# PHYS2111 Cheat Sheet

Moisty Eyes

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## 1 Formula Sheet

## 1.1 Expectation Value

Expectation value of function f(x) subject to  $\Psi(x,t)$ 

$$\mathbb{P}(f(x)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \|\Psi(x,t)\|^2 dx.$$

Note that the Hamiltonian operator H is

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x, t),$$

and the expectation value of the energy  $\langle H \rangle$  is

$$\begin{split} \langle H \rangle &= \left\langle -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x,t) \right\rangle \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x,t) \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x,t) \right) \Psi(x,t) \, \mathrm{d}x. \end{split}$$

General case, the expectation value for any operator  $Q(x,\hat{p})$  is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x,t) Q(x,\hat{p}) \Psi(x,t) \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

# 1.2 Poisition and Momentum Operators

The position operator,

$$\hat{x} = x$$
.

The momentum operator,

$$\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}.$$

# 1.3 The Infinite Square Well

Time Dependent Schrodinger's Equation

$$\Psi(x,t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a}x\right) \exp\left(-iE_n t\right).$$

with constant

$$c_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \int_0^a \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a}x\right) \Psi(x,0) dx.$$

and allowed energy

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}.$$

#### 1.4 The Harmonic Oscillator

A harmonic oscillator has potential energy

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2,$$

With ground state  $\psi_0(x)$ 

$$\psi_0(x) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \exp\left(-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}x^2\right).$$

The ladder operator

$$a_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} (\mp i\hat{p} + m\omega x),$$
  $(\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}})$ 

and to extract the n-th state with the ladder operator

$$\psi_n(x) = A_n(\hat{a}_+)^n \psi_0(x),$$

with

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\right).$$

## 1.5 The Free Particle

The initial condition can be expressed in the Fourier k space,

$$\phi(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,0) \exp(-ikx) \, \mathrm{d}x, \qquad (k = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar})$$

we can then use this  $\phi(k)$  calculated above to determine the time dependent wave equation for the free particle

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) \exp\left(i\left(kx - \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}t\right)\right) dk.$$

Notably, the particle has a phase velocity and a group velocity,

$$v_{\mathrm{phase}} = \frac{\omega}{k},$$
  $v_{\mathrm{group}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\omega}{\mathrm{d}k}.$   $(\omega = \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m})$ 

Also note that

$$v_{\text{group}} = v_{\text{classical}}.$$

For a free particle, note that the potential energy is zero namely V(x,t)=0. Also note that we can switch from the Fourier k space and the momentum p space  $(p=\hbar k)$ , obtaining the following

$$\phi(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,0) \exp\left(-\frac{ip}{\hbar}x\right) dx,$$

and

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(p) \exp\left(\frac{ip}{\hbar}x\right) \exp\left(\frac{-iEt}{\hbar}\right) \,\mathrm{d}p \qquad \quad (E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m})$$

## 1.6 The Delta-Function Potential

The delta function well has **only one** bound state (for  $\alpha > 0$ ) namely

$$\phi(x) = \frac{\sqrt{m\alpha}}{\hbar} \exp\left(\frac{-m\alpha|x|}{\hbar}\right),\,$$

with only one allow energy

$$E = -\frac{m\alpha^2}{2\hbar^2}.$$

The reflection coefficient R and the transmission coefficient T can be expressed as the following

$$R = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2\hbar^2 E}{m\alpha^2}}, \qquad \qquad T = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{m\alpha^2}{2\hbar^2 E}}.$$

## 1.7 The Finite Squre Well

The finite squre well has the potential function such that (note that this is a flipped tophat function),

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} -V_0 & \text{if } -a \le x \le a, \\ 0 & \text{if } |x| > a. \end{cases}$$

For scattering states, the energy for perfect transmission is given by

$$E_n + V_0 = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2m(2a)^2}.$$

Note that is also the allowed eneries for the infinite square well.

## 2 Formalism

#### 2.1 Hermitian Matrices

#### Properties of Hermitian Matrices:

- 1. The diagonal elements are real, as they must be their complex conjugate.
- 2. The off-diagonal symmetric pairs must be complex conjugates  $m_{ij} = m_{ji}^*$ . If they are real, then they will be equal.
- 3. Hermitian matrices are **normal**, i.e.  $M^{\dagger}M = MM^{\dagger}$ , and therefore **diagonalizable**, which means they can be transformed such that all off-diagonal elements are zero.
- 4. The sum of any two Hermitian matrices is also Hermitian.
- 5. The determinant of a Hermitian matrix is real.

Basically, let  $M_n$  be the set of  $n \times n$  complex-valued matrices. Let us consider a matrix  $A = [a_{ij}] \in M_n$  and denote its complex conjugate by  $\bar{A} = [\bar{a}_{ij}]$  and its transpose by  $A^T = [a_{ji}]$ . We then have the following: A matrix  $A = [a_{ij}] \in M_n$  is said to be Hermitian if  $A = A^*$ , where  $A^* = \bar{A}^T = [\bar{a}_{ji}]$ .

#### 2.2 Fundamental Theorem of Quantum Mechanics

#### The Fundamental Theorem

- 1. If  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are two unequal eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator, then the corresponding eigenvectors are orthogonal.
- 2. Even if  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$ , the corresponding eigenvectors can be chosen to be orthogonal. We use the term degeneracy to describe the case where two different eigenvectors have the same eigenvalue.  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are referred to as degenerate.
- 3. The eigenvectors of a Hermitian operator are a complete set, i.e. any vector the operator can generate can be expanded as a sum of its eigenvectors.

A distillation of the above: For any observable, we have an operator, the eigenvectors of that operator will be the basis for the vector space we operate in

#### The Principles

- 1. The observable or measurable quantities of quantum mechanics are represented by linear opertors  $\mathbf{L}$ , with  $\lambda_i$ ,  $|\lambda_i\rangle$  as its eigenvalue and eigenvector respectively.
- 2. The possible results of a measuremeant are the eigenvalues of the operator that represents the observable.
- unambiguously distinguishable states are represented by orthogonal vectors.
- 4. if  $|A\rangle$  is the state-vector of a system, and the observable **L** is measured, the probability to observe value  $\lambda_i$  is

$$\mathbb{P}(\lambda_i) = \|\langle A | \lambda_i \rangle\|^2 = \langle A | \lambda_i \rangle \langle \lambda_i | A \rangle$$

# 2.3 Recalling on Statistics

#### 2.3.1 Statitical Correlation

Consider

$$P = \langle \sigma_A \sigma_B \rangle - \langle \sigma_A \rangle \langle \sigma_B \rangle,$$

if  $P \neq 0$ , then  $\langle \sigma_A \rangle$  unrelated to  $\langle \sigma_B \rangle$ , else they are related.

For event a and b to be independent,

$$\mathbb{P}(a,b) = \mathbb{P}(a)\mathbb{P}(b).$$

## 2.3.2 The Cauchy-Swarz Inequality

It states that

$$\langle A|A\rangle\langle B|B\rangle \ge |\langle A|B\rangle|^2$$
.

## 2.3.3 Variance/Uncertainty

$$\sigma^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2.$$

#### 2.4 Commutators

For some [L, M] = LM - ML, if [L, M] = 0, then L and M commute and therefore there can exist a zero undertainty (we can know both of the observable precisely).

## 2.5 Some useful Propeties

#### 2.5.1 Matrices

Let r be a real number and A and B be matrices. Then

- 1.  $(A^T)^T = A$ ,
- 2.  $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$ ,
- 3.  $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ ,
- 4.  $(rA)^T = rA^T$ .

## 2.5.2 Hermitian Conjugate

$$\langle \phi | H | \psi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi^* H \psi \, \mathrm{d}x = \langle H^{\dagger} \phi | \psi \rangle.$$

**FSDFGDSF**