

# Linear Operators on Hilbert Spaces

## Some Hilbert space Subtleties

Ex: Let  $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots$  be a complete orthonormal system for ~~the~~ the Hilbert space  $H$ .

Define:  $A$  by  $A\phi_n = \lambda_n \phi_n$   
 For any finite combination of  $\phi_n$ 's,  $A$ 's action is defined.  
 If  $x = \sum_n a_n \phi_n$   $Ax = \sum_n \lambda_n a_n \phi_n$

If  $\sum_n |\lambda_n a_n|^2 = +\infty$   $Ax$  is not defined  
 while  $\sum_n |a_n|^2 < +\infty$  for  $x$   
 member of Hilbert space.

Concretely  $\lambda_n = n$  and  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$

In general  $A$  is defined only  
 on a linear manifold  $D_A \subset H$

If  $A'$  is defined on  $D_{A'}$  with  
 $D_{A'} \supset D_A$  and  $A'x = Ax$  for  $x \in D_A$   
 then  $A'$  is an extension of  $A$ .

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For the example with  $\lambda_n = n$   
 $Ax$  is defined if  $x = \sum_n a_n \phi_n$

and  $\sum_n n^2 |a_n|^2 < \infty$ .

That condition defines  $D_A$ .

Many operator's we see in quantum mechanics has to be defined on domains  $D_A$  which are proper subsets of  $H$ . Examples,  $\hat{x}$ ,  $\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} = \hat{p}$  etc.

These are ~~examples of~~ examples of unbounded operators.

Def: Bounded operators  $A$  ~~are defined~~ ~~by~~ by the property that for any  $x \in H$

$$\|Ax\| \leq C\|x\| \text{ for some } C > 0.$$

The smallest such  $C$  is called the bound,  $\|A\|$ , Continued on Page \_\_\_\_\_

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## Adjoint Operator

Def If for any  $y$   $\langle y, Ax \rangle = \langle y_*, x \rangle$  for every  $x \in D_A$ , then we define  $y_* = A^+ y$

Comment For this definition to work,  $D_A$  has to be dense in  $H$ . If  $D_A^\perp$  is nontrivial, we have a  $y_0 \in D_A^\perp, y_0 \neq 0$ . Then  $\langle y_0, x \rangle = 0$  for  $x \in D_A$ .  
Hence  $\langle y_* + y_0, x \rangle = \langle y, Ax \rangle$   
making  $A^+ y$  ill-defined

Def A linear operator is self-adjoint

if  $D_A = D_{A^+}$  and  $Ax = A^+ x$  for  $x \in D_A = D_{A^+}$

For bounded operators if  $D_A$  is dense in  $H$  we find an extension defined over all of  $H$ .

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 In general, for unbounded <sup>symmetric</sup> operators, we might have  $D_{A_0}$  such that

$$\langle y, A_0 x \rangle = \langle A_0 y, x \rangle$$

Then  $A_0^+$  is an extension of  $A_0$ .  
Sometimes written as  $A_0 \subset A_0^+$

To build a self adjoint operator we need to find an extension of  $A_0$  of  $A_0$ , s.t.

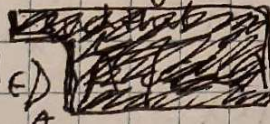
$$A_0 \subset A = A^+ \subset A_0^+$$

$$\text{with } D_{A_0} \subset D_A = D_{A^+} \subset D_{A_0^+}$$

## Spectrum of a self adjoint operator

Def The  spectrum of an operator  $A$

consists of  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  so that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$

there is a  $\phi \in D_A$   s.t.  $\|A\phi - \lambda\phi\| < \varepsilon\|\phi\|$

The point spectrum  $\Pi(A)$  corresponds to points which are eigenvalues with  $A\phi = \lambda\phi$  for some  $\phi \in D_A$

$\Sigma(A) - \Pi(A) = \Sigma_c(A)$  is the continuous spectrum.

Why do we need to be careful?

Ex 1: Consider  $L^2([-1, 1])$  and the operator

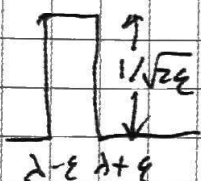
$$Xf(x) = xf(x)$$

This is a bounded ~~continuous~~ operator

Yet  $Xf = \lambda f \Rightarrow f(x) = 0$  for  $x \neq \lambda$

$f(x)$  should be  $\delta(x-\lambda)$  but that is not an  $L^2$  function.

Hence we need to find  $f_\epsilon(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\epsilon}}$  for  $|x-\lambda| < \epsilon$   
 $= 0$



$$\int [(\lambda - x)f_\epsilon(x)]^2 dx = \epsilon^2/3$$

$$\int |f_\epsilon(x)|^2 dx = 1$$

$$\text{So } \|Xf_\epsilon - \lambda f_\epsilon\| = \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{3}} \|f_\epsilon\| < \epsilon \|f\|$$

Ex 2  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$  with  $A = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

Ideally we should have  $e^{ikx}$  as an eigenfunction but that function is ~~not~~ not in  $L^2(\mathbb{R})$ ,

we need to find  $\psi_\epsilon(x) = \left(\frac{\epsilon}{\pi}\right)^{1/4} e^{ikx} e^{-\frac{\epsilon}{2}x^2}$

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so that  $\|\psi_\epsilon\| = 1$  and it approximates the

the 'almost' eigenfunction.

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PROJECT

The spectrum of self-adjoint operator stays on the real line.

Associated with each self-adjoint operator is a resolution of identity  $\{E_\lambda\}$  which projects  $H$  to a linear manifold  $M_\lambda$ .  $M_\lambda \subset M_\mu$  if  $\lambda < \mu$

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow -\infty} E_\lambda = 0$$

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow +\infty} E_\lambda = I$$

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} E_{\lambda \pm \varepsilon} = E_\lambda^\pm \text{ exist for every } \lambda$$

If  $E_{\lambda_0^+} - E_{\lambda_0^-} \neq 0$  the discontinuity corresponds to a point in the discrete spectrum

If  $E_\lambda$  is continuous at  $\lambda_0$  but  $E_{\lambda_0+\varepsilon} - E_{\lambda_0-\varepsilon} \neq 0$   $\lambda_0$  is a point of increase (continuous spectrum)

$$A = \int \lambda dE_\lambda$$

(Hilbert's fundamental theorem)

Ex 1. For finite dimensional operators we will have eigen values  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  and corresponding projection operators  $P_i$

$$E_\lambda = \sum_i P_i$$

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S.T.  $\lambda_i \in \lambda$

Ex 2: Hydrogen atom Hamiltonian

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Bound states

Scattering

Point spectra

Continuous spectra

Resolvent of a self adjoint operator  $A$

We want to define  $f(A) = \int f(\lambda) dE_\lambda$  (e.g.  $e^{iAt} = \int e^{i\lambda t} dE_\lambda$  in well defined for  $H$ )

In particular  $R_\lambda(A) = (A - \lambda I)^{-1} = \int \frac{1}{\lambda - \alpha} dE_\alpha$

In particular, for differential operators  $L$  we want to solve problems like

$$(L - \lambda I) u(x) = f(x)$$

Formally we have  $(L - \lambda I)^{-1} f = I$

We want to write it as a kernel  $G_\lambda(x, y)$

So that  $(L - \lambda I) G_\lambda(x, y) = \delta(x - y)$ , formally.

Turns out that  $G_\lambda(x, y) = G_\lambda^*(y, x)$

This is seen most easily in the case of  $\sqrt{\text{discrete}}$  spectrum where

$$G_\lambda(x, y) = \sum_n \frac{\phi_n(x) \phi_n^*(y)}{\lambda_n - \lambda}$$

For real  $\lambda$

$$G_\lambda^*(x, y) = \sum_n \frac{\phi_n^*(x) \phi_n(y)}{\lambda_n - \lambda} = \sum_n \frac{\phi_n(y) \phi_n^*(x)}{\lambda_n - \lambda} = G_\lambda(y, x)$$

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# Partial Differential Equations

## Linear first order PDE

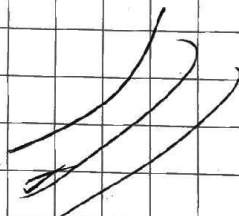
$$\sum_k V^k(x) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x^k} = f(x)$$

Such equations are solved by method of characteristics.

Solve for  $\frac{dx^k}{d\lambda} = V^k(x)$  (Integral curves  $\rightarrow$  characteristic)

Now we get  $\frac{d u(x(\lambda))}{d\lambda} = f(x(\lambda))$

Integrate to get  $u$  for each characteristic

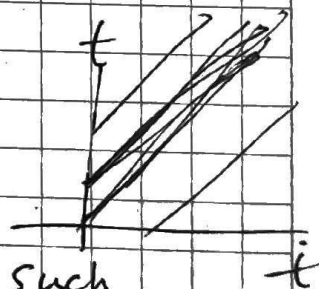


Example

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + s \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$$

Solve for  $\frac{dt}{d\lambda} = 1$        $\frac{dx}{d\lambda} = s$

Solution  $t = \lambda$ ,  $x = s\lambda + x_0$ .  $u$  constant on such lines. So  $u = \psi(x - st)$ . Traveling wave



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Laplacian and linear second order PDE

$$\Delta u = \nabla^2 u = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) u$$

Homogeneous eqn  $\nabla^2 u = 0$  (Laplace's eqn)

Inhomogeneous eqn  $\nabla^2 u = -4\pi\rho$  (Poisson eqn)

Is the Laplacian self-adjoint

$$\langle v, \Delta u \rangle = \int_{\Omega} v^* \nabla^2 u \, d\Omega$$

$$= \int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot (v^* \nabla u) \, d\Omega - \int_{\Omega} \nabla v^* \cdot \nabla u \, d\Omega$$

$$= \int_{\partial\Omega} v^* \nabla u \cdot d\vec{S} - \int_{\Omega} \nabla v^* \cdot \nabla u \, d\Omega$$

$$\langle \Delta v, u \rangle = \int_{\Omega} (\nabla^2 v^*) u \, d\Omega = \int_{\Omega} \nabla \cdot (u \nabla v^*) \, d\Omega - \int_{\Omega} \nabla u \cdot \nabla v^* \, d\Omega$$

$$\text{So } \langle v, \Delta u \rangle - \langle \Delta v, u \rangle = \int_{\partial\Omega} (v^* \hat{n} \cdot \nabla u - u \hat{n} \cdot \nabla v^*) \, dS$$

Green's Theorem!

 A necessary condition for self adjointness is to have the boundary term vanish

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One boundary condition that achieves that is  $u(\vec{r}) = v(\vec{r}) = 0$  on  $S$  (Dirichlet Condition)

Another one is  $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\nabla} u = \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\nabla} v = 0$  on  $S$  (Neumann Condition)

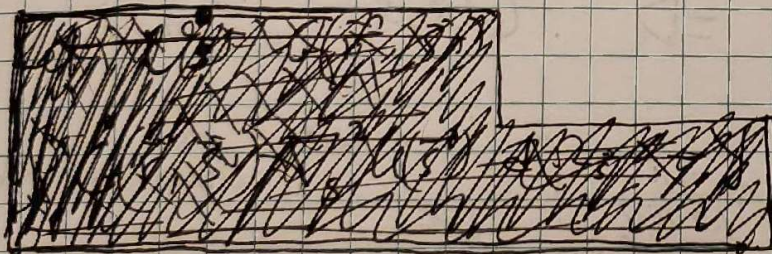
More generally, we can have mixed condition like

$$\alpha(\vec{r}) u(\vec{r}) + \beta(\vec{r}) \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\nabla} u(\vec{r}) = \alpha(\vec{r}) v(\vec{r}) + \beta(\vec{r}) \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\nabla} v(\vec{r}) = 0$$

Let us see if we can use Green's Theorem to suggest some way of solving <sup>Laplace and</sup> Poisson equation

Let  $G(\vec{r}, \vec{s})$  be the Green function of given by the equation

$$\nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = -4\pi \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{s}) \quad , \text{ with some boundary conditions}$$



Note that  $u(\vec{r}) = \int G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) P(\vec{s}) d\Omega_s$  solves  $\nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 u(\vec{r}) = -4\pi P(\vec{r})$

For the case of Laplace's equation

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Use  $v(\vec{s}) = G(\vec{r}, \vec{s})$  and use Green's theorem

$$-\int_{\Omega} \nabla_{\vec{s}}^2 G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) u(\vec{s}) d\Omega_{\vec{s}} + \int_{\Omega} \underbrace{G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s})}_{\text{zero}} \underbrace{\nabla_{\vec{s}}^2 u(\vec{s})}_{\text{zero}} d\Omega_{\vec{s}}$$

$$= \int_{\Omega} (G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla u(\vec{s}) - u(\vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s})) d\Omega_{\vec{s}}$$

Since  $G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = G(\vec{s}, \vec{r})$  and  $\nabla_{\vec{s}}^2 G(\vec{s}, \vec{r}) = -4\pi \delta(\vec{s} - \vec{r})$

$$4\pi \int_{\Omega} \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{s}) u(\vec{s}) d\Omega_{\vec{s}} = \int_{\Omega} (G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla u(\vec{s}) - u(\vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s})) d\Omega_{\vec{s}}$$

Or

$$u(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\Omega} [G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla u(\vec{s}) - u(\vec{s}) \hat{n}_s \cdot \nabla G^*(\vec{r}, \vec{s})] d\Omega_{\vec{s}}$$

For the  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = G(\vec{r} - \vec{s}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^n} \int e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{s})} \frac{d^n \vec{k}}{k^2}$

Since  $\int e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{s})} d^n \vec{k} = (2\pi)^n \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{s})$

$$\nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = -4\pi \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{s}) \Rightarrow -k^2 G(\vec{k}) = -4\pi$$

$$G(\vec{k}) = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \Rightarrow G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^n} \int \frac{e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{s})}}{k^2} d^n \vec{k}$$

In 3d

$$G(\vec{r}, \vec{s}) = \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{p}}}{k^2} d^3 \vec{k} \quad \vec{p} = \vec{r} - \vec{s}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{ikp} - e^{-ikp}}{kp} dk = \frac{2}{\pi^2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin u}{u} du$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{p} = \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{s}|}$$

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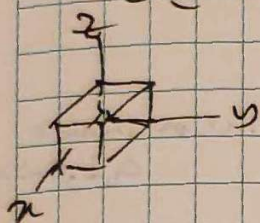
## Spectrum of the Laplacian

Let  $u$  satisfy boundary conditions to make  $\Delta$  selfadjoint

$$\langle u, \Delta u \rangle = - \int \nabla u^* \cdot \nabla u \, d\Omega < 0 \quad \text{for nonzero } u.$$

If the region is bounded then the spectrum becomes discrete. For example, if we have

$$0 \leq x \leq a, \quad 0 \leq y \leq b, \quad 0 \leq z \leq c \quad \text{with } u=0 \text{ on the sides}$$



We could try eigenfunction li.

$$u(\vec{r}) = X(x) Y(y) Z(z)$$

$$X_l(x) = \sin \frac{l\pi x}{a} \quad Y_m(y) = \sin \frac{m\pi y}{b} \quad Z_n(z) = \sin \frac{n\pi z}{c}$$

$$u_{lmn} = \sqrt{\frac{8}{abc}} \sin \frac{l\pi x}{a} \sin \frac{m\pi y}{b} \sin \frac{n\pi z}{c}$$

$$\lambda_{lmn} = - \left\{ \left( \frac{l\pi}{a} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{m\pi}{b} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{n\pi}{c} \right)^2 \right\}$$

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If we keep periodic bdy conditions and  
Complex  $u$ .

$$i \left( \frac{2\pi l}{a} x + \frac{2\pi m}{b} y + \frac{2\pi n}{c} z \right)$$

$$u_{lmn}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{abc}} e^{i \left( \frac{2\pi l}{a} x + \frac{2\pi m}{b} y + \frac{2\pi n}{c} z \right)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{V}} e^{i \vec{k}_{lmn} \cdot \vec{r}}$$

$$\lambda = -k_{lmn}^2$$

We will often take finite volume system and then make  
 $a, b, c \rightarrow \infty$

Note that  $\frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} g(\vec{k}) = \frac{1}{abc} \sum_{lmn} g(\vec{k}) \approx \frac{1}{abc} \int dldmdn g(\vec{k})$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3k g(\vec{k}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3k g(\vec{k})$$

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Time dependent PDE with Laplacians

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} = a \nabla^2 x$$

Heat equation

$$\left( \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 \right) \phi = 0$$

Wave equation.

$$i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi$$

Schrödinger eqn for free particle

$$i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = H \psi$$

In general.

$$H = - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\vec{r})$$

These are homogeneous equations

For initial value problems, we get  $U(\vec{r}, 0)$  (and maybe  $\frac{\partial U}{\partial t}(\vec{r}, 0)$ )

We choose "eigenfunctions" of  $\nabla^2$  (or of  $H$ ) to expand

$$U(\vec{r}, t) = \sum_a c_a(t) \phi_n(\vec{r})$$

Convert PDE into ODEs

Get  $c_n(0)$  (maybe  $\dot{c}_n(0)$ ) determined from initial conditions

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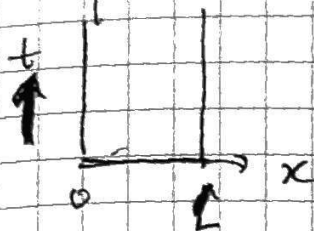
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Let us illustrate the idea for <sup>the</sup> heat equation and the wave equation. I will do it in 1+1 dim, with <sup>both</sup> values being 0.



$$X(x,0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \sin \frac{\pi n x}{L}$$

$$X(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(t) \sin \frac{\pi n x}{L}$$

$$\frac{\partial X}{\partial t} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \dot{a}_n(t) \sin \frac{\pi n x}{L}$$

$$a \nabla^2 X = a \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left\{ -\left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 \right\} a_n(t) \sin \frac{\pi n x}{L}$$

Get coeffs  $\dot{a}_n(t) = -a \left(\frac{\pi n}{L}\right)^2 a_n(t)$

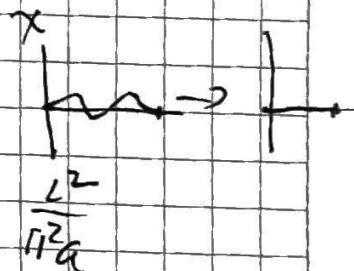
$$a_n(t) = e^{-\frac{a \pi^2 n^2}{L^2} t} a_n(0)$$

$$So \quad X(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{a \pi^2 n^2}{L^2} t} a_n(0) \sin \frac{\pi n x}{L}$$

In long time,  $X(x,t) \rightarrow 0$

Temperature even out.

Timescale



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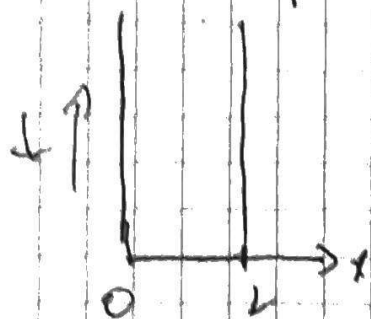
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Wave equation



$$\phi(x,t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n(t) \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$$

Go through the same manoeuvre

$$\ddot{C}_n(t) = -\frac{c^2 n^2 \pi^2}{L^2} C_n(t)$$

$$C_n(t) = A_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n c}{L} t + \delta_n\right)$$

$$= C_n(0) \cos \frac{\pi n c}{L} t + \frac{L}{\pi n c} \dot{C}_n(0) \sin \frac{\pi n c}{L} t$$

$$\phi(x,t) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \cos\left(\frac{\pi n c}{L} t + \delta_n\right) \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$$

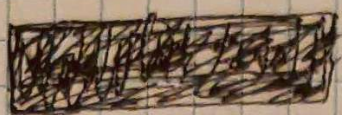
This solution keep oscillating.

We will now discuss inhomogeneous eqn  
and Green's function, in 3d.

$$\text{We want to solve } \left( \nabla_r^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \phi(\vec{r}, t) = -4\pi \rho(\vec{r}, t)$$

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We will do it via Green function

$$\left( \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) G(\vec{r}-\vec{s}, t-u) = -4\pi \delta(\vec{r}-\vec{s}) \delta(t-u)$$

We will define  $\vec{r}, \tau$  as relative coordinates

$\vec{r}$  is really  $\vec{r}-\vec{s}$ ,  $\tau$  is really  $t-u$

We choose an  $L \times L \times L$  volume.  $\vec{k}_{\text{min}} = \left( \frac{2\pi l}{L}, \frac{2\pi m}{L}, \frac{2\pi n}{L} \right)$   
 $k_x \quad k_y \quad k_z$

$$G(\vec{r}, t-u) = \sum_{\vec{k}} g_{\vec{k}}(t-u) \frac{e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}}}{\sqrt{V}} \frac{e^{-i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{s}}}{\sqrt{V}}$$

↑  
really  $\vec{r}$ .

$$= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} g_{\vec{k}}(t-u) e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r}-\vec{s})}$$

What we need is to expand  $\delta(\vec{r}-\vec{s})$  in this basis

Since ~~all~~ <sup>all</sup> eigenvalues of  $\delta(\vec{r}-\vec{s})$  as an operator is 1.

$$\delta(\vec{r}-\vec{s}) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{r}-\vec{s})}$$

The differential equation for  $g_{\vec{k}}(t-u)$

$$\left( -k^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} \right) g_{\vec{k}}(t) = -4\pi \delta(t).$$

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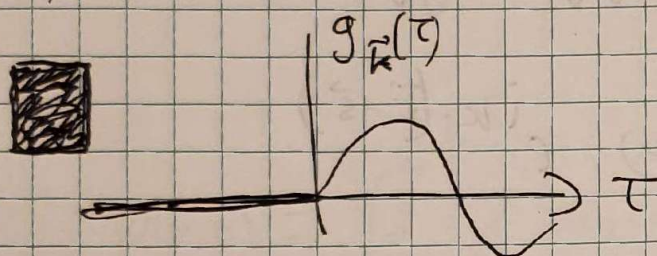
We will be interested in the retarded Green function (the causal one).

$$G_{\text{ret}}(\vec{r}-\vec{s}, t-u) = 0 \text{ if } t < u \text{ or } \tau < 0$$

Then  $g_{\vec{k}}(\tau) = 0$  for  $\tau < 0$

$$\ddot{g}_{\vec{k}}(\tau) = -c^2 k^2 g_{\vec{k}}(\tau) + 4\pi c^2 \delta(\tau)$$

This is a <sup>frequency  $ck$</sup>  harmonic oscillator with an impulse



$$g_{\vec{k}}(\tau) = \frac{4\pi c}{k} \sin k c \tau$$

For  $\tau > 0$

$$G_{\text{ret}}(\vec{P}, \tau) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\vec{k}} \frac{4\pi c}{k} \sin k c \tau e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{P}}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{4\pi c}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{\sin k c \tau}{k} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{P}} d^3 k$$

$$= \frac{4\pi c}{(2\pi)^3} \int dk \int d\theta \frac{\sin k c \tau}{k} e^{i k P \cos \theta} \frac{2\pi k^2 \sin \theta d\theta dk}{k}$$

$$= \frac{c}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{i k P} - e^{-i k P}}{i k P} \frac{\sin k c \tau}{k} k^2 dk$$

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$$= \frac{2c}{\pi p} \int_0^\infty \sin kp \sin k\tau \, dk$$

$$= \frac{c}{\pi p} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{(e^{ikp} - e^{-ikp})}{2i} \frac{(e^{ikc\tau} - e^{-ikc\tau})}{2i} \, dk$$

$$= \frac{c}{\pi p} \left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) \left[ \int_{-\infty}^\infty dk e^{ik(p+c\tau)} + \int_{-\infty}^\infty dk e^{-ik(p+c\tau)} - \int_{-\infty}^\infty dk e^{ik(p-c\tau)} - \int_{-\infty}^\infty dk e^{-ik(p-c\tau)} \right]$$

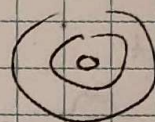
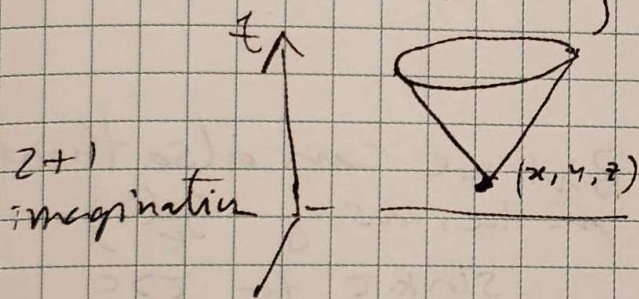
$$= \frac{c}{4\pi p} \left[ 2 \times 2\pi \delta(p-c\tau) - 2 \times 2\pi \delta(p+c\tau) \right]$$

$$= \frac{c}{p} [\delta(p-c\tau) - \delta(p+c\tau)]$$

Since  $p \geq 0$   
 $\tau > 0$

$$\delta(p+c\tau) = 0$$

$$\text{So } G_{\text{ret}}(\vec{p}, \tau) = \frac{c}{p} \delta(p-c\tau)$$



We could have tried doing it by a 4-d Fourier transfn

$$G(\vec{p}, \tau) \rightarrow \tilde{G}_{\text{ret}}(\vec{k}, \omega) \quad \text{satisfies} \quad \left(\frac{\omega^2}{c^2} - k^2\right) \tilde{G}_{\text{ret}}(\vec{k}, \omega) = -4\pi$$



$$G_{\text{ret}}(\vec{p}, \tau) = -\frac{4\pi c^2}{(2\pi)^3} \int \frac{e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{p} + i\omega\tau}}{\omega^2 - k^2 c^2} d^3k d\omega$$

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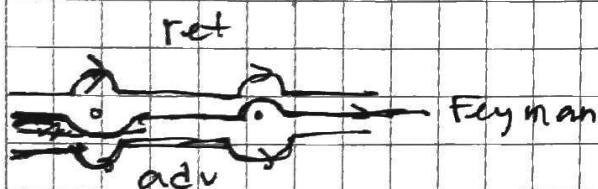
$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{\omega - k c} \quad \xrightarrow{\omega = k c} \quad \omega \end{array}$$

We want  $\int \frac{e^{-i\omega T}}{\omega^2 - k^2 c^2} d\omega$  to give the 'right' answer  
 $\sim \frac{\sin k c T}{k c}$

$$\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{-k c} \quad \xrightarrow{k c} \quad \int \frac{e^{-i\omega T}}{(\omega - k c)(\omega + k c)} d\omega \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (-\pi i) \frac{e^{+ikcT}}{-2kc} + (-\pi i) \frac{e^{-ikcT}}{2kc} \\ &= +\pi i \frac{2i \sin k c T}{2kc} = -\frac{\pi \sin k c T}{kc} \end{aligned}$$

$$G_{ret}(\vec{p}, \tau) = \frac{4\pi c}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin k c \tau}{k} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r}} d^3 k$$



But we can also think  
in terms of  $g_k(\tau)$   
 $\sin k c \tau$  for  $\tau > 0$   
or  $\tau < 0$

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