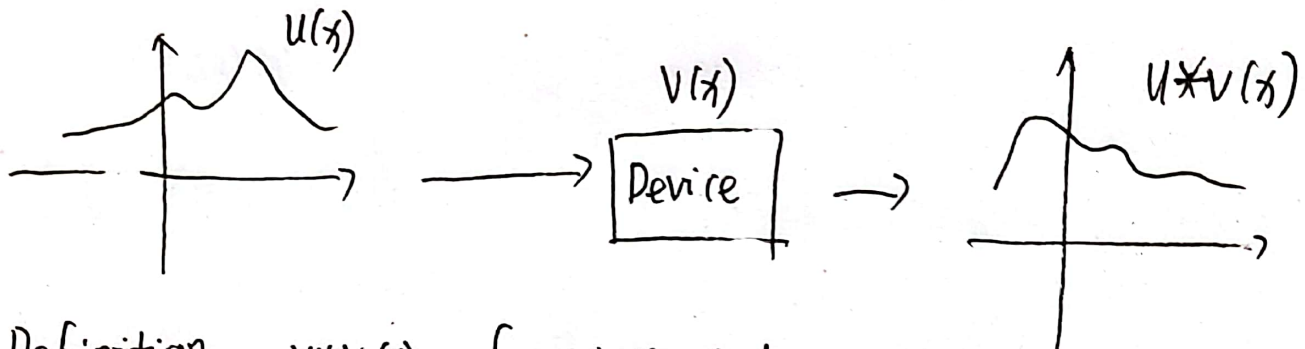


# $\delta$ Function

Using series to approach it

1.1 convolution:  $u * v(x)$



Definition:  $u * v(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(y) v(x-y) dy$  ( $u * v = v * u$ )

Sufficient condition (i)  $|u|^2$  and  $|v|^2$  is integrable

- (ii) one of  $|u|, |v|$  is integrable, and another is bounded
- (iii) one of  $u, v$  has compact support

Differentiation:  $D^k(u * v) = u * D^k(v)$

1.2  $\delta$  function family

We want a function:  $(f * \delta)_x = f(x)$  (just like Identity Element)

(There's not such a function in fact, but we can approach it)

$\delta$  function family:  $\Delta_a: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (depends on  $a \in \mathbb{A}$ )

(a)  $\Delta_a(x) \geq 0$  (b)  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \Delta_a(x) dx = 1$  (c) For arbitrary neighbourhood of  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \Delta_a(x) dx = 1$  (or:  $\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \Delta_a(x) dx = 1$ )

example:  $\Delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-x^2)^n}{\int_{-1}^1 (1-x^2)^n dx}, & |x| < 1 \\ 0, & |x| > 1 \end{cases}$

$\Delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\cos^{2n} x}{\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{2n} x dx}, & |x| \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \\ 0, & |x| > \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$

And Now:

If the function:  $R \rightarrow C$  is bounded and uniformly continuous, and

$\{\Delta_\alpha, \alpha \in A\}$  is  $\delta$  function family (when  $\alpha \rightarrow \omega$ ), Then

$$\alpha \rightarrow \omega \Rightarrow (f * \Delta_\alpha)(x) \rightrightarrows f(x)$$

Proof:  $| (f * \Delta_\alpha)(x) - f(x) | = \left| \int_R f(x-y) \Delta_\alpha(y) dy - f(x) \right|$

$$= \left| \int_R [f(x-y) - f(x)] \Delta_\alpha(y) dy \right| \leq \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} |f(x-y) - f(x)| \Delta_\alpha(y) dy + \int_{\delta}^{+\infty} |f(x-y) - f(x)| \Delta_\alpha(y) dy$$

$$< \epsilon \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} \Delta_\alpha(y) dy + 4M \int_{\delta}^{+\infty} \Delta_\alpha(y) dy$$

$$< \epsilon + 4M \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{4M} = 2\epsilon$$

Corollary: In a closed interval, algebraic polynomial could approach all the ~~consist~~ continuous function consistently. (Uniform convergence)

Proof:  $\Delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{(1-x^2)^n}{\int_{-1}^1 (1-x^2)^n dx} & |x| \leq 1 \\ 0 & |x| > 1 \end{cases}$ , so when it comes to  $[-1, 1]$ ,

$$F * \Delta_n(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} F(y) \Delta_n(x-y) dy = \int_{-1}^{+1} F(y) \Delta_n(x-y) dy$$

$$= \int_{-1}^1 F(y) \cdot P_n \cdot [1 - (x-y)^2]^n dy = \int_{-1}^1 F(y) \sum_{k=0}^{2n} a_k(y) x^k dy$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{2n} b_k \cdot x^k$$

So  $\sum_{k=0}^{2n} b_k \cdot x^k \rightrightarrows F(x)$

Similarly,  $T_n(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos kx + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k \sin kx$  is also ok

Proof:  $\Delta_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\cos 2nx}{\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos 2n\tau d\tau}, & |x| \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \\ 0, & |x| > \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$ , for the interval  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} F * \Delta_n(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} F(y) \Delta_n(x-y) dy = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} F(y) \frac{\cos 2n(x-y)}{\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos 2n\tau d\tau} \cdot dy \\ &= \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} F(y) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx) \cdot dy \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx) \end{aligned}$$

How to make the family?

If  $\psi(x) > 0$ ,  $\psi(x)$  has compact support, and  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi(x) dx = 1$ ,

Then:  $\Delta_a = \frac{1}{a} \psi\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$  ( $a \rightarrow 0^+$ ) is  $\delta$  function family

### 1.3 Distributions / Generalized Functions

#### 1.3.1 Test Function Space

$P$ : linear space generated by functions, and convergence is defined

(as pointwise convergence)

$$P': \varphi \xrightarrow{u} \begin{cases} k \in \mathbb{C} \\ k \in \mathbb{R} \end{cases} \text{ noted as } \langle u | \varphi \rangle = k \quad \begin{cases} \psi_i \rightarrow 0, \langle u | \psi_i \rangle \rightarrow 0 \\ \langle u | \lambda_1 \psi_1 + \lambda_2 \psi_2 \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle u | \psi_1 \rangle + \lambda_2 \langle u | \psi_2 \rangle \end{cases}$$

So  $P$  is test function space,  $P'$  is distribution space

The convergence of  $P'$ :  $A_n \rightarrow A := \forall \varphi \in P (A_n(\varphi) \rightarrow A(\varphi))$  (pointwise convergence)

### 1-3-2. $D$ and $D'$

$D$ : linear space of functions that have compact support and could be differentiated for infinite times, and the compact support could be contained by  $G$ . We could write it as  $C_0^\infty(G, \mathbb{C})$

$\downarrow$  compact support  
 $\downarrow$  the field (of functions)

$C_0^\infty(G, \mathbb{C})$  is wider

The convergence: uniform convergence

①  $\forall \epsilon, \exists j \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \frac{d^j \psi_j}{dx^j} \rightrightarrows \frac{d^j \psi}{dx^j}$     ② all the compact support  $G_i$  of  $\psi_i$

obeys that  $G \subseteq K$ , where  $K$  is compact as well.

$D'$ :  $\langle u | \psi \rangle := \varphi \xrightarrow{u} \begin{cases} k \in \mathbb{R} \\ k \in \mathbb{C} \end{cases}$ , and  $D'$  is linear space of  $u$ .

$\langle u | \lambda_1 \psi_1 + \lambda_2 \psi_2 \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle u | \psi_1 \rangle + \lambda_2 \langle u | \psi_2 \rangle$

if  $\psi_j \rightarrow 0$  when  $j \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\langle u | \psi_j \rangle \rightarrow 0$  when  $\psi_j \rightarrow \infty$

and as for the convergence of  $D'$ :

$\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} u_j \rightarrow u := j \rightarrow \infty (\langle u_j | \psi \rangle \rightrightarrows \langle u | \psi \rangle)$  (uniform convergence)

example: regular generalized function

$F(\varphi) = \int_G f(x) \varphi(x) dx, \varphi(x) \in D$  (or:  $F(\varphi) = \int_G f^*(x) \varphi(x) dx$ )

So all the functions have the distribution related to them.

Just like bra  $\langle \psi |$  and ket  $|\psi\rangle$ ,  $\langle \psi |$  could be taken as generalized function of  $|\psi\rangle$ , so  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \int \psi^*(x) \psi(x) dx$  (one dimension)

And  $\delta$  is not regular generalized function.

$\delta: \langle \delta | \varphi \rangle = \varphi(0)$



### 1.3.3 The differentiation of ~~g~~ generalized function,

By the way, let's learn something about multiplication

Notice that  $\int (f \cdot g)(x) \varphi(x) dx = \int f(x) (g \cdot \varphi)(x) dx$

That is  $\langle f \cdot g | \varphi \rangle = \langle f | g \varphi \rangle$  (regular distribution)

So if we set ~~F~~  $F \in D'$ ,  $g \in C^\infty$ ,

$$\langle F \cdot g | \varphi \rangle = \langle F | g \varphi \rangle.$$

Practice: prove  $\langle \delta \cdot g | \varphi \rangle = g(0) \varphi(0)$

Now we return to differentiation

Notice that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} f'(x) \varphi(x) dx = - \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) \varphi'(x) dx$

So  $\langle F' | \varphi \rangle = - \langle F | \varphi' \rangle$

Practice: 1.  $H(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x < 0, \end{cases}$  figure out  $H'(x)$  (in terms of distribution)

Solution:  $\langle H' | \varphi \rangle = - \langle H | \varphi' \rangle = - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} H(x) \varphi'(x) dx = - \int_0^{+\infty} \varphi'(x) dx$   
 $= - \varphi(x) \Big|_0^{+\infty} = \varphi(0)$

(  $\varphi(x) \in D$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \varphi(x) = 0$  )

and  $\varphi(0) = \langle \delta | \varphi \rangle$ . Thus,  $H'(x) = \delta(x)$

2. Prove that  $\langle \delta^n | \varphi \rangle = (-1)^n \cdot \varphi^n(0)$

### 1.3.4 convolution and Green E function

Notice that  $u * v(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} u(y) v(x-y) dy$

$$\text{So } \langle u * v | \varphi \rangle = \iint u(y) v(x-y) \varphi(x) dx dy$$

Now we set  $F \in D'$ ,  $\psi \in D$ ,

we have  $\langle \overline{F * \psi} | \varphi \rangle = \langle \int F(y) \psi(x-y) dy | \varphi(x) \rangle = F * \psi(x)$

That is,  $\langle F * \psi | \varphi \rangle = \langle \int F(y) \psi(x-y) dy | \varphi(x) \rangle$   
 $= \iint F(y) \psi(x-y) \varphi(x) dy dx$

Operator:  $A: D \rightarrow D$  or  $D' \rightarrow D'$

(function space to function space)

example.  $A = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ ,  $A = \nabla^2 \dots$

And we set green function  $E: A(E) = \delta$

Why do we set that? :

$$A(\varphi) = f(x)$$

Now notice that  $A \langle \varphi | = \langle f |$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} A(E * f) &= A(f * E) = f * A(E) = f * \delta = \delta * f \\ &= \langle \int \delta(y) f(x-y) dy | = \langle f | \end{aligned}$$

As a result,  $E * f$  is the solution  $\langle \varphi |$

Thus,  $\langle E * f | x \rangle = \langle \varphi | x \rangle$ , and  $\varphi(x) = \int E(x-y) f(y) dy$

## Transformations in general

### 1. Linear and Multilinear Transformations

Definition: linear:  $A(x_1 + x_2) = A(x_1) + A(x_2)$

multilinear:  $x_1 \times x_2 \times \dots \times x_n \rightarrow Y$  denoted as  $\mathcal{L}(x_1, \dots, x_n, Y)$   
linear with respect to each variable

### 2. The Norm of Transformation:

Definition: let  $A$  be a multilinear transformation  $x_1 \times x_2 \times \dots \times x_n \rightarrow Y$

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\substack{x_1, \dots, x_n \\ \neq 0}} \frac{|A(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)|_Y}{|x_1|_{x_1} |x_2|_{x_2} \dots |x_n|_{x_n}} \quad (Y \text{ is a normed space})$$

Notice that it's linear, so

$$\|A\| = \sup_{\substack{x_1, \dots, x_n \\ \neq 0}} \left| A\left(\frac{x_1}{|x_1|}, \frac{x_2}{|x_2|}, \dots, \frac{x_n}{|x_n|}\right) \right| = \sup_{e_1, \dots, e_n} |A(e_1, \dots, e_n)|$$

It's obvious that  $|A\tilde{x}| \leq \|A\| |\tilde{x}|$

So there is the definition:

A multilinear transformation  $A: x_1 \times x_2 \times \dots \times x_n \rightarrow Y$  is bounded if there's  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  makes  $|A(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)| \leq M |x_1| |x_2| \dots |x_n|$  for all  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

Notice: operators in quantum mechanics like  $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  and  $\hat{x} = x$  aren't bounded.

### 3. Continuous Transformations

Proposition: for  $A: x_1 \times x_2 \times \dots \times x_n \rightarrow Y$   
those are the same.



(a)  $A$  has a finite norm

(b)  $A$  has a bounded transformation

(c)  $A$  is a continuous transformation. "Continuous" means that

$$\text{when } \|x_i - x_i'\| < \delta, \quad \|A(x_1, \dots, x_i + x_i', \dots, x_n) - A(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_n)\| < \epsilon$$

(d)  $A$  is continuous at  $(0, 0, \dots, 0)$

$$\text{supplement: } \|B \circ A\| \leq \|B\| \|A\|$$

#### 4. The differential of a Mapping

Definition:  $X$  and  $Y$  is normed spaces.  $f: E \rightarrow Y$  at the set

$E \subset X$ . Then  $f$  is differential at the point  $x \in E$  if there's a

continuous linear transformation  $L(x): X \rightarrow Y$  such that

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = L(x) \cdot h + \alpha(x; h) \quad (h \rightarrow 0)$$

where  $\alpha(x; h) = o(h)$

example:  $\mathcal{D} S = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} L(t, q, \dot{q}) dt$

$$\delta S = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} \delta q + \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \delta \dot{q} \right) dt = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \delta q \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} + \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) \right] \delta q dt = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right)$$

②  $A \in \mathcal{L}(X; X)$  define:  $\exp: \mathcal{L}(X; X) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(X; X)$

$$\exp A = E + \frac{1}{1!} A + \frac{1}{2!} A^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} A^n$$



Notice that

$\exp(A+h) = \exp(A) + L(A)h + o(h)$ , where

$$L(A)h = h + \frac{1}{2!}(Ah+hA) + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}(A^{n-1}h + A^{n-2}hA + \dots + AhA^{n-2} + hA^{n-1}) + \dots$$

And  $\|L(A)\| \leq \exp\|A\|$ , so  $L(A) \in \mathcal{L}(\Sigma(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R}), \Sigma(\mathbb{R}; \mathbb{R}))$

is differentiable

### 5. Finite-Increment Theorem

$f: U \rightarrow Y$ ,  $U \in X$ ,  $X$  and  $Y$  are normed.

The closed interval  $[x, x+h] = \{\xi \in X \mid \xi = x + \theta h, 0 \leq \theta \leq 1\}$  is contained in  $U$  and  $f$  is differentiable at all points of  $(x, x+h)$ ,

$$\text{then } \|f(x+h) - f(x)\|_Y \leq \sup_{\xi \in (x, x+h)} \|f'(\xi)\|_{\Sigma(X; Y)} \|h\|_X$$

### 6. higher-order derivatives

Definition:  $f^n(x) = (f^{n-1})'(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} f^n(x) \in \mathcal{L}(X; Y_n) &= \mathcal{L}(X; \mathcal{L}(X; Y_{n-1})) = \dots \\ &= \mathcal{L}(X; \mathcal{L}(X; \mathcal{L}(X; \dots \mathcal{L}(X; Y))) \dots) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have Taylor series:

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + f'(x)h + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} f^n(x)h^n + o(\|h\|^n)$$

To prove that, we ~~ta~~ can take use of Mathematical Induction as well as finite-increment theorem.

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
& |f(x+h) - (f(x) + f'(x)h + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(x) \cdot h^n)| \\
& \leq |h| \cdot \sup_{0 < \theta < 1} \|f'(x+\theta h) - (f'(x) + f''(x)h + \dots + \frac{1}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(x) \cdot h^{n-1})\| \\
& = |h| \cdot O(|\theta h|^{n-1}) \\
& = O(|h|^n)
\end{aligned}$$

In fact, we can take use of it to study interior extrema

If we have  $f'(x) = 0$   $f''(x) = 0 \dots$   $f^{(k-1)}(x) = 0$   $f^{(k)}(x) \neq 0$

Then: necessary:  $k$  is even and  $f^{(k)}(x) h^k$  can not take on values of opposite signs (semidefinite, 半定的)

sufficient:  $f^{(k)}(x) h^k$  on the sphere  $|h|=1$  is bounded away from 0,

and  $f^{(k)}(x) h^k > \delta > 0$  (minimum) or

$f^{(k)}(x) h^k < \delta < 0$  (maximum) ( $\delta$  is constant)

example:  $f(\vec{r}) = f(0) + \nabla f(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{r} + \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \nabla f)(\vec{r} \vec{r}) + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} (\underbrace{\nabla \nabla \dots \nabla f}_n) \cdot \underbrace{(\vec{r} \vec{r} \dots \vec{r})}_n$

Proof: we can take use of Mathematical Induction

$$\underbrace{\nabla \dots \nabla}_n f(\vec{r} + d\vec{r}) - \underbrace{\nabla \dots \nabla}_n f(\vec{r}) = \underbrace{\nabla \nabla \dots \nabla}_{n+1} f(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{r} + O(d\vec{r})$$

and using Taylor series, we have the formula.