

# QUANTUM MECHANICS NOTES

CARSON JAMES

## CONTENTS

1. Introduction	1
1.1. Schrödinger Equation	1
1.2. Operators	2
1.3. Continuity Equation	5
1.4. Position and Momentum Space	6
1.5. Stationary States	7
2. Fundamental Examples in One Dimension	8
2.1. The Infinite Square Well	8
2.2. The Harmonic Oscillator	9
3. Fundamental Examples in Three Dimensions	13
3.1. Spherical Harmonic Oscillator (Cartesian Coordinates)	13
3.2. Spherical Coordinates	14
3.3. The Infinite Spherical Box	15
3.4. The Hydrogen Atom	15
3.5. Spherical Harmonic Oscillator (Spherical Coordinates)	16
3.6. Orbital Angular Momentum	18

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Schrödinger Equation.

**Note 1.1.** *In the introduction, we keep position general with  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  given by  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , the usual math notation. The notation in cartesian coordinates changes in three dimensions to  $r = (x, y, z)$ , the usual physics notation.*

**Definition 1.2.** *A particle with potential energy  $V(x, t)$  is completely described by its **position wavefunction**  $\Psi(x, t)$ , which satisfies the **Schrödinger equation**:*

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi + V \Psi$$

**Interpretation 1.3.** *We interpret  $|\Psi(x, t)|^2$  to be the **probability density** for the position,  $x$ , of the particle at time  $t$ . Therefore, we require that for each  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,*

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x, t)^* \Psi(x, t) dx = 1$$

## 1.2. Operators.

**Definition 1.4.** We define the  $j^{\text{th}}$  **position** and **momentum coordinate operators**  $X_j, P_j$ , (in position space) by

$$X_j \Psi(x, t) = x_j \Psi(x, t)$$

and

$$P_j \Psi(x, t) = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi(x, t)$$

We define the **position** and **momentum** operators,  $X$  and  $P$ , by

$$X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$$

and

$$P = (P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n)$$

We denote  $P \cdot P$  by  $P^2$ . Note that

$$P^2 = -\hbar^2 \Delta$$

If the particle has potential energy  $V(x, t)$ , we define the **Hamiltonian** operator,  $H$ , by

$$H = \frac{P^2}{2m} + V$$

Thus the Schrödinger equation reads

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

**Note 1.5.** If the potential energy doesn't depend on time, we may write

$$H = \frac{P^2}{2m} + V(X)$$

meaning Hamiltonian only depends on the position and momentum operators,  $X$  and  $P$ . For the rest of these notes, we assume that the potential energy  $V$  does not depend on time.

**Definition 1.6.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be operators. Then  $B$  is said to be the **adjoint** of  $A$  if for each  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$ ,

$$\langle \Psi_1 | A \Psi_2 \rangle = \langle B \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle$$

i.e.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi_1^* (A \Psi_2) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (B \Psi_1)^* \Psi_2 dx$$

If  $B$  is the adjoint of  $A$ , we write

$$B = A^\dagger$$

**Exercise 1.7.** Let  $A$  be an operator, then

- (1) for each  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$ ,  $\langle A \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle = \langle \Psi_1 | A^\dagger \Psi_2 \rangle$
- (2)  $(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$

*Proof.* (1) For wavefunctions  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle &= \langle \Psi_2 | A \Psi_1 \rangle^* \\ &= \langle A^\dagger \Psi_2 | \Psi_1 \rangle^* \quad (\text{by definition}) \\ &= \langle \Psi_1 | A^\dagger \Psi_2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

(2) For each  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\langle A\Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle &= \langle \Psi_1|A^\dagger\Psi_2\rangle \\ &= \langle (A^\dagger)^\dagger\Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle\end{aligned}$$

This implies that for each  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$ ,

$$\langle [A - (A^\dagger)^\dagger]\Psi_1, \Psi_2\rangle = 0$$

Therefore for each  $\Psi_1$ ,

$$[A - (A^\dagger)^\dagger]\Psi_1 = 0$$

Hence  $\langle A - (A^\dagger)^\dagger = 0$  and  $A = (A^\dagger)^\dagger$ .

□

**Definition 1.8.** *An linear operator  $Q$  is **self-adjoint** if*

$$Q = Q^\dagger$$

**Interpretation 1.9.** *For each measurable, observable quantity  $\hat{Q}$ , there is a self-adjoint operator  $Q$  whose eigenvalues are the possible measurment values and whose eigenfunctions are the possible states of the system at measurment.*

**Exercise 1.10.** *The operators  $X_j, P_j$  and  $H$  are self adjoint.*

*Hint: for  $H$ , use Green's second identity.*

*Proof.* Since  $x_j$  is real, clearly

$$\langle \Psi_1|X_j\Psi_2\rangle = \langle X_j\Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle$$

Similarly, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \Psi_1|P_j\Psi_2\rangle &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi_1^* \left( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi_2 \right) dx \\ &= -i\hbar \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi_1^* \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi_2 \right) dx \\ &= i\hbar \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi_1^* \right) \Psi_2 dx \quad (\text{integration by parts}) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi_1 \right)^* \Psi_2 dx \\ &= \langle P\Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle\end{aligned}$$

Finally

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \Psi_1|H\Psi_2\rangle - \langle H\Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi_1^* \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi_2 + V\Psi_2 \right) dx - \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi_1 + V\Psi_1 \right)^* \Psi_2 dx \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (\Delta \Psi_1^*) \Psi_2 - \Psi_1^* (\Delta \Psi_2) dx \\ &= 0 \quad (\text{Green's second identity})\end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 1.11.** *Let  $Q$  be a self-adjoint operator. Then*

*(1) the eigenvalues of  $Q$  are real.*

(2) the eigenfunctions of  $Q$  corresponding to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

*Proof.*

(1) Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $Q$  with corresponding eigenfunction  $\Psi$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda \langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle &= \langle \Psi | Q \Psi \rangle \\ &= \langle Q \Psi | \Psi \rangle \\ &= \lambda^* \langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\lambda = \lambda^*$  and is real

(2) Let  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  be eigenvalues of  $Q$  with corresponding eigenfunctions  $\Psi_1$  and  $\Psi_2$ . Suppose that  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_2 \langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle &= \langle \Psi_1 | Q \Psi_2 \rangle \\ &= \langle Q \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\ &= \lambda_1 \langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle\end{aligned}$$

So  $(\lambda_2 - \lambda_1) \langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle = 0$ . Which implies that  $\langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle = 0$

□

**Definition 1.12.** Let  $A$  and  $B$  be operators. The **commutator** of  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $[A, B]$ , is defined by

$$[A, B] = AB - BA$$

**Exercise 1.13.** We have  $[X_i, P_j] = \delta_{i,j} i\hbar$ .

*Proof.* For a position wave function  $\Psi$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}[X_j, P_j] \Psi(x, t) &= [x_j, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j}] \Psi(x, t) \\ &= (-i\hbar) \left[ x_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi(x, t) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} x_j \Psi(x, t) \right] \\ &= (-i\hbar) \left[ x_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi(x, t) - \Psi(x, t) - x_j \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi(x, t) \right] \\ &= i\hbar \Psi(x, t)\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $[X_j, P_j] = i\hbar$

For  $i \neq j$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}X_i P_j \Psi(x, t) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} x_i \Psi(x, t) \\ &= -i\hbar x_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi(x, t) \\ &= P_j X_i \Psi(x, t)\end{aligned}$$

So

$$[X_i, P_j] = 0$$

□

**Exercise 1.14.** Let  $A, B$  and  $C$  be operators, then  $[AB, C] = A[B, C] + [A, C]B$

*Proof.* We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 [AB, C] &= ABC - CAB \\
 &= ABC - ACB + ACB - CAB \\
 &= A(BC - CB) + (AC - CA)B \\
 &= A[B, C] + [A, C]B
 \end{aligned}$$

□

### 1.3. Continuity Equation.

**Exercise 1.15.** If  $V$  is real and  $\Psi$  satisfies the Schrödinger equation, then

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi^* = -H\Psi^*$$

*Proof.* We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi^* &= \left( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi \right)^* \\
 &= \left( - \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi + V\Psi \right] \right)^* \\
 &= - \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi^* + V\Psi^* \right] \\
 &= -H\Psi^*
 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 1.16.** We have that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\Psi^*\Psi) + \frac{\hbar}{2mi} \nabla \cdot \left[ \Psi^*(\nabla \Psi) - (\nabla \Psi^*)\Psi \right] = 0$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\Psi^*\Psi) &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi^* \right) \Psi + \Psi^* \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi \right) \\
 &= \left( \frac{\hbar}{2mi} (\Delta \Psi^*) \Psi - \frac{1}{i\hbar} V \Psi^* \Psi \right) + \left( -\frac{\hbar}{2mi} \Psi^* (\Delta \Psi) + \frac{1}{i\hbar} V \Psi^* \Psi \right) \\
 &= \frac{\hbar}{2mi} \left[ (\Delta \Psi^*) \Psi - \Psi^* (\Delta \Psi) \right] \\
 &= -\frac{\hbar}{2mi} \left[ \Psi^* (\Delta \Psi) - (\Delta \Psi^*) \Psi \right] \\
 &= -\frac{\hbar}{2mi} \nabla \cdot \left[ \Psi^* (\nabla \Psi) - (\nabla \Psi^*) \Psi \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\Psi^*\Psi) + \frac{\hbar}{2mi} \nabla \cdot \left[ \Psi^*(\nabla \Psi) - (\nabla \Psi^*)\Psi \right] = 0$$

□

**Definition 1.17.** We define the **probability current density**,  $j$ , of the particle to be

$$j = \frac{\hbar}{2mi} \left[ \Psi^* (\nabla \Psi) - (\nabla \Psi^*) \Psi \right]$$

#### 1.4. Position and Momentum Space.

**Definition 1.18.** We define the **momentum wavefunction**,  $\Phi$ , of the particle to be the Fourier transform of the position wavefunction:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi(p, t) &= F[\Psi](p, t) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{n/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x, t) e^{-i\frac{p \cdot x}{\hbar}} dx \end{aligned}$$

**Note 1.19.** We recall the following facts about Fourier transforms:

(1)

$$\Phi(p, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{n/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x, t) e^{-i\frac{p \cdot x}{\hbar}} dx$$

and

$$\Psi(x, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{n/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Phi(p, t) e^{i\frac{p \cdot x}{\hbar}} dp$$

(2)

$$F \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \Psi \right] = \frac{ip_j}{\hbar} F[\Psi]$$

and

$$F^{-1} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial p_j} \Phi \right] = -\frac{ix_j}{\hbar} F[\Psi]$$

(3)

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Psi_1^* \Psi_2 dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} F[\Psi_1]^* F[\Psi_2] dp$$

**Note 1.20.** Let  $Q(X, P)$  be a self-adjoint operator. Then the properties of the Fourier transform imply that:

$$Q(X, P) = \begin{cases} Q(x, -i\hbar\nabla) & (\text{position space}) \\ Q(i\hbar\nabla, p) & (\text{momentum space}) \end{cases}$$

**Exercise 1.21.** If  $\Psi$  satisfies the Schrödinger equation, then  $\Phi$  satisfies

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Phi = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Phi + V(i\hbar\nabla) \Phi$$

*Proof.* Starting with the Schrödinger equation, we have

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi &= \left[ \frac{P^2}{2m} + V(X) \right] \Psi \\ &= \left[ \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta + V(x) \right] \Psi \quad (\text{position space}) \end{aligned}$$

Taking Fourier transforms of both sides, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Phi &= \left[ \frac{P^2}{2m} + V(X) \right] \Phi \\ &= \left[ \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(i\hbar \nabla) \right] \Phi \quad (\text{position space}) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Interpretation 1.22.** We interpret  $|\Phi(p, t)|^2$  to be the probability density for the momentum,  $p$ , of the particle at time  $t$ .

**Note 1.23.** For a self-adjoint operator  $Q(X, P)$ , the expected value of  $Q$ , is given by

$$\langle Q \rangle = \begin{cases} \langle \Psi(x, t) | Q(x, -i\hbar \nabla) \Psi(x, t) \rangle & (\text{position space}) \\ \langle \Phi(p, t) | Q(i\hbar \nabla, p) \Phi(p, t) \rangle & (\text{momentum space}) \end{cases}$$

### 1.5. Stationary States.

**Definition 1.24.** When the potential energy  $V$  doesn't depend on time, we look for solutions to the Schrödinger equation of the form

$$\Psi(x, t) = \psi(x) \varphi(t)$$

With a closer look, we find that

- (1)  $H\psi = E\psi$
- (2)  $\varphi(t) = e^{-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t}$

Statement (1) is referred to as the **time-independent Schrödinger equation**. Eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian operator are called **stationary states**. If the possible eigenvalues for the Hamiltonian operator are discrete  $(E_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with stationary states  $(\psi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , then the general solution to the Schrödinger equation is

$$\Psi(x, t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} c_n \psi_n(x) e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t}$$

where

$$c_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \psi_n^*(x) \Psi(x, 0) dx$$

**Definition 1.25.** An energy eigenvalue  $E_n$  of  $H$  is said to have a **degeneracy of degree  $k$**  if it corresponds to  $k$  orthonormal stationary states.

**Note 1.26.** If the energy eigenvalues  $(E_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  have degeneracies of degrees  $(k_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with corresponding orthonormal stationary states  $(\psi_{n,j})_{j=1}^{k_n}$  and

$$\Psi(x, t) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{k_n} c_{n,j} \psi_{n,j}(x) e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t}$$

Then the probability of measuring the energy  $E_n$  is

$$\mathbb{P}(E_n) = \sum_{j=1}^{k_n} |c_{n,j}|^2$$

**Definition 1.27.** *If the spectrum of the Hamiltonian is discrete, the stationary state with the least energy is called the **ground state**. The stationary states that are not the ground state are called **excited states**.*

## 2. FUNDAMENTAL EXAMPLES IN ONE DIMENSION

### 2.1. The Infinite Square Well.

**Definition 2.1.** *The infinite square well is defined by the potential*

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} \infty & x \in I_1 = (-\infty, a] \\ 0 & x \in I_2 = (0, a) \\ \infty & x \in I_3 = [a, \infty) \end{cases}$$

**Exercise 2.2.** *By starting with a finite potential well and letting the height of the well go to infinity, show that the stationary states and their energies are given by*

$$\psi_n(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a}x\right) & x \in (0, a) \\ 0 & x \notin (0, a) \end{cases}$$

and

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

*Proof.* Define

$$V_\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha & x \in I_1 \\ 0 & x \in I_2 \\ \alpha & x \in I_3 \end{cases}$$

For the potential energy  $V_\alpha$ , in sections  $I_1, I_3$  the Schrödinger equation may be written as

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2}(\alpha - E)\psi$$

Assuming  $\alpha > E$ , we may write  $l = \frac{\sqrt{2m(\alpha-E)}}{\hbar}$  and substitute to get

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = l^2\psi$$

Thus in region  $I_1$ ,  $\psi_1(x) = Ae^{lx} + Be^{-lx}$  and in region  $I_3$ ,  $\psi_3(x) = Fe^{lx} + Ge^{-lx}$ . Since  $e^{-lx}$  blows up as  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ ,  $B = 0$ . Since  $e^{lx}$  blows up as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $F = 0$ .

In section  $I_2$ , the Schrödinger equation may be written as

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}\psi$$

We write  $k = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$  and substitute to get

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = -k^2\psi$$

Hence in region  $I_2$ ,  $\psi_2(x) = C \sin(kx) + D \cos(kx)$ .



So far we have

$$\psi_\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} Ae^{lx} & x \in I_1 \\ C \sin(kx) + D \cos(kx) & x \in I_2 \\ Ge^{-lx} & x \in I_3 \end{cases}$$

To find possible wavefunctions  $\psi$  for the infinite potential, we let  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ . As  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ , we have that  $l \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence  $\psi_1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $\psi_3 \rightarrow 0$ . So for the infinite potential,

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} C \sin(kx) + D \cos(kx) & x \in (0, a) \\ 0 & x \notin (0, a) \end{cases}$$

By continuity at the points  $x = 0$  and  $x = a$ , we see that  $0 = C \sin(0) + D \cos(0)$  which implies that  $D = 0$  and  $0 = C \sin(ka)$  which yields various solutions

$$k_n = \frac{n\pi}{a} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

To avoid non-normalizable solutions or linearly dependent solutions, we restrict  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Our energies are then

$$E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 k_n^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2ma^2} \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

and (after normalizing) our stationary states are

$$\psi_n(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a}x\right) & x \in (0, a) \\ 0 & x \notin (0, a) \end{cases}$$

□

## 2.2. The Harmonic Oscillator.

**Definition 2.3.** The **harmonic oscillator** in one dimension is defined by the potential energy:

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

We define the **lowering operator**,  $a_-$ , by

$$a_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \left( m\omega X + iP \right)$$

and we define the **raising operator**,  $a_+$ , by

$$a_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \left( m\omega X - iP \right)$$

**Exercise 2.4.** The adjoint of the lowering operator is the raising operator:

$$(a_-)^\dagger = a_+$$

*Proof.* Let  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$  be wavefunctions. Since  $X, P$  are self-adjoint, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \Psi_1 | a_- \Psi_2 \rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \langle \Psi_1 | (m\omega X + iP) \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \left[ m\omega \langle \Psi_1 | X \Psi_2 \rangle + i \langle \Psi_1 | P \Psi_2 \rangle \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \left[ \langle m\omega X \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle + \langle -iP \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} \langle (m\omega X - iP) \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle a_+ \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 2.5.** *We have that*

- (1)  $a_- a_+ = \frac{1}{\hbar\omega} H + \frac{1}{2}$
- (2)  $a_+ a_- = \frac{1}{\hbar\omega} H - \frac{1}{2}$
- (3)  $[a_-, a_+] = 1$

*Proof.* (1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_- a_+ &= \frac{1}{2\hbar m\omega} (m\omega X + iP)(m\omega X - iP) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\hbar m\omega} \left[ (m^2\omega^2 X^2 + P^2) - m\omega i(XP - PX) \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\hbar\omega} \left( \frac{1}{2m} P^2 + \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 X^2 \right) - \frac{i}{2\hbar} [X, P] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\hbar\omega} H + \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar

(3) Trivial

□

**Exercise 2.6.** *If  $H\psi = E\psi$ , then*

- (1)  $Ha_- \psi = (E - \hbar\omega)a_- \psi$
- (2)  $Ha_+ \psi = (E + \hbar\omega)a_+ \psi$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
Ha_-\psi &= \hbar\omega\left(a_-a_+ - \frac{1}{2}\right)a\psi \\
&= \hbar\omega\left(a_-a_+a_- - \frac{1}{2}a_-\right)\psi \\
&= \hbar\omega a_-\left(a_+a_- - \frac{1}{2}\right)\psi \\
&= \hbar\omega a_-\left(a_+a_- + \frac{1}{2} - 1\right)\psi \\
&= \hbar\omega a_-\left(\frac{1}{\hbar\omega}H - 1\right)\psi \\
&= a_-H\psi - \hbar\omega a_-\psi \\
&= (E - \hbar\omega)a_-\psi
\end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar

□

**Interpretation 2.7.** The lowering operator “lowers” a stationary state  $\psi$  with energy  $E$  to a stationary state  $a_-\psi$  with energy  $E - \hbar\omega$  and the raising operator “raises” a stationary state  $\psi$  with energy  $E$  to a stationary state  $a_+\psi$  with energy  $E + \hbar\omega$ .

**Definition 2.8.** Since the zero function is a solution to the time-independent Schrödinger equation, we define the ground state,  $\psi_0$  of the harmonic oscillator to be the stationary state that satisfies  $a_-\psi_0 = 0$ . The excited states  $\psi_n$ , for  $n \geq 1$ , are obtained by applying the raising operator  $n$  times and then normalizing.

**Exercise 2.9.** We have that

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

$$(2) \quad E_0 = \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$$

$$(3) \quad \psi_n = c_n(a_+)^n\psi_0 \quad (\text{for some constant } c_n)$$

$$(4) \quad E_n = \hbar\omega\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

*Proof.*

(1) The simple differential equation  $a_-\psi_0 = 0$  has the solution

$$\psi_0 = Ae^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}x^2}$$

Thus

$$|\psi_0|^2 = |A|^2 e^{-\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}x^2}$$

If we normalize this function, we obtain

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

(2) It is tedious but straightforward to show that

$$H\psi_0 = \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega\psi_0$$

(3) Clear by definition.

(4) Clear by previous exercise.

□

**Exercise 2.10.**

(1)  $\psi_{n+1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}a_+\psi_n$

(2)  $\psi_{n-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}a_-\psi_n$

*Hint: use the adjoint-ness of  $a_-$  and  $a_+$*

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned} a_-a_+\psi_n &= \left( \frac{1}{\hbar\omega}H + \frac{1}{2} \right) \psi_n \\ &= \frac{1}{\hbar\omega}E_n\psi_n + \frac{1}{2}\psi_n \\ &= (n+1)\psi_n \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\psi_{n+1} = ca_+\psi_n$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \langle \psi_{n+1} | \psi_{n+1} \rangle \\ &= \langle ca_+\psi_n | ca_+\psi_n \rangle \\ &= |c|^2 \langle a_+\psi_n | a_+\psi_n \rangle \\ &= |c|^2 \langle a_-a_+\psi_n | \psi_n \rangle \\ &= |c|^2 \langle (n+1)\psi_n | \psi_n \rangle \\ &= |c|^2 (n+1) \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle \\ &= |c|^2 (n+1) \end{aligned}$$

So  $c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$

(2) Similar to (1).

□

**Exercise 2.11.** The  $n^{\text{th}}$  stationary state is given by  $\psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}}(a_+)^n\psi_0$

*Proof.* Clear by induction.

□

**Exercise 2.12.** Show that

(1)  $\psi_1(x) = \left( \frac{4m^3\omega^3}{\hbar^3\pi} \right) x e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}x^2}$

(2)  $E_1 = \frac{3}{2}\hbar\omega$

*Proof.* Straightforward. □

**Exercise 2.13.** *If particle one is in state  $\psi_0$  at time  $t = 0$ , then the momentum wave function is*

$$\Phi(p, t) = \left( \frac{1}{m\omega\pi\hbar} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} e^{-\frac{1}{2m\omega\hbar}p^2} e^{-i\frac{\omega}{2}t}$$

*Proof.* By assumption

$$\Psi(x, t) = \psi_0(x) e^{-i\frac{\omega}{2}t}$$

Thus

$$\Phi(p, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \Psi(x, t) e^{-i\frac{px}{\hbar}} dx$$

The rest is straightforward. □

### 3. FUNDAMENTAL EXAMPLES IN THREE DIMENSIONS

#### 3.1. Spherical Harmonic Oscillator (Cartesian Coordinates).

**Definition 3.1.** *The spherical harmonic oscillator (in cartesian coordinates) is defined by the potential energy*

$$V(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$$

**Exercise 3.2.** *In cartesian coordinates, the stationary states of the harmonic oscillator are given by*

$$\psi_{n_x, n_y, n_z}(x, y, z) = \psi_{n_x}(x) \psi_{n_y}(y) \psi_{n_z}(z)$$

*with energies*

$$E_{n_x, n_y, n_z} = \hbar\omega \left( n_x + n_y + n_z + \frac{3}{2} \right)$$

*where  $\psi_{n_x}, \psi_{n_y}, \psi_{n_z}$  are stationary states for the one dimensional harmonic oscillator.*

*Proof.* We look for solutions of the form  $\psi(x, y, z) = \psi_x(x) \psi_y(y) \psi_z(z)$ . Plugging this into the time-independent Schrödinger equation, we get

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[ \frac{\partial^2 \psi_x}{\partial x^2} \psi_y \psi_z + \psi_x \frac{\partial^2 \psi_y}{\partial y^2} \psi_z + \psi_x \psi_y \frac{\partial^2 \psi_z}{\partial z^2} \right] + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \psi = E \psi$$

Dividing both sides by  $\psi$  and rearranging, we obtain

$$\left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_x}{\partial x^2} \frac{1}{\psi_x} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \right) + \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_y}{\partial y^2} \frac{1}{\psi_y} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 y^2 \right) + \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_z}{\partial z^2} \frac{1}{\psi_z} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 z^2 \right) = E$$

Thus each part is constant and we may write

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \psi_x &= E_x \psi_x \\ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_y}{\partial y^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 y^2 \psi_y &= E_y \psi_y \\ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_z}{\partial z^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 z^2 \psi_z &= E_z \psi_z \end{aligned}$$

So we have three one-dimensional harmonic oscillators and we have

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_x = \psi_{n_x} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_x!}}(a_+)^{n_x}\psi_0 \text{ and } E_x = E_{n_x} = \hbar\omega\left(n_x + \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ \psi_y = \psi_{n_y} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_y!}}(a_+)^{n_y}\psi_0 \text{ and } E_y = E_{n_y} = \hbar\omega\left(n_y + \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ \psi_z = \psi_{n_z} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_z!}}(a_+)^{n_z}\psi_0 \text{ and } E_z = E_{n_z} = \hbar\omega\left(n_z + \frac{1}{2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\psi = \psi_{n_x, n_y, n_z}(x, y, z) = \psi_{n_x}(x)\psi_{n_y}(y)\psi_{n_z}(z)$$

with energy

$$E = E_{n_x, n_y, n_z} = \hbar\omega\left(n_x + n_y + n_z + \frac{3}{2}\right)$$

□

**Exercise 3.3.** Show that the degree of degeneracy of  $E_n$  is

$$\deg(E_n) = \binom{n+2}{2}$$

*Proof.* Stars and bars

□

**Interpretation 3.4.** The energies of the three-dimensional harmonic oscillator are given by  $E_n = \hbar\omega\left(n + \frac{3}{2}\right)$  which correspond to  $\binom{n+2}{2}$  stationary states.

### 3.2. Spherical Coordinates.

**Definition 3.5.** We now set  $n = 3$ , and work with spherical coordinates  $(r, \theta, \phi)$  where  $r$  is the distance in from the origin,  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  is the angle with initial side on the positive  $z$ -axis, and  $0 \leq \phi < 2\pi$  is the angle in the  $x$ - $y$  plane with initial side on the positive  $x$ -axis going towards the positive  $y$ -axis.

**Proposition 3.6.** In spherical coordinates, the time independent Schrödinger equation becomes

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left[\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{1}{r^2\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\right) + \frac{1}{r^2\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2}\right]\psi + V\psi = E\psi$$

**Definition 3.7.** If the potential energy  $V$  only depends on  $r$ , then we can solve for stationary solutions of the form  $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$ . It results that there is some constant  $l$  such that

$$(1) \quad \frac{1}{R}\frac{d}{dr}r^2\frac{dR}{dr} - \frac{2m}{\hbar^2}r^2(V - E) = l(l+1)$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{1}{Y}\left[\frac{1}{\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial Y}{\partial\theta}\right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial\phi^2}\right] = -l(l+1)$$

The number  $l$  is called the **azimuthal quantum number**, equation (1) is called the **radial equation** and equation (2) is called the **angular equation**.

**Definition 3.8.** We can look for solutions to the angular equation of the form  $Y(\theta, \phi) = \Theta(\theta)\Phi(\phi)$ . It results that there is some constant  $m$  such that

$$(1) \quad \frac{1}{\Theta} \sin \theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} \right) + l(l+1) \sin^2 \theta = m^2$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{1}{\Phi} \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\phi^2} = -m^2$$

Equation (2) has the solution

$$\Phi(\phi) = e^{im\phi}$$

Since  $(r, \theta, \phi)$  is the same point in space as  $(r, \theta, \phi + 2\pi)$ , we require that  $\Phi(\phi) = \Phi(\phi + 2\pi)$ . This implies that  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ . The integer  $m$  is called the **magnetic quantum number**.

If  $l \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and  $m \leq l$ , then equation (1) has the solution

$$\Theta(\theta) = A P_l^m(\cos \theta)$$

where  $P_l^m$  is the **associated Legendre** function given by

$$P_l^m(x) = (1-x^2)^{\frac{|m|}{2}} \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^{|m|} P_l(x)$$

and  $P_l(x)$  is the  $l^{\text{th}}$  **Legendre polynomial** defined by

$$P_l(x) = \frac{1}{2^l l!} \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l (x^2 - 1)^l$$

The angular function  $Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = A_l^m P_l^m(\cos \theta) e^{im\phi}$  may be normalized by setting

$$A_l^m = \epsilon \sqrt{\frac{(2l+1)}{4\pi} \frac{(l-|m|)!}{(l+|m|)!}}$$

where

$$\epsilon = \begin{cases} (-1)^m & m \geq 0 \\ 1 & m < 0 \end{cases}$$

The normalized angular functions are called **spherical harmonics**.

**Exercise 3.9.** Compute some spherical harmonics.

**Definition 3.10.** If we make the substitution  $u(r) = rR(r)$ , we may rewrite the radial equation as

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \left[ V + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] u = Eu$$

which looks like the one dimensional Schrödinger equation. The function

$$V + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2}$$

is called the **effective potential**.

### 3.3. The Infinite Spherical Box.

### 3.4. The Hydrogen Atom.

### 3.5. Spherical Harmonic Oscillator (Spherical Coordinates).

**Definition 3.11.** *The spherical harmonic oscillator (in spherical coordinates) is defined by the potential energy*

$$V(r) = r^2$$

**Exercise 3.12.** *Making the substitution  $\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$ , we can rewrite the radial equation for the harmonic oscillator as*

$$\frac{1}{\kappa^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} = \left[ \frac{\hbar^2 \omega^2 (\kappa r)^2}{2^2 E^2} + \frac{l(l+1)}{(\kappa r)^2} - 1 \right] u$$

*Proof.* Straightforward □

**Exercise 3.13.** *Making the substitution  $\rho = \kappa r$  and  $\rho_0 = \frac{\hbar \omega}{2E}$ , we can rewrite the radial equation as*

$$\frac{1}{\kappa^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} = \left[ \rho_0^2 \rho^2 + \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} - 1 \right] u$$

*Proof.* Straightforward. □

**Exercise 3.14.** *We have*

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} = \frac{1}{\kappa^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2}$$

*and thus we may rewrite the radial equation as*

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} = \left[ \rho_0^2 \rho^2 + \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} - 1 \right] u$$

*Proof.* Straightforward by chain-rule. □

**Exercise 3.15.** *As  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $u \approx e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2}$*

*Proof.* As  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} \approx \rho_0^2 \rho^2 u$$

Trying the function  $u(\rho) = e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2}$ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} &= (\rho_0^2 \rho^2 - \rho_0) e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2} \\ &\approx \rho_0^2 \rho^2 e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2} \quad (\text{as } \rho \rightarrow \infty) \\ &= \rho_0^2 \rho^2 u \end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 3.16.** *As  $\rho \rightarrow 0$ ,  $u \approx \rho^{l+1}$*

*Proof.* As  $\rho \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} \approx \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} u$$



Trying the function  $u(\rho) = \rho^{l+1}$ , we see that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^2u}{d\rho^2} &= l(l+1)\rho^{l-1} \\ &= \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2}u\end{aligned}$$

□

**Note 3.17.** We can now, “glue” these functions together with a third unknown function  $v(\rho)$  to obtain the prototype solution

$$u(\rho) = \rho^{l+1}e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2}v(\rho)$$

**Exercise 3.18.** Suppose that for some nice function  $v(\rho)$ ,

$$u(\rho) = \rho^{l+1}e^{-\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2}v(\rho)$$

Then computing  $\frac{d^2u}{d\rho^2}$  and plugging into the radial equation and simplifying, we obtain the relation

$$\rho \frac{d^2v}{d\rho^2} + 2(l+1 - \rho_0\rho^2) \frac{dv}{d\rho} + \rho(1 - \rho_0(2l+3))v = 0$$

*Proof.* Very tedious but straightforward. □

**Exercise 3.19.** If  $v(\rho)$  can be represented by a power series

$$v(\rho) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c_j \rho^j$$

then plugging in  $v(\rho)$  into the previous relation combining like terms and solving for the coefficients yields the relations

$$c_1 = 0$$

and

$$c_{j+2} = \left[ \frac{\rho_0(2j+2l+3) - 1}{(j+2)(j+2l+3)} \right] c_j \quad j \geq 0$$

This implies that for each odd  $j$ ,  $c_j = 0$ .

*Proof.* Tedious but straightforward. □

**Exercise 3.20.** If for each  $j \geq 0$ ,  $c_{2j} \neq 0$ , then  $v$  behaves asymptotically like  $e^{\rho_0\rho^2}$ . Thus  $u(\rho)$  behaves asymptotically like  $\rho^{l+1}e^{\frac{\rho_0}{2}\rho^2}$ . This implies that  $R(r)$  is not normalizable. Therefore there exists  $j_{\max} \geq 0$  such that  $c_{2j_{\max}+2} = 0$  and  $v(\rho)$  is a polynomial of degree  $2j_{\max}$  and consists of only even powers of  $\rho$ .

*Proof.* As  $j \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $c_{j+2} \approx \frac{2\rho_0}{j}c_j$ . Hence  $v(\rho)$  behaves asymptotically like

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^j \rho_0^j}{\prod_{k=1}^j 2k} \rho^{2j} &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\sqrt{\rho_0}\rho)^{2j}}{j!} \\ &= e^{(\sqrt{\rho_0}\rho)^2} \\ &= e^{\rho_0\rho^2}\end{aligned}$$

□

**Exercise 3.21.** *The energies allowed for this system are*

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left( n + \frac{3}{2} \right) \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

.

*Proof.* Using the recursion relation found earlier, we have that

$$0 = \left[ \frac{\rho_0(2j_{max} + 2l + 3) - 1}{(j_{max} + 2)(j_{max} + 2l + 3)} \right] c_{j_{max}}$$

This implies that

$$0 = \rho_0(2j_{max} + 2l + 3) - 1$$

and so

$$\frac{1}{\rho_0} = 2j_{max} + 2l + 3$$

Using the fact that  $\rho_0 = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2E}$ , we solve for  $E$  to obtain

$$E = \hbar\omega \left( j_{max} + l + \frac{3}{2} \right)$$

Since  $j_{max}$  and  $l$  may be any non-negative integers, we introduce a non-negative integer  $n = j_{max} + l$  and index the allowed energies as

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left( n + \frac{3}{2} \right) \quad n \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

□

### 3.6. Orbital Angular Momentum.

**Definition 3.22.** *Extrapolating from the classical formula for angular momentum, we define the **orbital angular momentum operator**  $L$ , of a particle by*

$$L = R \times P$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} L_x &= YP_z - ZP_y \\ L_y &= ZP_x - XP_z \\ L_z &= XP_y - YP_x \end{aligned}$$

and

$$L^2 = L_x^2 + L_y^2 + L_z^2$$

**Exercise 3.23.** *We have that*

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad [L_x, L_y] &= i\hbar L_z \\ (2) \quad [L_y, L_z] &= i\hbar L_x \\ (3) \quad [L_z, L_x] &= i\hbar L_y \end{aligned}$$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 [L_x, L_y] &= (YP_z - ZP_y)(ZP_x - XP_z) - (ZP_x - XP_z)(YP_z - ZP_y) \\
 &= YP_x(P_zZ - ZP_z) + XP_y(ZP_z - P_zZ) \\
 &= (XP_y - YP_x)[Z.P_z] \\
 &= i\hbar L_z
 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar

(3) Similar

□

**Exercise 3.24.**

$$(1) [L^2, L_x] = 0$$

$$(2) [L^2, L_y] = 0$$

$$(3) [L^2, L_z] = 0$$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 [L^2, L_x] &= [L_x^2, L_x] + [L_y^2, L_x] + [L_z^2, L_x] \\
 &= (L_y[L_y, L_x] + [L_y, L_x]L_y) + (L_z[L_z, L_x] + [L_z, L_x]L_z) \\
 &= -i\hbar(L_yL_z + L_zL_y) + i\hbar(L_zL_y + L_yL_z) \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar.

(3) Similar.

□

**Exercise 3.25.** *The operators  $L_x, L_y$  and  $L_z$  are self-adjoint.*

*Proof.* Let  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$  be wave functions. Since  $X_i$  and  $P_j$  are self-adjoint and commute for  $i \neq j$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \Psi_1 | L_x \Psi_2 \rangle &= \langle \Psi_1 | YP_z \Psi_2 \rangle - \langle \Psi_1 | ZP_y \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle P_z Y \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle - \langle P_y Z \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle YP_z \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle - \langle ZP_y \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle L_x \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

So  $L_x$  is self-adjoint. The case is similar for  $L_y$  and  $L_z$

□

**Definition 3.26.** We define the **raising operator**  $L_+$  and **lowering operator**  $L_-$  by

$$L_+ = L_x + iL_y \quad \text{and} \quad L_- = L_x - iL_y$$

**Exercise 3.27.**

$$[L^2, L_+] = [L^2, L_-] = 0$$

*Proof.* Trivial.

□

**Exercise 3.28.** *The lowering operator is the adjoint of the raising operator:*

$$L_- = (L_+)^{\dagger}$$

*Proof.* Let  $\Psi_1, \Psi_2$  be wavefunctions. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \Psi_1 | L_+ \Psi_2 \rangle &= \langle \Psi_1 | L_x \Psi_2 \rangle + i \langle \Psi_1 | L_y \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle L_x \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle + i \langle L_y \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle L_x \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle + \langle -i L_y \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle (L_x - i L_y) \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\
 &= \langle L_- \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $L_- = (L_+)^\dagger$ . □

**Exercise 3.29.** *We have*

- (1)  $[L_z, L_+] = \hbar L_+$
- (2)  $[L_z, L_-] = -\hbar L_-$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 [L_z, L_+] &= [L_z, L_x] + i[L_z, L_y] \\
 &= i\hbar L_y + \hbar L_x \\
 &= \hbar L_+
 \end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar. □

**Exercise 3.30.** *We have*

- (1)  $L^2 = L_+ L_- + L_z^2 - \hbar L_z$
- (2)  $L^2 = L_- L_+ + L_z^2 + \hbar L_z$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned}
 L_+ L_- &= (L_x + i L_y)(L_x - i L_y) \\
 &= L_x^2 - i(L_x L_y - L_y L_x) + L_y^2 \\
 &= L_x^2 + L_y^2 - i[L_x, L_y] \\
 &= L^2 - L_z^2 + \hbar L_z
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$L^2 = L_+ L_- + L_z^2 - \hbar L_z$$

(2) Similar □

**Exercise 3.31.** *Suppose that  $f$  is simultaneously an eigenfunction of  $L^2$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and an eigenfunction of  $L_z$  with eigenvalue  $\mu$ . Then*

- (1)  $L_+ f$  is simultaneously an eigenfunction of  $L^2$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and an eigenfunction of  $L_z$  with eigenvalue  $\mu + \hbar$
- (2)  $L_- f$  is simultaneously an eigenfunction of  $L^2$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  and an eigenfunction of  $L_z$  with eigenvalue  $\mu - \hbar$

*Proof.*

(1) First we have

$$\begin{aligned} L^2 L_+ f &= L_+ L^2 f \\ &= L_+ \lambda f \\ &= \lambda L_+ f \end{aligned}$$

Second we see that

$$\begin{aligned} L_z L_+ f &= \left[ L_+ L_z + (L_z L_+ - L_+ L_z) \right] f \\ &= (L_+ L_z + [L_z, L_+]) f \\ &= (\mu L_+ + \hbar L_+) f \\ &= (\mu + \hbar) L_+ f \end{aligned}$$

(2) Similar.

□

**Interpretation 3.32.** *The raising/lowering operators change the state of a particle from simultaneous eigenstate to simultaneous eigenstate and increase/decrease the  $z$ -component of the orbital angular momentum of a particle by  $\hbar$ , but does not change the total orbital angular momentum of the particle.*

**Note 3.33.** *If we repeatedly applied the increasing/decreasing operator to a simultaneous eigenstate of a particle, we would arrive at a top/bottom eigenstate since there is a finite amount of total angular momentum.*

**Definition 3.34.** *We define the **top state**  $f_t$  to be the simultaneous eigenstate of  $L^2$  and  $L_z$  such that*

$$L_+ f_t = 0$$

*and we define the **bottom state**  $f_b$  to be the simultaneous eigenstate of  $L^2$  and  $L_z$  such that*

$$L_- f_b = 0$$

**Exercise 3.35.** *Let  $\hbar l$  and  $\hbar l'$  be the eigenvalues of  $L_z$  for  $f_t$  and  $f_b$  respectively. Then*

- (1)  $\hbar^2 l(l+1)$  and  $\hbar^2 l'(l'-1)$  are the eigenvalue of  $L^2$  for  $f_t$  and  $f_b$  respectively
- (2)  $l' = -l$
- (3)  $l \in \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{N}_0$

*Proof.*

(1)

$$\begin{aligned} L^2 f_t &= (L_- L_+ + L_z^2 + \hbar L_z) f_t \\ &= \hbar^2 l^2 f_t + \hbar^2 l f_t \\ &= \hbar^2 l(l+1) f_t \end{aligned}$$

The case is similar for  $l'$ .

(2) For some  $N \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and constant  $C$ , we have  $f_b = CL_-^N f_t$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\hbar^2 l'(l' - 1)f_b &= L^2 f_b \\ &= L^2 CL_-^N f_t \\ &= CL_-^N L^2 f_t \\ &= CL_-^N \hbar^2 l(l + 1)f_t \\ &= \hbar^2 l(l + 1)f_b\end{aligned}$$

So  $l'(l' - 1) = l(l + 1)$ . By completing the square, we see that the only two ways that this equation is satisfied is if  $l' = l + 1$  or  $l' = -l$ . The first case is not possible since it would imply that the orbital angular momentum for a particle is greater in the state  $f_b$  than in the state  $f_t$ . So  $l' = -l$ .

(3) Since for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and constant  $C$ ,  $L_b = CL_-^N f_t$ , a previous exercise implies that

$$\begin{aligned}-\hbar l f_b &= L_z f_b \\ &= L_z CL_-^N f_t \\ &= \hbar(l - N)CL_-^N f_t \\ &= \hbar(l - N)f_b\end{aligned}$$

So  $-l = l - N$  and  $l = \frac{N}{2}$ . Thus  $l \in \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{N}_0$ .

□

**Definition 3.36.** For  $m = -l, -l + 1, \dots, l - 1, l$  define  $f_l^m$  to be the simultaneous eigenstate of  $L^2$  and  $L_z$  given by

$$f_l^m = \langle L_-^{l-m} f_t | L_-^{l-m} f_t \rangle^{-\frac{1}{2}} L_-^{l-m} f_t$$

**Exercise 3.37.** We have that

- (1) the eigenvalue of  $L^2$  corresponding to  $f_l^m$  is  $\hbar^2 l(l + 1)$
- (2) the eigenvalue of  $L_z$  corresponding to  $f_l^m$  is  $\hbar m$ .

*Proof.* Straightforward (and kind of already did it in the last exercise).

□

**Proposition 3.38.**