

0.1 Integrals in \mathbb{C}

0.1.1 Fourier Integral

Recall the **Fourier transform** of a function $f(x)$:

$$\mathcal{F}(f(x)) \equiv \tilde{f}(k) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ikx} f(x) dx$$

The *inverse* Fourier transform is then:

$$\mathbb{F}^{-1}(\tilde{f}(k)) \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ikx} \tilde{f}(k) dk$$

Note that, by our convention, we will put the $(2\pi)^{-1}$ normalization factor only in the inverse, and not in the direct Fourier transform.

- One simple Fourier transform is that of the $\delta(x)$ distribution:

$$\mathbb{F}(\delta(x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ikx} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

In fact, we could use this relation to *define* $\delta(x)$:

$$\delta(x) \equiv \mathbb{F}^{-1}(1) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ikx} dk$$

- The **Heaviside function** is defined as:

$$\theta_0(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & x < 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & x = 0 \\ +1 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

If we *remove* the middle value, we can write the resulting function $\theta(x)$ in terms of the *sign function*:

$$\text{sign}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

noting that:

$$\theta(x) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\text{sign}(x)}{2}$$

To compute the Fourier transform of $\theta(x)$ we start by differentiating:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \theta(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\text{sign}(x)}{2} = \delta(x)$$

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and then make use of a property of Fourier transforms:

$$\mathcal{F}\left(\frac{d}{dx}f(x)\right) = ik\tilde{f}(k)$$

(Prove this as **exercise**) leading to:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\theta}(k) &= \frac{1}{ik}\mathcal{F}\left(\frac{d}{dx}\theta(x)\right) + \mathcal{F}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{ik} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2}\mathcal{F}(1) = \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{=} \frac{1}{ik} + \pi\delta(x)\end{aligned}$$

(As **exercise**, prove that $\mathcal{F}(1) = 2\pi\delta(x)$, the result we used in (a)).

0.1.2 Fresnel integral

We now introduce a new kind of integral, which will be useful to solve the Schrödinger equation after applying a Fourier transform:

$$i\mathcal{G}(\vec{r}, t; \vec{r}', t') = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \exp\left(-\frac{i\hbar}{2m}k^2(t-t') - i\vec{k}(\vec{r}-\vec{r}')\right)$$

where \mathcal{G} is the *propagator* (a measure of probability of transition between two positions in a quantum system - will be explained in detail later in the course).

Example 1:

Consider the following integral:

$$I(a, b) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dk}{2\pi} e^{-iak^2 - ibk} = \frac{1}{(4\pi ai)^{1/2}} \exp\left(\frac{ib^2}{4a}\right) \quad a, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

Note that $I(a, b)$ is similar to $Z(A, b)$, but it lies in the complex plane.

1. Suppose $a > 0$. We consider a slight “nudge” of the imaginary axis by a small clockwise angle $\epsilon > 0$, that is:

$$i_\epsilon = \exp\left(i\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \epsilon\right)\right) = e^{i2\Phi_\epsilon} \quad \Phi_\epsilon = \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

We replace i with i_ϵ in the first exponential term:

$$I_\epsilon(a, b) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{dk}{2\pi} \exp(-ak^2 e^{2i\Phi_\epsilon} - ibk)$$

Note that $I_\epsilon \rightarrow I$ as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. Also, as:

$$\text{Re}(e^{2i\Phi_\epsilon}) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \epsilon\right) > 0$$

I_ϵ is well defined.

Now, consider the following change of variables:

$$ke^{i\Phi_\epsilon} = z \Rightarrow dk = dz e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon}$$

and let $b' = e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon}b$ for simplicity. We arrive at:

$$I_\epsilon(a, b) = \frac{e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon}}{2\pi} \int_\gamma e^{-az^2 - izb'} dz$$

where γ is the new path of integration, i.e. a line passing through the origin of the complex plane, forming an angle of Φ_ϵ with the real axis.

To solve the complex integral we invoke, as usual, the Cauchy Residual Theorem. For that we need a close path Γ :

- Start following γ
- Follow an arc of circumference γ_+ to a point $R \gg 0$ on the real axis.
- Follow the real axis $\bar{\gamma}_R$ from right to left, up to $-R$
- Follow an arc of circumference γ_- leading back to γ

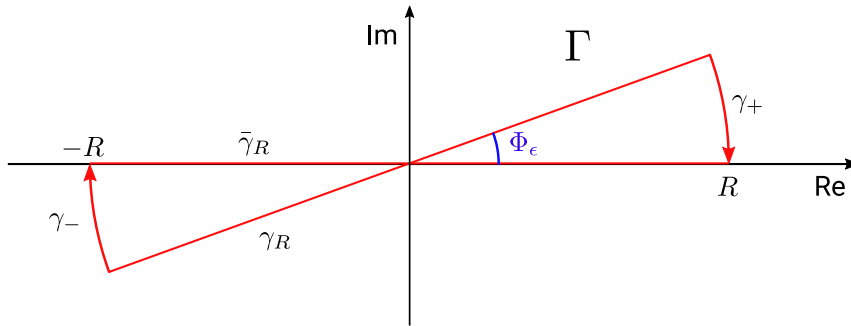


Figure (1) – Path of the integral

So that:

$$I_{R,\epsilon}(a, b) = \int_\Gamma dz e^{-az^2 - izb'} = 0$$

as there are no singularities inside $\Gamma = \gamma \cup \gamma_+ \cup \bar{\gamma}_R \cup \gamma_-$, where:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_+ &= \{z = Re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [0, \Phi_\epsilon]\} \\ \gamma_- &= \{z = Re^{i\theta}, \theta \in [\pi, \pi + \Phi_\epsilon]\} \\ \gamma_R &= \{z \in \gamma, |z| \leq R\} \\ \bar{\gamma}_R &= [-R, R] \end{aligned}$$

Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} |I_{R,\epsilon}^{\gamma_+}| &\xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0 \\ |I_{R,\epsilon}^{\gamma_-}| &\xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0 \end{aligned}$$

In fact:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_{\gamma_+} e^{-az^2 - ib'z} dz \right| &= \left| -Ri \int_{\theta=0}^{\theta=\Phi_\epsilon} d\theta \exp \{ i\theta - aR^2 e^{2i\theta} - iRb' e^{i\theta} \} \right| \leq \\ &\leq R \int_0^{\Phi_\epsilon} d\theta \exp \{ -aR^2 \cos(2\theta) \} \left| \exp \{ iRb e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon + i\theta} \} \right| \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Note that $\cos(2\theta) > 0$, as $2\theta < \pi/2$. Then:

$$(1) \leq R \int_0^{\Phi_\epsilon} d\theta \exp \{ -aR^2 \cos(2\theta) + Rb \sin(-\Phi_\epsilon + \theta) \} \leq R e^{-aR^2 \sin \Phi_\epsilon} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

And the same steps can be repeated for γ_- .

Then:

$$I_{\gamma_R} = -I_{\bar{\gamma}_R} = I_{\bar{\gamma}_R}^{-1}$$

And so:

$$\begin{aligned} I_\epsilon(a, b) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-az^2 - ib'z} dz \stackrel{(a)}{=} \frac{1}{2\pi} e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} \exp \left(-\frac{(b')^2}{4a} \right) = \\ &= (4\pi a)^{-\frac{1}{2}} e^{-i\Phi_\epsilon} \exp \left(-\frac{(b')^2}{4a} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where in (a) we used the Gaussian integral (prove as **exercise**).

Substituting back:

$$I(a, b) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} I_\epsilon(a, b) = (4\pi ai)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left(\frac{ib^2}{4a} \right)$$

where we used:

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\Phi_\epsilon} &\rightarrow \exp \left(i\frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \sqrt{i} \\ (b')^2 &= (be^{-i\Phi_\epsilon})^2 \rightarrow -b^2 \end{aligned}$$

2. Otherwise, if $a < 0$, note that $I(a, b) = I(-a, -b)^*$. Since $ia = (-ia)^*$ and $b^2 = (b^2)^*$ we arrive at:

$$I(a, b) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} I_\epsilon(a, b) = (4\pi ai)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left(\frac{ib^2}{4a} \right)$$

as before.

Exercise 1:

Compute the Gaussian integral:

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-az^2+bz} dz = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} \exp\left(\frac{b^2}{4a}\right) \quad a \in \mathbb{R}_+, b \in \mathbb{C}$$

Hint : let $b = \beta + i\nu$, with $\beta, \nu \in \mathbb{R}$, and perform a shift of the integration path $z = x + iq$ ($x, q \in \mathbb{R}$) to remove all complex terms from the exponential.

0.1.3 Indented integrals in \mathbb{C}

We start from:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x - x_0 - i\epsilon} = \mathcal{P}\left(\frac{1}{x - x_0}\right) + i\pi\delta(x - x_0) \quad (2)$$

where \mathcal{P} denotes the *principal component*. This is nothing but a crude abbreviation for the following formula:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x - x_0 - i\epsilon} dx = \mathcal{P} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x - x_0} dx + i\pi f(x_0) \quad (3)$$

where $f(x)$ is an analytical function.

Graphically, the limit in the left side is “pulling” a pole at $i\epsilon$ towards the point x_0 on the real axis. Then, the principal component on the other side represents a small deformation (an “indent”) of the real axis that “accommodates” the incoming pole. Recall that the principal value is defined as:

$$\mathcal{P} = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{x_0 - \delta} \frac{f(x)}{x - x_0} dx + \int_{x_0 + \delta}^{+\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x - x_0} dx \right]$$

that is an integral that stops “just before” a pole x_0 and restarts right after, somewhat “taming” certain kinds of singular integrals that would otherwise be undefined. For example:

$$\mathcal{P} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{-\delta} \frac{1}{x} dx + \int_{\delta}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx \right] = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} 0$$

To prove (3) we make use again of the Cauchy Residual Theorem. Consider a path Γ around the singularity $x_0 + i\epsilon$:

$$\int_{\Gamma} \frac{f(x)}{x - (x_0 + i\epsilon)} = 2\pi i f(x_0 + i\epsilon)$$

Now consider the integral on the right side of (3), and consider a Γ along the real axis, that makes a semicircle Γ_{int} with $\text{Im } z < 0$ around x_0 , accommodating the singularity that is shifted from the limit, and then a large semicircle Γ_{ext} with $\text{Im } z > 0$.

Assume that the integrand function $f(z)$ is analytic for $\text{Im } z \geq 0$, and that $f(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $|z| \rightarrow \infty$, so that:

$$\int_{\Gamma_{\text{ext}}} \dots \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x - x_0 - i\epsilon} &= \mathcal{P} \left(\frac{f(x)}{x - x_0 - i\epsilon} \right) + \int_{\Gamma_{\text{int}}} \frac{f(z)}{z - x_0} dz = \\ &= \mathcal{P} \left(\frac{f(x)}{x - x_0 - i\epsilon} \right) + i\pi f(x_0)\end{aligned}$$

Exercise 2:

Prove that:

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x - x_0 + i\epsilon} = \mathcal{P} \left(\frac{1}{x - x_0} \right) = i\pi \delta(x - x_0)$$

Example 2 (Laplace's formula):

Consider the following integral:

$$I(n) = \int_{-1}^1 (\cos x)^n dx$$

in the limit $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Note that, as n increases, the only relevant part of the integral is that around the maximum, meaning around $x = 0$. Thus we can expand around it:

$$\cos x \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2}$$

And then approximate with a gaussian:

$$I(n) \approx \int_{-1}^{+1} \exp \left(-\frac{n}{2} x^2 \right) dx = \dots = \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} \pi$$

[Laplace's formula]