e^{-i\omega t}, \end{aligned}$$

$$e^{-i\omega t} \rightarrow e^{-i(\omega+i\epsilon)t} = e^{-i\omega t + \epsilon t}$$

which is an integral representation for δ -function. Incidentally, we learn that the Fourier transform of a δ -function is 1.

⑧ Yet another representation for δ -function is.

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}}.$$

For $x \neq 0$,

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}} = 0,$$

because the exponential beats the $\frac{1}{\sigma}$.

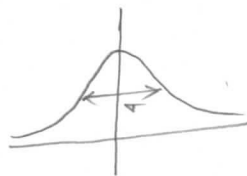
For $x = 0$,

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sigma} \rightarrow \infty.$$

Further

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx e^{-\frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}} \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

The function $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{x^2}{\sigma^2}}$



is the Gaussian distribution, and σ is the standard deviation of the Gaussian distribution.

⑨ In practice the δ -function is used in the following form,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0).$$

⑩ An immediate generalization is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x-a) f(x) = f(a).$$

⑪ Examples:

$$(i) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 3$$

$$(ii) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x-5) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 38$$

$$(iii) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(x+5) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 18$$

⑫ Examples:

$$(i) \int_1^{\infty} dx \delta(x) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 0$$

$$(ii) \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 0$$

$$(iii) \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} dx \delta(x) [x^2 + 2x + 3] = 3$$

(13) We shall later in the course have the

opportunity to define

$$\delta(f(x))$$

which we will show gets contributions at the

roots of $f(x) = 0$. For now we will confine

our attention to linear functions of the form

$$f(x) = ax + b.$$

In particular,

$$\delta(ax+b) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta\left(x + \frac{b}{a}\right),$$

$a \neq 0$.

If $b=0$, we have

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

$a \neq 0$.

(14) Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(ax+b) f(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dy}{a} \delta(y+b) f\left(\frac{y}{a}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{a} f\left(-\frac{b}{a}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta\left(x + \frac{b}{a}\right) f(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$y = ax.$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(ax+b) = \frac{1}{a} \delta\left(x + \frac{b}{a}\right),$$

$a > 0$.

(15) For $a < 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(ax+b) f(x) &= \int_{+\infty}^{-\infty} \frac{dy}{a} \delta(y+b) f\left(\frac{y}{a}\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dy \delta(y+b) f\left(\frac{y}{a}\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{a} f\left(-\frac{b}{a}\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{a} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta\left(x+\frac{b}{a}\right) f(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} y &= ax \\ \text{at } x = -\infty, \quad y &= -\infty \\ \text{at } x = +\infty, \quad y &= +\infty \\ dy &= a dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(ax+b) = -\frac{1}{a} \delta\left(x+\frac{b}{a}\right), \quad a < 0.$$

In general,

$$\delta(ax+b) = \frac{1}{|a|} \delta\left(x+\frac{b}{a}\right)$$

(16) Examples:

$$(i) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(2x+1) [16x^2 + 2x + 1] = \frac{1}{2} \left[16\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 2\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1 \right] = 2$$

$$(ii) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(2x-1) [16x^2 + 2x + 1] = \frac{1}{2} \left[16\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1 \right] = 3$$

$$(iii) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(-2x+1) [16x^2 + 2x + 1] = \frac{1}{2} \left[16\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1 \right] = 3$$

$$(iv) \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \delta(-2x-1) [16x^2 + 2x + 1] = \frac{1}{2} \left[16\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 2\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1 \right] = 2$$

(17)

Let us evaluate

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = \frac{3}{r^3} - \frac{3}{r^3} = 0.$$

Is this true everywhere? What about at $r=0$?

Consider

V - sphere of radius R .

$$\int_V d^3r \vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = \oint d\vec{a} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = 4\pi$$

How can the integral of a quantity that is zero everywhere lead to a non-zero answer?

Thus, we write

$$\int_V d^3r \vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = 4\pi = 4\pi \int d^3r \delta^{(3)}(\vec{r})$$

and read out

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \frac{\vec{r}}{r^3} = 4\pi \delta^{(3)}(\vec{r}),$$

which is valid at $\vec{r}=0$ too.