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Lecture-28

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Definitions and Theorems — I

- Scalar product of two complex functions f and g :

$$\langle g|f \rangle \doteq \int_{\tau} g^* f d\tau$$

g^* is the conjugate of g

- The functions f, g are orthogonal if $\langle g|f \rangle = 0$. For any complex constants b, b_1, b_2 , the following hold:

- $\langle f|g \rangle = \int_{\tau} f^* g d\tau = (\int_{\tau} f g^* d\tau)^* = \langle g|f \rangle^*$
- $\langle g|bf \rangle = b \langle g|f \rangle, \quad \langle bg|f \rangle = b^* \langle g|f \rangle$
- $\langle g|b_1 f_1 + b_2 f_2 \rangle = b_1 \langle g|f_1 \rangle + b_2 \langle g|f_2 \rangle$
- $\langle b_1 g_1 + b_2 g_2 |f \rangle = b_1^* \langle g_1 |f \rangle + b_2^* \langle g_2 |f \rangle$

- The functions may result from an operator's application:

$$s \doteq \mathcal{D}f \Rightarrow \langle g|s \rangle = \int_{\tau} g^* \mathcal{D}f d\tau, \quad \langle s|g \rangle = \int_{\tau} (\mathcal{D}f)^* g d\tau$$

- The operator adjoint to \mathcal{D} is indicated with \mathcal{D}^\dagger and has the property

$$\langle g|\mathcal{D}f \rangle = \langle \mathcal{D}^\dagger g|f \rangle \quad \forall f, g$$

- It may happen that $\mathcal{D}^\dagger = \mathcal{D}$. In this case, \mathcal{D} is called self-adjoint or Hermitian, and $\langle g|\mathcal{D}f \rangle = \langle \mathcal{D}g|f \rangle = \langle g|\mathcal{D}|f \rangle$.

→ Checking whether Hamiltonian operator is Hermitian

Definitions and Theorems — II

- The definition of scalar product generalizes that between vectors. The definition of adjoint operator generalizes that of conjugate-transpose matrix.
- The Hamiltonian operator is Hermitian for any function vanishing at the boundary $\partial\tau$ of τ :

$$\begin{aligned} \langle g | \mathcal{H}f \rangle - \langle \mathcal{H}g | f \rangle &= 0 \\ &= \int_{\tau} \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} g^* \nabla^2 f + g^* V f + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} f \nabla^2 g^* - f V g^* \right) d\tau = \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int_{\tau} (f \nabla^2 g^* - g^* \nabla^2 f) d\tau = \text{(by Green's theorem)} \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int_{\partial\tau} \left(f \frac{\partial g^*}{\partial \nu} - g^* \frac{\partial f}{\partial \nu} \right) d\partial\tau = 0. \end{aligned}$$

- The (second) Green theorem is demonstrated using $\mathbf{v} = \operatorname{grad} g$ in the identity $\operatorname{div}(f \mathbf{v}) = f \operatorname{div} \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v} \bullet \operatorname{grad} f$, to find:

$$\operatorname{div}(f \operatorname{grad} g) = f \nabla^2 g + \operatorname{grad} f \bullet \operatorname{grad} g.$$

Interchanging f and g and subtracting from the above yields

$$f \nabla^2 g - g \nabla^2 f = \operatorname{div}(f \operatorname{grad} g - g \operatorname{grad} f).$$

Integration over τ yields Green's theorem.

Definitions and Theorems — III

- The set of the eigenvalues of an operator is the operator's *spectrum*. The spectrum is *discrete* (*continuous*) if the eigenvalues depend on discrete (continuous) parameters only; otherwise it is *mixed*.
- An eigenvalue is *simple* if there is one and only one eigenfunction corresponding to it; it is *degenerate of order s* if there are *s* linearly independent eigenfunctions corresponding to it. The order of degeneracy may be ∞ .
- For Hermitian operators, any two eigenfunctions belonging to different eigenvalues are orthogonal. Let $\mathcal{A}v = Av$ be the eigenvalue equation of \mathcal{A} . Assuming a discrete spectrum, let A_n, A_m be two different eigenvalues, and v_n, v_m two eigenfunctions corresponding to them:

$$\mathcal{A}v_n = A_n v_n, \quad \mathcal{A}v_m = A_m v_m, \quad \text{whence}$$

$$\langle v_m | \mathcal{A}v_n \rangle = A_n \langle v_m | v_n \rangle, \quad \langle \mathcal{A}v_m | v_n \rangle = A_m^* \langle v_m | v_n \rangle.$$

As \mathcal{A} is Hermitian, $(A_n - A_m^*) \langle v_m | v_n \rangle = 0$. But the eigenvalues of the Hermitian operators are all real, as is easily seen by letting $m = n$; as a consequence, $\langle v_m | v_n \rangle = 0$.



Definitions and Theorems — IV

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

- If an eigenvalue A_n has s linearly-independent eigenfunctions $v_n^{(1)}, \dots, v_n^{(s)}$, then a linear combination of them is also an eigenfunction belonging to A_n :

$$\begin{aligned} A \sum_{k=1}^s \alpha_k v_n^{(k)} &= \sum_{k=1}^s \alpha_k A v_n^{(k)} = \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^s \alpha_k A_n v_n^{(k)} = A_n \sum_{k=1}^s \alpha_k v_n^{(k)}. \end{aligned}$$

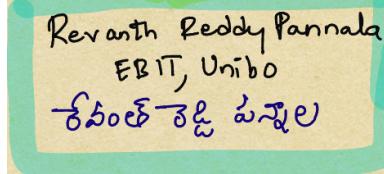
- The eigenfunctions $v_n^{(1)}, \dots, v_n^{(s)}$ are not necessarily orthogonal to each other; however, it is possible to build-up linearly-independent combinations of them that are mutually orthogonal (*Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization*):

$$u_n^{(1)} = v_n^{(1)}, \quad u_n^{(2)} = v_n^{(2)} + a_{21} u_n^{(1)}$$

where a_{21} is such that $\langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(2)} \rangle = 0$:

$$\langle u_n^{(1)} | v_n^{(2)} \rangle + a_{21} \langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(1)} \rangle = 0, \quad a_{21} = -\frac{\langle u_n^{(1)} | v_n^{(2)} \rangle}{\langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(1)} \rangle}.$$

(continues)



Definitions and Theorems — V

Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

- (cont.) The next function is found by letting

$$u_n^{(3)} = v_n^{(3)} + a_{31} u_n^{(1)} + a_{32} u_n^{(2)}$$

with $\langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(3)} \rangle = 0, \langle u_n^{(2)} | u_n^{(3)} \rangle = 0$:

$$\langle u_n^{(1)} | v_n^{(3)} \rangle + a_{31} \langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(1)} \rangle = 0, \quad a_{31} = -\frac{\langle u_n^{(1)} | v_n^{(3)} \rangle}{\langle u_n^{(1)} | u_n^{(1)} \rangle}.$$

$$\langle u_n^{(2)} | v_n^{(3)} \rangle + a_{32} \langle u_n^{(2)} | u_n^{(2)} \rangle = 0, \quad a_{32} = -\frac{\langle u_n^{(2)} | v_n^{(3)} \rangle}{\langle u_n^{(2)} | u_n^{(2)} \rangle}.$$

- In general:

$$u_n^{(k)} = v_n^{(k)} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} a_{ki} u_n^{(i)}, \quad a_{ki} = -\frac{\langle u_n^{(i)} | v_n^{(k)} \rangle}{\langle u_n^{(i)} | u_n^{(i)} \rangle}.$$

where $\langle u_n^{(i)} | u_n^{(i)} \rangle = \int_{\tau} |u_n^{(i)}|^2 d\tau \doteq ||u_n^{(i)}||^2$ is the square of the norm of $u_n^{(i)}$.



Definitions and Theorems — VI

Completeness (a)

fundamental property of set \mathcal{D}

Eigenfunction
operators is
(Completeness)

For a function $f(x)$ defined in $[-\alpha/2, +\alpha/2]$ and such that $\int_{-\alpha/2}^{+\alpha/2} |f(x)| dx < \infty$, Fourier's expansion holds:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(2\pi nx/\alpha) + b_n \sin(2\pi nx/\alpha)],$$

with $a_0/2 = \bar{f} \doteq (1/\alpha) \int_{-\alpha/2}^{+\alpha/2} f(x) dx$. The equality above indicates convergence in the mean; letting $g \doteq f - \bar{f}$:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\alpha/2}^{+\alpha/2} \left\{ g - \sum_{n=1}^N [a_n \cos(2\pi nx/\alpha) + b_n \sin(2\pi nx/\alpha)] \right\}^2 dx = 0.$$

Defining $\chi_n \doteq \sqrt{2/\alpha} \cos(2\pi nx/\alpha)$, $\sigma_n \doteq \sqrt{2/\alpha} \sin(2\pi nx/\alpha)$, the following hold:

orthogonality

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \sigma_m | \chi_n \rangle &= 0, & n, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \\ \langle \sigma_m | \sigma_n \rangle &= \langle \chi_m | \chi_n \rangle = 0, & n, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \quad m \neq n \\ \langle \sigma_n | \sigma_n \rangle &= \langle \chi_n | \chi_n \rangle = 1, & n = 1, 2, \dots, \end{aligned}$$

showing that $\sigma_n, \chi_n, n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ form an orthonormal system of functions. The system is also complete with respect to any g for which the expansion above is allowed.

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Definitions and Theorems — VII

Completeness (b)

The coefficients of Fourier's expansion are given by:

$$a_n = \frac{2}{\alpha} \int_{-\alpha/2}^{+\alpha/2} \cos(2\pi nx/\alpha) f(x) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$b_n = \frac{2}{\alpha} \int_{-\alpha/2}^{+\alpha/2} \sin(2\pi nx/\alpha) f(x) dx, \quad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

whence $f = \bar{f} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\langle \chi_n | f \rangle \chi_n + \langle \sigma_n | f \rangle \sigma_n)$ or, observing that $\langle \sigma_n | \text{const} \rangle = \langle \chi_n | \text{const} \rangle = 0$,

$$g = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\langle \chi_n | g \rangle \chi_n + \langle \sigma_n | g \rangle \sigma_n).$$

Letting

$$c_{2n-1} \doteq \langle \chi_n | g \rangle, \quad c_{2n} \doteq \langle \sigma_n | g \rangle, \quad w_{2n-1} \doteq \chi_n, \quad w_{2n} \doteq \sigma_n,$$

the expansion takes the more compact form

$$g = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} c_m w_m, \quad c_m = \langle w_m | g \rangle.$$

Definitions and Theorems — VIII

Examples of Completeness

*Normalized
↑ solution for Schrödinger eq for particle in a Box*

1. From the expansion into Fourier's series one sees that the system made of the $\sigma_n = \sqrt{2/\alpha} \sin(2\pi nx/\alpha)$ only is complete with respect to any function that is odd in $[-\alpha/2, +\alpha/2]$, hence it is complete with respect to any function in $[0, +\alpha/2]$.

On the other hand, the system of the σ_n (apart from the normalization coefficient) is the set of the eigenfunctions for the Hamiltonian of a particle in a box. In conclusion, the system of eigenfunctions of such Hamiltonian is complete within $[0, +\alpha/2]$.

2. The eigenfunctions of a free particle are, for any $k = \sqrt{2mE/\hbar^2}$ and apart from an arbitrary multiplicative constant, $w_{+k} = \exp(jkx)$ and $w_{-k} = \exp(-jkx)$. In an equivalent form they may be written as $w_k = \exp(jkx)$, where k can also be negative. Taking the multiplicative constant equal to $1/\sqrt{2\pi}$, the expansion of a function f such that $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |f|^2 dx < \infty$ reads

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_k w_k(x) dk, \quad c_k \doteq \langle w_k | f \rangle,$$

*'c' is projection of 'f'
on 'w_k'*

These expressions are equivalent to the Fourier-transform formulæ

$$c(k) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\exp(-jkx)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} f(x) dx, \quad f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{\exp(jkx)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} c(k) dk,$$

this showing that the eigenfunctions of a free particle form a complete system.

*'j' depends on Energy
and is also continuous.*

Normal function = sum of Normal coefficients

Parseval Theorem and Dirac Notation

Considering the expansion of a complex function f with respect to an orthonormal, discrete system of functions w_n ,

$$f = \sum_n c_n w_n, \quad c_n = \langle w_n | f \rangle, \quad \langle w_n | w_m \rangle = \delta_{nm},$$

the squared norm of f reads

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Squared norm of function} \quad \int_r |f|^2 d^3r &= \langle f | f \rangle = \left\langle \sum_n c_n w_n \middle| \sum_m c_m w_m \right\rangle = \\ &= \sum_n c_n^* \sum_m c_m \langle w_n | w_m \rangle = \sum_n c_n^* \sum_m c_m \delta_{nm} = \sum_n |c_n|^2. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{cases} \delta_{nm} = 1 & n = m \\ = 0 & n \neq m \end{cases}$$

For a continuous set of eigenfunctions, the above become

$$f = \int_\alpha c_\alpha w_\alpha d\alpha, \quad c_\alpha = \langle w_\alpha | f \rangle, \quad \langle w_\alpha | w_\beta \rangle = \delta(\alpha - \beta),$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_r |f|^2 d^3r &= \langle f | f \rangle = \left\langle \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_\alpha w_\alpha d\alpha \middle| \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_\beta w_\beta d\beta \right\rangle = \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_\alpha^* d\alpha \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} c_\beta \delta(\alpha - \beta) d\beta = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |c_\alpha|^2 d\alpha. \end{aligned}$$

The notation using brackets to indicate the scalar products is due to Dirac. The two terms $\langle g |$ and $| f \rangle$ of the scalar product $\langle g | f \rangle$ are called **bra vector** and **ket vector**, respectively.

row vector column vector

dirac delta
& it should be
used
only inside
on Integral

Capitolo 12

Equazione di Schrödinger dipendente dal tempo

Superposition Principle — I

The De Broglie postulate associates the monochromatic wave function $w(\mathbf{r}) \exp(-j\omega t)$ to the motion of a particle with definite and constant energy $E = \hbar\omega$. The analogy with the e.m. case suggests that a more general type of wave function—still related to the conservative case—can be expressed as a superposition of monochromatic wave functions. Considering the discrete case, it is then postulated that

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_n c_n w_n \exp(-jE_n t/\hbar), \quad \mathcal{H}w_n = E_n w_n,$$

with c_n complex coefficients. The latter are found thanks to the completeness of the eigenfunctions:

$$\psi_{t=0} = \psi(\mathbf{r}, 0) = \sum_n c_n w_n, \quad c_n = \langle w_n | \psi_{t=0} \rangle.$$

- ▷ The interference of monochromatic waves allows for the localization of $|\psi|^2$ (wave packet).
- ▷ The wave function $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is uniquely determined by the initial value $\psi_{t=0}$.
- ▷ As all possible energies E_n appear in the expression of ψ , the latter does not describe a motion with definite energy.

Superposition Principle — II

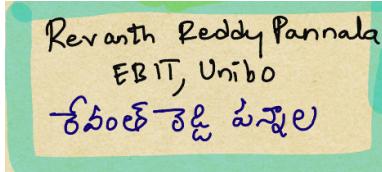
- The wave function $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_n c_n w_n \exp(-jE_n t/\hbar)$ provides the probability density $|\psi|^2$ used to identify the position of the particle. Here a normalizeable wave function is assumed:

$$\int_{\tau} |\psi|^2 d^3 r = \sum_n |c_n|^2 = 1. \quad \text{Parseval's Relation}$$

- If an energy measurement is carried out, and is completed at $t = t_E$ to find the eigenvalue E_m , then for $t > t_E$ it must be

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = w_m \exp[-jE_m(t - t_E)/\hbar].$$

- This is interpreted as follows: the measurement filters out the term corresponding to E_m ; as a consequence, the coefficients c_n whose values were previously set by the original ψ are changed by the measurement into $c_n = \delta_{nm}$. Again it is $\sum_n |c_n|^2 = |c_m|^2 = 1$. If another energy measurement is carried out, the probability of the outcome E_m is 1 due to the form of ψ for $t \geq t_E$. It is then sensible to interpret $|c_n|^2$ as the probability that a measurement of energy finds the result E_n .



Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation

- The Superposition Principle prescribes the form of the general wave function for the conservative case. Considering a discrete set of eigenfunctions, the time derivative of ψ reads

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \sum_n c_n w_n \frac{E_n}{j\hbar} \exp(-jE_n t/\hbar).$$

As $\mathcal{H}w_n = E_n w_n$, the above becomes

$$j\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \sum_n c_n \mathcal{H}w_n \exp(-jE_n t/\hbar) \Rightarrow j\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \mathcal{H}\psi.$$

- The latter is the time-dependent Schrödinger equation, that provides the time evolution of ψ starting from the initial value $\psi_{t=0}$. The boundary conditions are the same as those of the eigenfunctions w_n .

- It is postulated that the same equation also holds in the non conservative cases ($\mathcal{H}w_n = E_n w_n$ does not hold then). Due to the form of the Schrödinger equation, the state of the particle (i.e., its wave function) is uniquely determined by the initial value $\psi_{t=0}$.

Time
dependent
Schrödinger
eq

This eq is separable if the situation is conservative but even in Non conservative case it is still useful.

$$\mathcal{H}^* = \mathcal{H}$$

Norm Conservation

$$|\psi|^2 = \psi^* \psi$$

From the time-dependent Schrödinger equation it follows

$$\frac{\partial |\psi|^2}{\partial t} = \psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} + \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} = \psi^* \frac{\mathcal{H}\psi}{j\hbar} - \psi \frac{\mathcal{H}\psi^*}{j\hbar},$$

with $\psi^* \mathcal{H}\psi - \psi \mathcal{H}\psi^* = -\hbar^2/(2m)(\psi^* \nabla^2 \psi - \psi \nabla^2 \psi^*)$. Using the identity $\psi^* \nabla^2 \psi - \psi \nabla^2 \psi^* = \operatorname{div}(\psi^* \operatorname{grad} \psi - \psi \operatorname{grad} \psi^*)$:

$$\frac{\partial |\psi|^2}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div} \mathbf{J}_\psi = 0, \quad \mathbf{J}_\psi \doteq \frac{j\hbar}{2m} (\psi \operatorname{grad} \psi^* - \psi^* \operatorname{grad} \psi).$$

The above has the form of a continuity equation. As $|\psi|^2$ is the probability density, \mathbf{J}_ψ must be given the meaning of density of the probability flux. This result also provides a physical explanation of the continuity of the first derivatives of ψ . Integrating over a volume yields the norm conservation:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_V |\psi|^2 d\tau = - \int_{\partial V} \mathbf{J}_\psi \cdot \mathbf{n} d\sigma \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\infty} |\psi|^2 d\tau = 0.$$

Norm
conservation

The definition of $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = -j\hbar \operatorname{grad}$ also yields the alternative form

$$\mathbf{J}_\psi = \frac{1}{2m} [\psi (\hat{\mathbf{p}}\psi)^* + \psi^* \hat{\mathbf{p}}\psi] = \frac{1}{m} \Re(\psi^* \hat{\mathbf{p}}\psi).$$

(Momentum operator)
we studied earlier

Integrating over a volume is the probability of finding the particle in that volume.

$$H = T + V$$

$$T = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$$