

# REVISION SHEET

①

- Line / Contour integrals

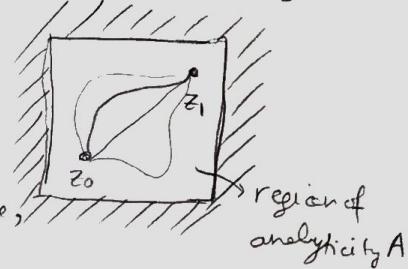
$$\int \gamma f(z) dz = \int_a^b f(\gamma(t)) \cdot \gamma'(t) dt$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(t) &= x(t) + iy(t) \\ dz &= \gamma'(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

- Fundamental Thm of C line integrals - If  $f(z)$  is an analytic function on open region  $A$  and  $\gamma$  is a curve on  $A$  from  $z_0$  to  $z_1$ , then

$$\int \gamma f'(z) dz = f(z_1) - f(z_0)$$

Restating, if the integrand has a well defined antiderivative, then integral depends on endpoints  $z_0$  &  $z_1$ .



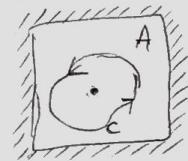
$$\int \gamma f(z) dz = G(z_1) - G(z_0) \quad \text{and integrals can just be calculated ordinarily}$$

if antiderivative  
is single valued!

$$\text{Also, } \int \gamma f(z) dz \text{ has an antiderivative} \Leftrightarrow \int \gamma f(z) dz \text{ is path independent} \Leftrightarrow \int_C f(z) dz = 0$$

Corollary → If  $\int_C f(z) dz \neq 0$  when the curve encloses some region inside  $A$ , then antiderivative of  $f(z)$  does NOT exist and  $f(z)$  isn't analytic!

Note: The fundamental thm doesn't demand simply connected regions, so it is even applicable in punctured open regions as well!



- Cauchy's Theorem If  $A$  is a simply connected region,  $f(z)$

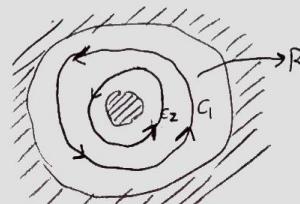
is analytic on  $A$ , and  $C$  is a simply closed / or even intersecting curve in  $A$ , then -

$$\textcircled{1} \int_C f(z) dz = 0 \quad \textcircled{2} \text{ Integrals of } f \text{ on paths in } A \text{ are independent}$$

$\textcircled{3} f(z)$  definitely has an antiderivative in  $A$ .

- Extended Cauchy's Theorem If  $f(z)$  is analytic on  $R$  where  $R$  is a region surrounded by an island of non-analyticity, then for  $C_1$  &  $C_2$  in  $R$ ,

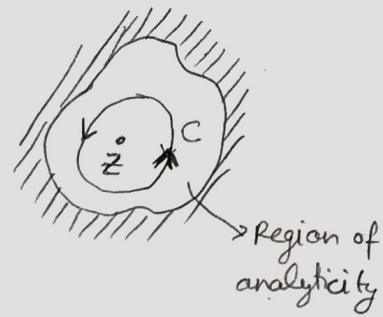
$$\int_{C_1} f(z) dz = \int_{C_2} f(z) dz$$



- Cauchy's Integral Formula  $C$  is a simple closed curve and  $f(z)$  is analytic on a region containing  $C$  and its interior

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\omega)}{(\omega - z)} d\omega$$

$z$  is INSIDE  $C$ .



- Cauchy's Integral formula for derivatives

If  $f(z)$  &  $C$  satisfy the conditions of integral formula, then  $\forall z$  inside  $C$

$$\frac{d^n f}{dz^n}(z) = \frac{n!}{2\pi i} \oint_C \frac{f(\omega) d\omega}{(\omega - z)^{n+1}}$$

$n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$\Rightarrow$  An analytic fn is infinitely diff. hence smooth.

- Triangle inequality for Integrals

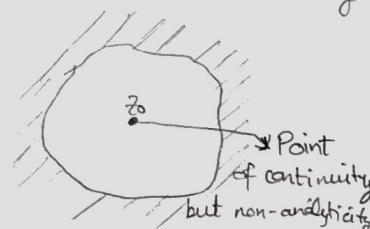
$$\left| \int_C f(z) dz \right| \leq \int_C |f(z)| |dz| \quad \text{where } |dz| = |P'(t)| dt$$

Corollary: If  $|f(z)| < M$  inside  $C \Rightarrow \left| \int_C f(z) dz \right| < M \cdot (\text{length of } C)$

- Second Extended Cauchy's Theorem: If  $A$  is a simply connected region containing  $z_0$  and  $g$  is a fn such that it is

- ① Continuous on  $A$
- ② Analytic on  $A - \{z_0\}$

then  $\oint_C g(z) dz = 0$



Also, as a consequence of derivative thm, if  $f(z)$  is analytic on a region containing  $C$  (closed loop) and its interior, then derivatives of all orders exist in that region.

## REVISION NOTES

- Sum of infinite geometric series. If  $|x| < 1$ , then the sum  $1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x}$  (again  $|x| < 1$ )

- Convergence of power series -  $f(z) = \sum_n a_n (z - z_0)^n$ .  
For such series,  $\exists R \geq 0$  s.t. if  $R > 0$  then the series converges for  $|z - z_0| < R$  to an analytic function.  $R$  is called the radius of convergence. ( $R=0$  series diverges)

- Ratio test.  $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right|$  for the series  $\sum_n c_n$ 
  - $L < 1$  series converges
  - $L > 1$  series diverges

- Taylor's Theorem: Suppose  $f(z)$  is an analytic function in region  $A$  and the point  $z_0 \in A$ , then

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

converges for  
 $|z - z_0| < R$  contained in  
 $A$

Simple curve surrounding  
 $z_0$  in  $A$

Each series expansion about  $z_0$  has a unique expansion!

The radius of convergence is the distance from  $z_0$  to closest singularity  $\Sigma$ .

Taylor's theorem is used for expansion about analytical points.

- Laurent series: Suppose  $f(z)$  is analytic on the annulus

$$\text{Then } f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z - z_0)^n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (z - z_0)^n$$

$$A: r_1 < |z - z_0| < r_2$$

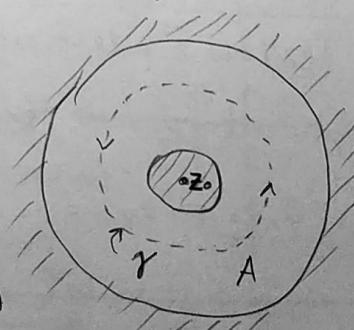
$$a_n = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\gamma} \frac{f(w)}{(w - z_0)^{n+1}} dw$$

Depending on the region of interest, expanding  $f(z)$  as a Laurent series might give different expansions. Let our expansion be about  $z=0$  &  $z=0$  &  $z=1$  are poles, then we can expand  $f(z)$  on two annuli

$$A_1: 0 < |z| < 1$$

$$A_2: 1 < |z| < \infty$$

$\gamma$  is inside  $A$



### Poles and zeroes

$f(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0 \rightarrow f(z) = a_n(z-z_0)^n + a_{n+1}(z-z_0)^{n+1} + \dots$

$n^{\text{th}}$  order zero  
at  $z = z_0$

$f(z)$  has an isolated singularity at  $z_0 \rightarrow f(z) = \frac{b_n}{(z-z_0)^n} + \frac{b_{n-1}}{(z-z_0)^{n-1}} + \dots + \frac{b_1}{z-z_0} + a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \dots$

$n^{\text{th}}$  order pole at  $z_0$

Residues Let  $f(z)$  be some function with an isolated singularity but analytic on  $\{z : |z - z_0| < r\}$  and Laurent series in the same region (neighbourhood of singul) be -

$$f(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{b_n}{(z-z_0)^n} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(z-z_0)^n$$

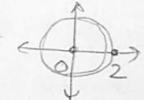
$$\text{Then } \text{Res}(f, z_0) = b_1$$

$$\oint_{\gamma} f(z) dz = 2\pi i b_1$$

$\gamma$ : Some small circle surrounding  $z_0$  & no other singularities



While calculating residue, the annular region across which you expand the function, should NOT contain any other singularity. Both Taylor & Laurent Exp. demand an analytic region. Ex -  $f(z) = \frac{1}{z(z-2)}$ , I can only do Laurent exp. in the region ( $0 < |z| < 2$ , not more than this, but small is allowed.)



### Residue Calculation Properties

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = g(z_0)$$

① If  $g(z) = (z-z_0)$   $f(z)$  is analytic, then  $z_0$  is either a simple pole or  $f$  is analytic. and?

② If  $f(z)$  has a simple zero at  $z_0$ , then  $1/f(z)$  has a simple pole at  $z=z_0$ , then

$$\text{Res}(1/f(z), z_0) = 1/f'(z_0) \quad \left[ \text{expand } f(z) = q_1(z-z_0) + q_2(z-z_0)^2 + \dots \Rightarrow f(z) = \frac{1}{q_1(z-z_0)} \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{1 + \frac{q_2}{q_1}(z-z_0) + \dots} \right] \right]$$

③ If  $f(z)$  has a simple pole at  $z_0$  and  $g(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0$ , then

$$\text{Res}(fg, z_0) = g(z_0) \text{Res}(f, z_0) \quad \& \text{ if } g(z_0) \neq 0 \quad \text{Res}(f/g, z_0) = \frac{1}{g(z_0)} \text{Res}(f, z_0)$$

analytic with 0<sup>th</sup> order zero

④ If  $f(z)$  has a pole of order  $k$  at  $z_0$ , then  $g(z) = (z-z_0)^k f(z)$  is analytic at  $z_0 \Rightarrow g(z) = a_0 + a_1(z-z_0) + \dots$

$$\text{Res}(f, z_0) = a_{k-1} = \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \frac{d^{k-1}}{dz^{k-1}} g(z_0)$$

| Cauchy Residue Theorem - Suppose  $f(z)$  is analytic in the region  $A$  except for a set of isolated singularities. Also suppose  $C$  is a simple closed curve in  $A$  that doesn't go through any of the singularities, then -

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \sum \text{(residues of } f \text{ inside } C)$$

If the curve  $C$  is big enough to contain all the singularities, then

$$\text{Res}(f, \infty) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_C f(z) dz = -\sum \text{(sum of residues of } f)$$

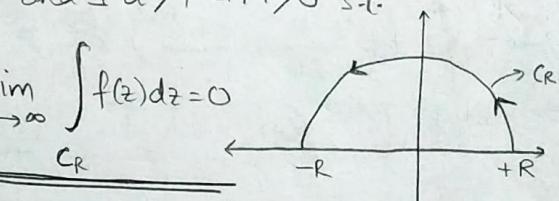
→ So, if  $f$  is analytic in  $C$  except for some finite no. of singularities (with  $C$  big enough to contain all of them)

$$\oint_C f(z) dz = 2\pi i \text{Res} \left( \frac{1}{z^2}, 0 \right)$$

### CALCULATING DEFINITE INTEGRALS

• Theorem: (a) If  $f(z)$  is defined in upper plane and  $\exists a > 1 \& M > 0$  s.t.

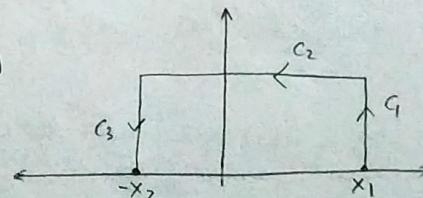
$$|f(z)| < \frac{M}{|z|^a} \quad (\text{decays faster than } \frac{1}{z}) \Rightarrow \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_R} f(z) dz = 0$$



(b) If  $f(z)$  is defined in the lower plane, use lower semicircle. Same result.

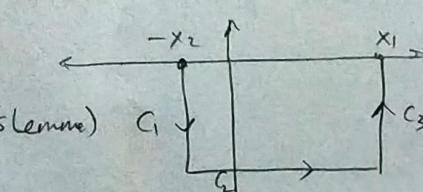
Theorem: (a)  $f(z)$  is defined in upper half plane ^ and it decays like  $\frac{1}{z}$  i.e.  $a > 0$ .

$$|f(z)| < \frac{M}{|z|} \quad \text{for } M > 0 \Rightarrow \lim_{\substack{x_1 \rightarrow \infty \\ x_2 \rightarrow \infty}} \int_{C_1 + C_2 + C_3} f(z) e^{iaz} dz = 0$$



(b) for  $a < 0$  and  $f(z)$  defined in lower plane

$$\lim_{x_1, x_2 \rightarrow \infty} \int_{C_1 + C_2 + C_3} f(z) e^{iaz} dz = 0 \quad (\text{basically Jordan's Lemma})$$



→ For integrals with  $e^{iaz}$   $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} |f(z)| = 0$  is enough. (decay like  $\frac{1}{z}$ ) for  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$

For integrals of form  $\int f(z) dz$ ,  $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} |zf(z)| = 0$  is needed for  $\int_C f(z) dz = 0$  (decay faster than  $\frac{1}{z}$ )

(6)

For integrals of the type  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$  and  $\int_0^{\infty}$  the  $f^h$  should decay faster than  $1/z$

i.e.  $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} |zf(z)| = 0$  or  $|f(z)| < \frac{|M|}{|z|^a}$  for  $a > 1$ , then choose a contour,

and calculate  $\oint f(z) dz$  at  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty}$  (with one of contour lines as x-axis)

$$\text{then } \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \oint f(z) dz = \sum [\text{Res}(f) \text{ in the upper plane}]$$

• For integrals of the type  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iax} f(x) dx$ , the function should decay like  $\frac{1}{z}$  i.e.  $\lim_{|z| \rightarrow \infty} |f(z)| = 0$  or  $|f(z)| < \frac{|M|}{|z|}$  in the upper plane (important)

$$\text{then again } \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \oint f(z) e^{iaz} dz = \sum [\text{Res}(f(z) e^{iaz}) \text{ in upper plane}]$$

### Trigonometric Integrals

$$\int_0^{2\pi} f(\sin \theta, \cos \theta) d\theta = ?$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} + e^{-i\theta}}{2} = \frac{z + z^{-1}}{2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i} = \frac{z - z^{-1}}{2i}$$

$$d\theta = \frac{dz}{iz}$$

$$z = e^{i\theta} \text{ unit circle}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \oint_{|z|=1} f\left(\frac{z-z^{-1}}{2i}, \frac{z+z^{-1}}{2i}\right) \frac{dz}{iz} = \oint_{|z|=1} g(z) dz = \sum \text{Res}(g(z))$$

### Cauchy Principal Value

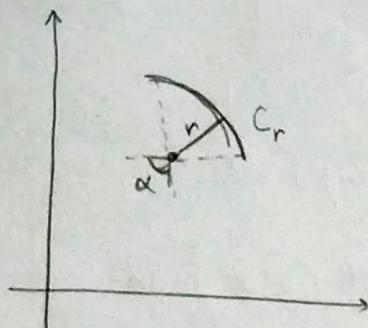
$$\text{P.V.} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \right) = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \int_{-R}^{x_1-r_1} f(x) dx + \int_{x_1+r_1}^{x_2-r_2} f(x) dx + \dots + \int_{x_n+r_n}^R f(x) dx \right]$$

$x_i \rightarrow$  discontinuities

If  $f(x)$  has finite discontinuities, and  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges, then

$$\text{so does P.V.} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \right) \text{ and } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \text{P.V.} \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \right)$$

# Integrals over portions of circles (Generalised Residue theorem)



Suppose  $f(z)$  has a simple pole at  $z_0$ . Let  $C_r$  be the arc  $\gamma(t) = z_0 + re^{it}$   $\theta_0 \leq t \leq \theta_0 + \alpha$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \int_{C_r} f(z) dz = \alpha i \operatorname{Res}(f, z_0)$$

ONLY FOR SIMPLE POLES

## Gamma Functions

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{z-1} dt \quad \xrightarrow{u = \ln(1/t)} \quad \Gamma(z) = \int_0^1 \left(\ln \frac{1}{u}\right)^{z-1} du$$

$$\downarrow x^2 = t$$

$$\Gamma(z) = 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} x^{2z-1} dx \quad \text{Another alternate defn}$$

$$\Gamma(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots n}{z(z+1)(z+2)\cdots(z+n)}$$

$\operatorname{Re}(z) > 0$   $z \neq 0, -1, -2, -3, \dots \Leftarrow$  poles

$$\Gamma(z+1) = z \Gamma(z) \Rightarrow \underline{\Gamma(z-1) = \frac{\Gamma(z)}{z-1}} \quad \underline{\Gamma(z) = (z-1)!}$$

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

## Digamma & Polygamma

$$\ln \Gamma(z+1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \ln(n!) + z \ln(n) - \sum_{m=1}^n \ln(z+m) \right]$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} \ln(\Gamma(z+1)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \ln(n) - \sum_{m=1}^n \frac{1}{z+m} \right] = \psi'(z+1) = \frac{[\Gamma(z+1)]'}{\Gamma(z+1)}$$

$$\underset{\text{Poly gamma}}{\psi^{(a)}}(z+1) = \frac{d^a}{dz^a} (\ln(\Gamma(z+1))) = (-1)^a (a-1)! \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(z+m)^a} \quad a \geq 2$$

• Beta Function

$$\beta(m+1, n+1) = \frac{\Gamma(m+1)\Gamma(n+1)}{\Gamma(m+n+2)} = \frac{m!n!}{(m+n+1)!} = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^{2m+1}\theta \sin^{2n+1}\theta d\theta$$

$$\rightarrow \text{sub in } \cos^2\theta = t \Rightarrow \beta(m+1, n+1) = \int_0^1 t^m (1-t)^n dt$$

$$\rightarrow \text{sub in } t = x^2 \Rightarrow \beta(m+1, n+1) = \int_0^1 x^{2m+1} (1-x^2)^n dx$$

$$\rightarrow \text{sub in } t = u/(1+u) \Rightarrow \beta(m+1, n+1) = \int_0^\infty \frac{u^m}{(1+u)^{m+n+2}} du$$

• Branches

For fractional powers,  $z^{1/n} = r^{1/n} \exp\left(\frac{i\phi}{n}\right) \underbrace{\exp\left(\frac{i2\pi m}{n}\right)}_{1 \leq m \leq n} \rightarrow n \text{ valued}$

To find powers of complex nos.,  $z^a = e^{a \log(z)}$  and then use the principal branch for  $\log(z)$

• The branch is defined as the choice of range for a given multivalued function  $f(z)$ .

The branch cut removes the parts of the domain which make  $f(z)$  discontinuous by defining the branch for

$$\arg(z) = \theta + 2n\pi$$

• Cauchy Riemann: for  $f(z) = u(x, y) + i v(x, y)$ ,  $f$  is analytic if

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_x u &= \partial_y v \\ \partial_x v &= -\partial_y u \end{aligned}$$

For a  $f(r, \theta)$ , if  $f(r, \theta + 2\pi) \neq f(r, \theta)$ , we face an identity crisis since the same pt. on  $z$ -plane maps to more than one value of  $f$ . So, we introduce a branch cut accordingly to make  $f$  single valued in the regd. domain.  
(usually  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ )

# Revision Notes

## Differential Eq<sup>n</sup>s

- Exact first order D.E.  $\rightarrow Q(x,y) \frac{dy}{dx} + P(x,y) = 0 \Rightarrow P(x,y)dx + Q(x,y)dy = 0$

If  $\frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \Rightarrow$  arising from some  $d\varphi = Pdx + Qdy \Rightarrow \varphi = \text{constant}$

- LINEAR first order O.D.E If D.E. isn't exact, make it exact

$\left( \frac{dy}{dx} + p(x) \right) y(x) = q(x)$  multiply by  $\alpha(x)$  to make it exact

$$\alpha(x) = e^{\int p(x) dx} \Rightarrow y(x) = e^{-\int p(x) dx} \left[ \int q(x) e^{\int p(x) dx} dx + C \right]$$

- LINEAR Homogeneous second order O.D.E  $\left[ \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + P(x) \frac{dy}{dx} + Q(x) \right] y(x) = 0$

Use  $y(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i x^{i+k}$  find indicial eq<sup>n</sup> and recursion relation  $a_0 \neq 0$  set  $a_1 = 0$  as long as it is arbitrary

\* If we have  $ay'' + by' + cy = 0$  with  $a, b, c$  const, then factorise the D.E. as  $(\frac{d}{dx} - s_1)(\frac{d}{dx} - s_2)y = 0$

- Second solution of linear hom. 2nd order ODE

$$W = \begin{vmatrix} f_1 & f_2 & f_3 \\ f'_1 & f'_2 & f'_3 \\ f''_1 & f''_2 & f''_3 \end{vmatrix} \begin{matrix} \rightarrow 0 & \text{linearly dependent} \\ & f''_1 \\ \rightarrow \neq 0 & \text{linearly independent} \\ & f''_2 \end{matrix}$$

For  $y_1, y_2$ , solve of  $y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y = 0$

$$W = W_0 e^{-\int p(x) dx}$$

But since  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{y_2}{y_1} \right) = \frac{W}{y_1 y_2} \Rightarrow y_2(x) = W_0 y_1(x) \int dx e^{-\int p(x) dx}$

$$W = y_1 y_2' - y_2 y_1' \Rightarrow W' = y_1 y_2'' - y_2 y_1'' \Rightarrow W' = -2p(x)W$$

## Sturm-Liouville Theory

- Self adjoint. Given  $\hat{L} = p_0(x) \hat{D}_x^2 + p_1(x) \hat{D}_x + p_2(x)$

$$\hat{L} = p_0(x) \hat{D}_x^2 + (2p_0' - p_1) \hat{D}_x + (p_0'' - p_1' + p_2)$$

- Making an operator self adjoint If  $\mathcal{L}$  is not a self adjoint operator -  
i.e.  $\mathcal{L}y = y'' + P(x)y' + Q(x)y$  Assume  $y = \underset{(x)}{M}z$  where  $M(x)$  is the adjoint fn.  
 $\mathcal{L}y = \mathcal{L}(Mz) = (\mathcal{L}M)z$  Now adjust  $M(x)$  s.t. the self adjoint condition is satisfied ( $p_1 = p_0'$ )  
 then  $\mathcal{L}M$  is a S.A. operator.

### Gram Schmidt Orthogonalization

$\{v_i\} \rightarrow$  linearly independent set

- ①  $\tilde{V}_0 = v_0 \rightarrow$  normalize to get  $f_0$
- ②  $\tilde{V}_1 = v_1 - \langle f_0 | v_1 \rangle \rightarrow$  normalize to get  $f_1$
- ③  $\tilde{V}_2 = v_2 - \langle f_0 | v_2 \rangle - \langle f_1 | v_2 \rangle \rightarrow$  norm. to get  $f_2$

Subtract projections with orthonormalized vectors. And then normalize again!

### GREEN FUNCTION

- Solving inhomogeneous eqn's by constructing G.F.

Let's say the D.E. is  $p_0 y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = f(x)$   $\mathcal{L} = p_0 \hat{D}_x^2 + p_1 \hat{D}_x + p_2$

So,  $\mathcal{L}y(x) = f(x)$ . Now we convert the diff. problem to an integral problem

let  $\exists G$  s.t.  $\mathcal{L}G(x, x') = \delta(x - x')$ , then  $y(x) = \int_a^b G(x, x') f(x') dx'$

To find G.F. solve this when  $x \neq x'$   $\mathcal{L}G(x, x') = 0$

You'll get sol'n's like  $G_1(x)$  &  $G_2(x)$ , then

$$G(x, x') = \begin{cases} \alpha G_1(x) + \beta G_2(x) & a < x < x' < b \\ \gamma G_1(x) + \xi G_2(x) & b > x > x' > a \end{cases}$$

To find  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \xi$  -

① use boundary conditions at  $y(x=a, b)$

② continuity of  $G(x, x')$  at  $x=x'$

③ Appropriate discontinuity  $\Delta \partial_x G|_{x=x'} = \frac{1}{p_0'}$

then

$$G(x, x') = \int_a^x (\gamma G_1 + \xi G_2) f(x') dx' + \int_x^b (\alpha G_1 + \beta G_2) f(x') dx'$$

Eigenfn expansion of Green fn

Given a general D.E.  $\boxed{Ly(x) - \mu \omega(x) y(x) = f(x)}$ , source

then if we find the complete set of eigenvalues/fns for L

$$\boxed{L\varphi_n(x) = \lambda_n \omega(x) \varphi_n(x)}$$

$\{\varphi_n(x)\}$

then we can write the soln  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \varphi_n(x)$

$$\Rightarrow (L - \mu \omega(x)) \sum_n c_n \varphi_n(x) = f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [(\lambda_n - \mu) \omega(x) c_n] \varphi_n(x)$$

Take the integral with  $\varphi_m^*(x)$  multiplied on both sides

$$\int_a^b \varphi_m^*(x) f(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_a^b (\lambda_n - \mu) c_n \omega(x) \varphi_m^*(x) \varphi_n(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b \varphi_m^*(x) f(x) dx = (\lambda_m - \mu) c_m \Rightarrow c_m = \frac{\int_a^b \varphi_m^*(x) f(x) dx}{(\lambda_m - \mu)}$$

$$\text{then } y(x) = \underbrace{\int_a^b \frac{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi_m^*(x') \varphi_n(x)}{(\lambda_n - \mu)} f(x') dx'}_{G(x, x')} \Rightarrow G(x, x') = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi_n^*(x') \varphi_n(x)}{(\lambda_n - \mu)}$$

While solving a simpler problem of  $\boxed{Ly(x) = f(x)}$  &  $\boxed{L\varphi_n = \lambda_n \varphi_n(x)}$

$$\text{then } G(x, x') = \underbrace{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi_n^*(x) \varphi_n(x)}{\lambda_n}}$$

$$\text{and thus } y(x) = \int_a^b G(x, x') f(x) dx'$$

Remember: if weight fn is introduced in eigenvalue  $\lambda^n$ , it will also be introduced in the inner product. Reason? I still don't know...

Defn of Hermitian adjoint (which I always forget)  $\langle f | Ag \rangle = \langle g | A^T f \rangle^*$

# Revision Sheet for Special functions

(1)

## Legendre Polynomials

$$\bullet (1-x^2) P_e''(x) - 2x P_e'(x) + l(l+1) P_e(x) = 0 \quad \text{Legendre diff. eqn}$$

### Series expansion

$$P_e(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{[l/2]} (-1)^k \frac{(2l-2k)!}{2^k k! (l-k)! (l-2k)!} x^{l-2k}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The Legendre polynomial  $P_e(x)$  is a  $l$ -degree polynomial.

$$\bullet \text{Generating fn} \quad g(x,t) = (1-2xt+t^2)^{-1/2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n P_n(x)$$

### Recurrence relations.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{using } \partial_x g \\ \text{using } \partial_x g \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} x(2n+1) P_n(x) = (n+1) P_{n+1}(x) + n P_{n-1}(x) \\ 2x P_n'(x) + P_n(x) = P_{n+1}'(x) + P_{n-1}'(x) \end{array}$$

Other recursions

$$\rightarrow P_{n+1}'(x) - P_{n-1}'(x) = (2n+1) P_n(x) \quad \rightarrow (1-x^2) P_n'(x) = n P_{n-1}(x) - n x P_n(x)$$

$$\rightarrow P_{n-1}'(x) = -n P_n(x) + x P_n'(x) \quad \rightarrow (1-x^2) P_n'(x) = (n+1)x P_n(x)$$

$$\bullet \text{Special values, Parity & orthogonality} \quad \rightarrow P_n(-x) = P_n(x) (-1)^n \Rightarrow P_n(-1) = (-1)^n \quad \begin{matrix} -(n+1) P_{n+1}(x) \\ x=1 \end{matrix}$$

$$\rightarrow P_{2n}(0) = \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n} (n!)^2} (-1)^n, \quad P_{2n+1}(0) = 0 \quad \begin{matrix} x=0 \end{matrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \int_{-1}^{+1} P_n P_m dx = \frac{2}{2n+1} \delta_{n,m} \quad (\text{multiplied by } P_m \text{ in Legendre eqn for orthogonality})$$

$$\bullet \text{Rodrigues' formula} \quad P_n(x) = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left( \frac{1}{2^n n!} (x^2-1)^n \right)$$

## (2) Associated Legendre Polynomials.

$$P_e^m(x) = (1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m}{dx^m} P_e(x) \rightarrow \text{defn in terms of Legendre Polynomial}$$

(2)

General Legendre ODE  $(1-x^2) P_e^{m''}(x) - 2x P_e^{m'}(x) + \left[ l(l+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2} \right] P_e^m = 0$

For  $m=0$ ,  $P_e^0(x) = P_e(x)$

Extending the defn for

$$-l \leq m \leq l$$

$$P_e^m(x) = \frac{(1-x^2)^{m/2}}{2^l l!} \frac{d^{m+l}}{dx^{m+l}} (x^2 - 1)^l$$

- Parity  $P_e^{-m}(x) = (-1)^{l+m} P_e^m(x)$

$$P_e^{-m}(x) = (-1)^m \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!} P_e^m(x)$$

### ③ Hermite functions

- Generating function  $g(x,t) = e^{-t^2+2xt} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(x) \frac{t^n}{n!} \Rightarrow \left. \frac{\partial^n g(x,t)}{\partial t^n} \right|_{t=0} = H_n(x)$

- Recurrence relations

$$2x H_n(x) - 2n H_{n-1}(x) = H_{n+1}(x) \rightarrow \text{using } \partial_t g$$

$$H_n'(x) = 2n H_{n-1}(x) \rightarrow \text{using } \partial_x g$$

Recursion relations are immensely useful (paired with orthogonality) to solve integrals.

$$\rightarrow H_{2n+1}(0) = 0 \quad H_{2n} = (-1)^n \frac{(2n)!}{n!} \quad \rightarrow H_n(-x) = (-1)^n H_n(x)$$

- Rodrigues's formula  $H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^{-x^2}$  differentiate  $g(x,t)$   $n$  times & set  $t=0$

Self adjoint Hermite's D.O.E.  $e^{-x^2} [ H_n''(x) - 2x H_n'(x) + 2n H_n(x) ] = 0$

$$\rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_m(x) H_n(x) e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} 2^n n! \delta_{m,n}$$

$\uparrow$   
weight  $f^n$

Orthogonality condition

#### 4 Bessel functions

• Generating function  $g(x,t) = e^{x/2(t-yt)} = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} J_n(x) t^n$

Series expansion  $J_n(x) = \frac{\sum_{s=0}^{\infty} (-1)^s \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{n+2s}}{(n+s)! s!}$

In the above expansion

$$n \rightarrow -n \Rightarrow J_{-n}(x) = (-1)^n J_n(x)$$

similarly use  $g(x,-t) = g(-x,t)$   
 $\rightarrow J_n(-x) = (-1)^n J_n(x)$

#### • Recursion relations

$$\rightarrow J_{n-1}(x) + J_{n+1}(x) = \frac{2n}{x} J_n(x) \rightarrow \text{using } \partial_t g$$

$$\rightarrow J_{n-1}(x) - J_{n+1}(x) = \frac{2}{x} J_n'(x) \rightarrow \text{using } \partial_x g$$

using these two, we get

$$\rightarrow J_{n-1}(x) = \frac{n}{x} J_n(x) + J_n'(x)$$

$$\text{and } \rightarrow J_{n+1}(x) = \frac{n}{x} J_n(x) - J_n'(x)$$

and  $\frac{d}{dx} (x^n J_n(x)) = x^n J_{n-1}(x) \rightarrow \text{can prove using induction}$

• Bessel eqn  $x^2 J_\nu'' + x J_\nu' + (x^2 - \nu^2) J_\nu(x) = 0$

• Integral Representation use  $t = e^{i\theta}$  or some combination thereof in  $g(x,t)$

$$\cos(x \sin \theta) = J_0 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} J_{2n} \cos(2n\theta)$$

$$\sin(x \sin \theta) = 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_{2n+1} \sin((2n+1)\theta)$$

then using fourier series orthogonality

$$J_{2n}(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \cos(x \sin \theta) \cos(2n\theta) d\theta, \quad J_{2n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \sin(x \sin \theta) \sin((2n+1)\theta) d\theta$$

orthogonality  $\rightarrow \int_0^a J_\nu \left( k_{vm} \frac{P}{a} \right) J_\nu \left( k_{vn} \frac{P}{a} \right) P dP = a^2 \frac{J_{\nu+1}^2(k_{vm})}{2} S_{n,m}$

expansion  $\Rightarrow f(x) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} C_{vm} J_\nu \left( \frac{k_{vm} x}{a} \right)$

## NOTES:

- \* When doing integrals like  $\int H_n(x) e^{-x^2/2}$  or  $\int J_n(x) dx$  or something, we can use generating  $f^n$ , and then taking the integral of  $g(x,t)$  has the coeff. of expansion as the integral we want to evaluate. (by collecting  $t^n/n!$ )
- \* All the special  $f^n$ 's form an orthogonal basis in a given range, so any  $f^n$  can be expanded in terms of them.
- \* Use recursion relation for simplifying integrals. Immensely useful for  $|H_n|^2$  or  $|P_n|^2$  type.
- \* Don't even try to integrate generating  $f^n$  of  $P_n(x)$
- \*  $\int_x (fg')h - \frac{d}{dx}(fh')g = \frac{d}{dx}(f(g'h - h'g))$