

QM, Griffiths:

Chapter 3, Section 1: Hilbert Space

Two constructs of quantum theory:

- wave functions

- operators

Wavefunctions represent the state of a system

Operators represent observables

In mathematics, the wave functions are vectors, while the operators are linear transformations.

The vectors (functions) encountered in QM are generally functions, which live in ∞ -dimensional space.

The collection of all functions of x is a vector space, but it is too big.

We know, to represent physically possible states, the wave functions have to be normalised,

$$\int |f(x)|^2 dx = 1$$

And so the smaller vector space we like is the set of all square-integrable functions on a specific interval (usually $(-\infty, \infty)$)

$\hookrightarrow f(x)$ such that $\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty$

Physicists call this 'Hilbert space' (\because it is actually a Hilbert space)

Math people call it $L_2(a, b)$

The inner product of two functions f & g

$$\langle f | g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)^* g(x) dx \quad (\text{just like the discrete version!})$$

If f & g are both square integrable, (both in Hilbert Space)
the inner product $\langle f|g \rangle$ or $\langle g|f \rangle^*$ is guaranteed to exist.
This (is apparent / follows from) the Schwarz Schwarz Inequality

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx \right| \leq \sqrt{\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \int_a^b |g(x)|^2 dx}$$

Note $\langle g|f \rangle = \langle f|g \rangle^*$

$$\langle f|f \rangle = \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx$$

Normalized : A function is normalized when $\langle f|f \rangle = 1$

Orthogonal : ~~A function is~~ 0.

Two functions are orthogonal when $\langle f|g \rangle = 0$

Orthonormal : A set of functions $\{f_n\}$ is orthonormal
if they are normalized and mutually orthogonal:

$$\langle f_m | f_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$$

Complete : A set of functions is complete if any other function in Hilbert Space can be expressed as a linear combination of them.

i.e., e.g. $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x)$

if $\{f_n(x)\}$ is orthonormal ($\langle f_m | f_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$)

then the coefficients may be calculated using Fourier's Trick:

$$c_n = \langle f_n | f \rangle = \int_a^b f_n^*(x) f(x) dx$$

(3.1) Show that the set of all square integrable functions is a vector space

Strategy: Show that the sum of two square integrable functions is itself square-integrable.

Obviously the scalar multiplication requirement will have no effect on a function's square-integrability...

So, we need to tackle the vector addition problem.

If $\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty \rightarrow f \text{ is square-integrable.}$

If $\int_a^b |g(x)|^2 dx \rightarrow g \text{ is square-integrable.}$

does $\int_a^b |f(x) + g(x)|^2 dx \rightarrow \infty ?$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x))^* (f(x) + g(x)) dx \\
 &= \int_a^b (f^* f + g^* f + f^* g + g^* g) dx \\
 &= \int_a^b |f|^2 dx + \int_a^b |g|^2 dx + \int_a^b g^* f dx + \int_a^b f^* g dx \\
 &= \int_a^b |f|^2 dx + \int_a^b |g|^2 dx + \langle g|f \rangle + \langle f|g \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

By the Schwarz inequality,

$$\langle g|f \rangle + \langle f|g \rangle \leq \left[\int_a^b |f|^2 dx \int_a^b |g|^2 dx \right]$$

From framework we know $\langle g|f \rangle$ & $\langle f|g \rangle$ must be finite, since f & g are both square-integrable on their own.

(3.2) For what range of v is $f(x) = x^v$ in Hilbert space on the interval $(0,1)$? (assume v , real)

To qualify for Hilbert space,

$$\int_a^b |x^v|^2 dx \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\int_a^b x^{v*} x^v dx = \int_a^b x^{2v} dx, \text{ since } v \text{ is real.}$$

The interval here is $(0,1)$, so,

$$\int_0^1 x^{2v} dx = \frac{1}{2v+1} [x^{2v+1}]_0^1 = \langle f|f \rangle$$

$$= \cancel{\frac{x^{2v+1}}{2v+1}}$$

we need to include 0^{2v+1} !

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f|f \rangle &= \int_{x \in (0,1)} x^{2v} dx = \cancel{[} \\ &= \frac{1}{2v+1} \left[x^{2v+1} - 0^{2v+1} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\langle f|f \rangle \rightarrow \pm \infty$ as long as $2v+1 > 0$.

(For $2v+1 < 0$, the integral blows up)

① $v = \frac{1}{2}$?

$$\langle f|f \rangle \Big|_{v=\frac{1}{2}} = \int_0^1 x^{-1} dx = \ln x \Big|_0^1 \rightarrow 0 + \infty$$

$\forall v > -\frac{1}{2}$

$\therefore \boxed{f \text{ is in Hilbert space only for } v > -\frac{1}{2}}$

(3.1) b) Are normalized functions a vector space?

Lets disprove:

if $\langle f|f \rangle = 1$, if $\langle f|f \rangle = 1$, it is closed,
then $c\langle f|f \rangle$ must also remain normalized:
 $c\langle f|f \rangle = c|f|^2$

Most simply, $c=0$ is no normalized $f(x)=0$. not possible!

Even if an exception is made however, scalar multiplication breaks down.

if $\langle f|f \rangle = 1$, $\langle 2f|2f \rangle = 4$

, which is not normalized, (is outside the space, thus the space is not closed under scalar multiplication.)

(b) Show that $\langle f|g \rangle$

$$\int_a^b f(x)^* g(x) dx \text{ satisfies the conditions for an inner product } \langle f|g \rangle$$

① $\langle f|g \rangle^* = \langle g|f \rangle$?

$$\langle f|g \rangle^* = \left[\int_a^b f^* g dx \right]^* = \int_a^b g^* f dx = \langle g|f \rangle \quad \checkmark$$

② $\langle f|f \rangle \geq 0$?

$$\langle f|f \rangle = \int_a^b f^* f dx = \int_a^b |f|^2 dx \geq 0 \quad (\text{since this is the modulus})$$

③ If $\langle h|(af + bg) \rangle = a\langle h|f \rangle + b\langle h|g \rangle$?

$$= \int h^* (af + bg) dx = \int h^* af dx + \int h^* bg dx$$

$$= a \int h^* f dx + b \int h^* g dx = a\langle h|f \rangle + b\langle h|g \rangle$$

So, with $f = x^v$,

for what values of v does $x f(x)$ in H (ilbert space)?

$$\langle x f | x f \rangle = \int_0^1 x^v x^{2v} dx = \int_0^1 x^{3v+2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{3v+3} \left[x^{3v+3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{3v+3} [x^{3v+3} - 0^{3v+3}]$$

v must be $> \frac{3}{2}$.

But what about $v = -\frac{3}{2}$?

$$\langle x f | x f \rangle \Big|_{v=-\frac{3}{2}} = \int_0^1 x^{-6} dx. \quad \text{not} \quad \text{yep.}$$

$$= 1$$

$x f(x)$ is in H space
for $v > -\frac{3}{2}$

$$\langle \frac{df}{dx} | \frac{df}{dx} \rangle ? = \frac{1}{2v-1} \int_0^1 x^{2v-1} dx$$

$$= 2v-1 \int_0^1 x^{2v-1} dx = \frac{2v-1}{2v-1}$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = v-1 x^{v-1}$$

$$\left(\frac{df}{dx} \right)^2 = (v-1)^2 x^{2v-2} = (v-1) \int_0^1 x^{2v-2} dx$$

$$= \frac{(v-1)^2}{2v-1} \left[x^{2v-1} \right]_0^1$$

Simple Operations can carry a Function
OUT of Hilbert space!!

WAVE FUNCTIONS LIVE IN HILBERT SPACE!

3.2: Observables:

Expectation value of an observable in inner-product notation:

$$\langle Q \rangle = \int M \cdot \hat{Q} M dx = \langle M | \hat{Q} M \rangle$$

Remember; $\hat{Q}M$ isn't actually an operator operating on a vector... this is just a convenient notation that gives a label to the new vector

$$\hat{Q}|M\rangle$$

Again, \hat{Q} is constructed from $Q(x, p)$ by replacing

$$p \rightarrow \left(\frac{\hbar}{i}\right) \frac{d}{dx}.$$

$$p \rightarrow \hat{p} = \left(\frac{\hbar}{i}\right) \frac{d}{dx}$$

Since the outcome of a measurement is real, so too must the average of many measurements,

thus $\langle Q \rangle = \langle Q \rangle^*$

However, the complex conjugate of an inner product reverses its order:

So, for $\underline{\langle Q \rangle^*} = \langle Q \rangle = \langle Q \rangle^*$,

this suggests that $\langle \hat{Q}M | M \rangle = \langle M | \hat{Q}M \rangle$

which must be true for any wavefunction M

Thus, operators representing observables have a special property:

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | f \rangle \text{ for all } f(x).$$

We call these Hermitian Operators!

OBSERVABLES ARE REPRESENTED
BY HERMITIAN OPERATORS!

A check:

$$\langle f | \hat{p} g \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^* \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx} \right) g dx = \frac{\hbar}{i} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^* \frac{dg}{dx} dx$$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[f^* g \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^* g dx$$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[f^* g \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{df}{dx} \right)^* dx$$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[f^* g \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \right) \left(\frac{df}{dx} \right)^* dx = \langle \hat{p} f | g \rangle$$

(3.3) Show that if $\langle h | \hat{Q} h \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} h | h \rangle$, for all bounded h in Hilbert space, then $\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle$ for all $f \neq g$

$$\langle h | \hat{Q} h \rangle = \int_a^b h^* \hat{Q} h dx, \quad \text{let } h = f + g$$

$$\text{so } h^* = f$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$= \int (f + g)^* \hat{Q} (f + g) dx$$

$$\langle f + g | \hat{Q} (f + g) \rangle = \langle f + g | (\hat{Q} f) +$$

$$= \langle (f + g) | (\hat{Q} f) + (\hat{Q} g) \rangle$$

$$= \langle f | \hat{Q} f \rangle + \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle + \langle g | \hat{Q} f \rangle + \langle g | \hat{Q} g \rangle$$

$$\langle Qh | h \rangle = \langle Q(f+g) | (f+g) \rangle = \langle (f+g) | ($$

$$= \langle \hat{Q} f | f \rangle + \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle + \langle \hat{Q} g | f \rangle + \langle \hat{Q} g | g \rangle$$

We want to prove that a hermitian operator is so if

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | f \rangle ;$$

which is an equivalent definition/requirement to $\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle$

Let's let $h = f + g$, or $h = f + ig$. So, $h = f + cg$

$$\langle h | \hat{Q} h \rangle = \langle (f + cg) | \hat{Q}(f + cg) \rangle$$

$$= \langle f | \hat{Q} f \rangle + c^* \langle g | \hat{Q} f \rangle + c \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle + |c|^2 \langle g | \hat{Q} g \rangle$$

$$\langle \hat{Q} h | h \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}(f + cg) | (f + cg) \rangle$$

$$= \langle \hat{Q} f | f \rangle + \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle + c \langle \hat{Q} g | f \rangle + |c|^2 \langle \hat{Q} g | g \rangle$$

Since g & f are subject to a hermitian operator,

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | f \rangle \text{ and } \langle g | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} g | g \rangle$$

$$\text{if } \langle h | \hat{Q} h \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} h | h \rangle$$

$$\text{then i. } c \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle + c^* \langle g | \hat{Q} f \rangle = c \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle + c^* \langle \hat{Q} g | f \rangle$$

$$\text{if } c = 1, \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle + \langle g | \hat{Q} f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle + \langle \hat{Q} g | f \rangle$$

$$\text{and if } c = i, \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle - \langle g | \hat{Q} f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle - \langle \hat{Q} g | f \rangle$$

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle \text{ if}$$

$$\langle h | \hat{Q} h \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} h | h \rangle$$

3.4 Show that the sum of two hermitian operators is hermitian:

(a) $\langle f | (\hat{A} + \hat{G}) g \rangle$

$$\langle f | (\hat{A} + \hat{G}) g \rangle = \langle f | \hat{G} g \rangle + \langle f | \hat{K} g \rangle$$

if \hat{G} & \hat{K} are hermitian, then,

$$= \langle \hat{G} f | g \rangle + \langle \hat{K} f | g \rangle$$

$$= \langle (\hat{G} + \hat{K}) f | g \rangle$$

(b) Suppose \hat{Q} is hermitian and α is a complex #.

Under what conditions on α is $\alpha \hat{Q}$ hermitian?

$$\langle f | \alpha \hat{Q} g \rangle \text{ must } = \langle \alpha \hat{Q} f | g \rangle.$$

$$= \alpha \langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle$$

$$\text{and, } \langle \alpha \hat{Q} f | g \rangle = \alpha^* \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle. \text{ So,}$$

$\alpha \hat{Q}$ is hermitian, if α is real.

(c) When is the product of two Hermitian operators hermitian?
If hermitian product,

$$\langle f | \hat{K} \hat{Q} g \rangle \text{ would } = \langle \hat{K} f | \hat{Q} g \rangle, \text{ which would}$$

$$= \langle \hat{Q} \hat{K} f | g \rangle$$

Thus to remain Hermitian, $\hat{R} \hat{Q} \stackrel{\text{will have to}}{=} \hat{Q} \hat{R}$

or, the product is hermitian if $[\hat{K}, \hat{Q}] = 0$

② Show that the position operator $\hat{x} = x$ and the Hamiltonian operator $\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$ are hermitian.

$$\text{RHS } \langle f | \hat{x} g \rangle = \int f^* x g dx = \int (x f^*) g dx = \langle \hat{x} f | g \rangle$$

(This is so, since x is real in all cases)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | \hat{H} g \rangle &= \int f^* \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V \right) g dx \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \underbrace{\int f^* \frac{dg}{dx^2} dx}_{\text{IBP to solve:}} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \int f^* V g dx \quad (\text{here we assume } V \text{ is real}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\left[f^* \frac{dg}{dx} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int \frac{df^*}{dx} \frac{dg}{dx} dx \right] = f^* \frac{dg}{dx} \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \frac{df^*}{dx} g \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} + \int \frac{d^2 f^*}{dx^2} g dx$$

in Hilbert space.

$$= \int \left(f \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V \right) f^* \right)^* g dx = \langle \hat{H} f | g \rangle$$

(3.5) The Hermitian conjugate of an operator \hat{Q} is the operator \hat{Q}^\dagger such that

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle f | \hat{Q}^\dagger g \rangle$$

for all f & g .

$$\text{i.e. } \hat{Q} = \hat{Q}^\dagger$$

② find \hat{x}^\dagger , \hat{i}^\dagger

$$\langle f | \hat{x} g \rangle = \int f^*(xg) dx = \int (xf)^* g dx, \text{ so, } \hat{x}^\dagger = x$$

$$x^\dagger = x$$

$$\langle f | \hat{i} g \rangle = \int f^*(ig) dx = \int (-i\delta)^* g dx$$

$$\therefore i^\dagger = -i$$

$$\langle f | \frac{d}{dx} g \rangle = \int f^* \left(\frac{dg}{dx} \right) dx = f^* g \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int \frac{df^*}{dx} g dx$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dx}^\dagger = -\frac{d}{dx}$$

③ Construct the Hermitian conjugate of the harmonic oscillator raising operator: a_+

$$a_+ = \overbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar\omega}}}^{\perp} (-ip + m\omega x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | a_+ g \rangle &= \int f^* \left(\overbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar\omega}}}^{\perp} (-ip + m\omega x) \right) g dx \\ &= \left(\int f^* \left(\overbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar\omega}}}^{\perp} (ip + m\omega x) \right)^* g dx \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{a}_{} \quad a_+^\dagger = \overbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar\omega}}}^{\perp} (ip + m\omega x) = a_-$$

④ Show that $(\hat{Q}\hat{R})^\dagger = \hat{R}^\dagger \hat{Q}^\dagger$

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} \hat{R}^\dagger g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}^\dagger f | \hat{R}^\dagger g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}^\dagger R \langle \hat{R}^\dagger Q^\dagger f | g \rangle = \langle (\hat{Q}\hat{R})^\dagger f | g \rangle$$

3.2.2: Determinate States

Is it possible to prepare a state such that every measurement of \hat{Q} is certain to return the same value? (call this value q_f).

i.e. For an observable \hat{Q} , is there a determinate state.

e.g. Stationary states are the determinate states of the Hamiltonian.

(to measure of the total energy of a particle in stationary state H_n must yield the corresponding exact allowed energy E_n)

In such a determinate state, the SD must = 0.

$$\sigma^2 = \langle (\hat{Q})^2 - \langle Q \rangle \rangle$$

$$\text{since } \sigma^2 = 0, \quad \sigma^2 = \langle (\hat{Q} - \langle Q \rangle)^2 \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= \langle \Delta Q^2 \rangle = \langle (\hat{Q} - \langle Q \rangle)^2 \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{Q} - q_f)^2 \rangle \\ &= \int H^* (\hat{Q} - q_f)^2 H dx \\ &= \langle H | (\hat{Q} - q_f)^2 H \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{Q} - q_f) H | (\hat{Q} - q_f) H \rangle\end{aligned}$$

remember,
we can only
do this
cause q_f is
 $\hat{Q} - q_f$ is
a hermitian
operator.

eventually, we get the eigenvalue equation:

$$\boxed{\hat{Q} H = q_f H.}$$

Determinate States are eigenfunctions of $\hat{Q}!!$

Thus, a measurement Q on such a state will necessarily yield the eigenvalue q .

Remember, zero can be an eigenvalue ... just not an eigenvector or an eigenfunction.

Now, as an example:

determinate states of the total energy are eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi,$$

The different allowed values of E would be called the spectrum of \hat{H} .

e.g. 3.1:

Consider $\hat{Q} = i \frac{d}{d\phi}$

is \hat{Q} hermitian?

The interval in this case is finite: $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$

Thus $f(\phi) = f(\phi + 2\pi)$

Testing if hermitian:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} f^* i \frac{dg}{d\phi} d\phi \\ &= \left[i f^* g \right]_0^{2\pi} - \int_0^{2\pi} \left(-i \frac{df}{d\phi} \right)^* g d\phi \\ &= 0 + \int_0^{2\pi} \left(i \frac{df}{d\phi} \right)^* g d\phi = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Yup, \hat{Q} sure is hermitian

Solving for eigenvalues, $i \frac{df}{d\phi} = qf$

$$\frac{df}{d\phi} = -iqf$$

solving this ODE,

$$f(\phi) = Ae^{-iq\phi}$$

But the only way for $f(\phi) = f(\phi + 2\pi)$ consistently is if $e^{-iq\phi} = 1$

This occurs for all ~~ϕ~~ $\phi = 2\pi n$, so, q has to

$$n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm n.$$

So the spectrum of this operator is the set of all integers.

And where $f = Ae^{-iq\phi}$ is the eigenfunction for \hat{Q} ,

f is unique for every q , thus the operator spectrum is non-degenerate

3.6 Consider, in polar coordinates again, the operator $\hat{Q} = \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2}$

Is \hat{Q} hermitian?

No, there is no factor of i in the operator.

$$\begin{aligned}\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} f^* \frac{d^2 Q}{d\phi^2} d\phi = \int_0^{2\pi} f^* \frac{d^2 g}{d\phi^2} d\phi - \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{df}{d\phi} \frac{dg}{d\phi} d\phi \\ &= \left(\frac{df}{d\phi} \right)^* \frac{dg}{d\phi} \Big|_0^{2\pi} + \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{d^2 f}{d\phi^2} \right) g d\phi \\ &= \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle\end{aligned}$$

Yes, \hat{Q} is hermitian

$$\text{so, } \frac{d^2 f}{d\phi^2} = q_B f \rightarrow f = A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx}$$

$$f_{\pm}(\phi) = A e^{\pm \sqrt{q_B} \phi}$$

To satisfy $f(\phi) = f(\phi + 2\pi)$, $f_B(2\pi)$ must $= 2\pi i$

$$\text{so, } \sqrt{q_B} = ni$$

$$\text{and } \cancel{q_B} = -n^2 \quad q_B = -n^2, n=0,1,2,\dots$$

The spectrum is $q = -n^2$ for all integers.

This spectrum is degenerate in two ways; first, $|n| = \pm n$, and second, ie there are two functions for each value of n . Second, there is the \pm in the original function. Double-degenerate.

However, the spectrum is not degenerate for $n=0$.

3.3: Eigenfunctions of a Hermitian Operator

So we now focus on the eigenfunctions of hermitian operators that represent physically determinate states of observables.

These come in two categories:

Discrete spectra have eigenfunctions that live in Hilbert space, and are normalizable — physically realizable.

Continuous spec spectra have eigenfunctions lying outside Hilbert Space — These eigenfunctions are not normalizable, and they DO NOT represent possible wave functions.

— However In some case, linear combinations of these eigenfunctions (w/continuous spectra) may be normalizable

└ (Under the condition though that the resulting function represent a spread of eigenvalues)

① Discrete Spectra:

Normalizable eigenfunctions of a hermitian operator have two important properties:

i) Their eigenvalues are Real:

— Say $\hat{Q}f = qf$ (f is eigenfunction of \hat{Q} w/eigenvalue q)

and $\langle f | \hat{Q}f \rangle = \langle f | qf \rangle$

and $\langle f | \hat{Q}f \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}f | f \rangle$ (\hat{Q} is hermitian)

— Then, $\langle f | qf \rangle = \langle qf | f \rangle$

$$q \langle f | f \rangle = q^* \langle f | f \rangle$$

And since $f \neq 0$ by assumption, $q = q^*$,

thus q must be real.

2) Eigenfunctions belonging to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.

— Suppose: $\hat{Q}f = q_f$ and $\hat{Q}g = q_g$

then $\hat{Q} = \hat{Q}^+$, ... $\langle f | \hat{Q}g \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}f | g \rangle$

then $\langle f | \hat{Q}g \rangle = \langle f | sg \rangle = s \langle f | g \rangle$

and $\langle \hat{Q}f | g \rangle = \langle q_f f | g \rangle = q_f^* \langle f | g \rangle$

$$\therefore s \langle f | g \rangle = q_f^* \langle f | g \rangle$$

but $q_f^* = q_f$,

$$\text{so } s \langle f | g \rangle = q_f \langle f | g \rangle$$

$s \neq q_f$ are distinct, $\therefore s \neq q_f$,

also so, either, $s=q_f$ - which they cannot, or

$$\boxed{\langle f | g \rangle = 0}$$

(3)

The 'Axiom' (the restriction on Hermitian operators that can represent observables)

The eigenfunctions of an observable operator are complete; i.e. Any function in Hilbert space can be represented as a linear combination of the eigenfunctions.

This effectively a third property of eigenfunctions with discrete spectra

(3.7) Suppose $f(x)$ & $g(x)$ are two eigenfunctions of an operator \hat{Q} with the same eigen value q_f .

(a) Show that any linear combination of f & g is itself an eigenfunction of \hat{Q} w/ eigen value q_f .

From a linear combination, $af + bg = h$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Q}h &= \hat{Q}(af + bg) = af + bg = a\hat{Q}f + b\hat{Q}g = aq_f f + bq_g g \\ \hat{Q}h &= q_f(af + bg) = q_f h \end{aligned}$$

(b) Check that $f(x) = \exp$ $f(x) = e^x$
and $g(x) = e^{-x}$

are eigenfunctions of the same operator $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} e^x = e^x, \text{ where } q_f = 1$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} e^{-x} = - \frac{d}{dx} e^{-x} = e^{-x}, \quad q_g = -1$$

An orthogonal linear combination is $ae^x + be^{-x}$, letting $a = b = \frac{1}{2}$,
 $\frac{1}{2}[e^x + e^{-x}] = \cosh(x)$

or choose $a = \frac{1}{2}$ & $b = -\frac{1}{2}$,

$$\text{so } ae^x + be^{-x} = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - e^{-x}) = \sinh(x)$$

\cosh is even, and \sinh is odd, so these two combinations are
(Must be) orthogonal,

3.8 Check that the eigenvalues of the hamiltonian operator

$\hat{Q} = i \frac{d}{d\phi}$ are real.

$$\hat{Q}f = q_f f \rightarrow i \frac{df}{d\phi} = q_f f$$

$$\langle f | \hat{Q}f \rangle = \langle f | q_f f \rangle = \langle f | i \frac{df}{d\phi} \rangle = i \langle f | \frac{df}{d\phi} \rangle$$

Wait, we already calculated the eigenvalues here:

↳ q_f are all integers, (definitely real).

Are the corresponding eigenfunctions orthogonal?

To check, we consider any two eigenfunctions: $f = A e^{-iq_f \phi}$ and $g = A' e^{-iq'_f \phi}$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f | g \rangle &= A_g^* A_{q_f} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{iq_f \phi} e^{-iq'_f \phi} d\phi \\ &= A_g^* A_{q_f} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(q_f - q'_f)\phi} d\phi = \frac{A_g^* A_{q_f}}{i(q_f - q'_f)} e^{i(q_f - q'_f)\phi} \Big|_0^{2\pi} \\ &= \frac{A_g^* A_{q_f}}{i(q_f - q'_f)} \left[e^{i(q_f - q'_f)2\pi} - 1 \right] \end{aligned}$$

But since q_f & q'_f are integers,
 $e^{i(q_f - q'_f)2\pi} = 1$

$\therefore \langle f | g \rangle = 0$ & we have shown different eigenfunctions are orthogonal.

⑥ And how about $\hat{Q} = \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2}$ from 3.6?

→ here q were integers $\pm n$ again, which are real.
Checking orthogonality:-

$$\text{from } f(\phi) = A e^{\pm i \sqrt{q} \phi}, \quad \sqrt{q} = n i,$$

$$\text{Take two eigenfunctions } f = A_q e^{\pm i n \phi}$$

$$\text{and } g = A_{q'} e^{\pm i n' \phi};$$

$$\langle f | g \rangle = A_q^* A_{q'} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{\mp i n \phi} e^{\pm i n' \phi} d\phi$$

$$= A_q^* A_{q'} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{\pm i(n - n')\phi} d\phi = \frac{A_q^* A_{q'}}{\pm i(n - n')} \left[e^{\pm i(n - n')\phi} \right]_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{A_q^* A_{q'}}{\pm i(n - n')} = \frac{A_q^* A_{q'}}{\pm i(n - n')} \left[e^{\pm i(n - n)2\pi} - 1 \right]$$

And since n & n' are integers & $n \neq n'$, $\langle f | g \rangle = 0$.

However; for each eigenvalue, we note there are in fact two eigenfunctions, ... and so $\langle f | g \rangle = 0$ is refuted as a condition for orthogonality... f & g are not orthogonal.

Continuous Spectra:

The difficulties w/ continuous spectra are that because eigenfunctions are not normalizable, their inner products are not guaranteed to exist.

However, in a limited sense (re properties of reality, orthogonality, & completeness still occur...)

→ We will explore this via examples:

e.g. 3.2: Find the eigenvalues & eigenfunctions of the operator

$$\hat{P} = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}, \text{ call } f_p \text{ the momentum eigenfunction and call } p \text{ the eigenvalue.}$$

$$\left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{df_p}{dx} = pf_p \right) \xrightarrow{\text{Solving}}$$

$$f_p(x) = A e^{\frac{ipx}{\hbar}} = A e^{i \frac{px}{\hbar}}$$

Not square integrable.

But restricting p to real values...

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{p'}^* f_p dx = |A|^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(p-p')x} dx = |A|^2 2\pi \delta(p-p')$$

A convenient choice for A here would naturally be $A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}$

so that $\langle f_{p'} | f_p \rangle = \delta(p-p')$ → this is very similar in appearance to the true definition of orthonormality

$$(\langle f_m | f_n \rangle = \delta_{mn})$$

Call this...

Dirac Orthonormality.

Furthermore, the original definition of 'completeness' condition

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x) \quad (\text{form any function w/ a basis combination...})$$

Extends in the same way to this continuous operator case...
... by applying a continuous sum (integral.)

$$\star \quad f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c_p(p) f_p(x) dp$$

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(p) f_p(x) dp$$

(or)

f is square-integrable now...

Showing us that any square-integrable function may be constructed out of these 'natural' or 'basis' eigenfunctions!

And where $f_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{ipx}$,

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(p) f_p(x) dp = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(p) e^{ipx} dp$$

Now, the expansion coefficient is a function of p , but can still be determined using Fourier's Theorem...

$$c(p) \rightarrow \langle f_p | f \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(p) \langle f_p | f \rangle dp = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(p) \delta(p-p') dp$$

(Fourier's
Theorem
of p' !)

$$= c(p) \Big|_{p'} = c(p')$$

Now since $f_p = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{i\frac{p}{\hbar}x}$ is sinusoidal ...
 (Euler's formula ...)

ω is apparently $= \frac{p}{\hbar}$
 So and $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad \therefore \lambda = \frac{2\pi\hbar}{p}$

which is DeBroglie's relation

And so a deep subtlety emerges ... the DeBroglie formula has some twists, since we just demonstrated it is impossible to have a particle with a determinate momentum!
 (i.e. there is no such thing.)

Onward!

ex. 3.3: Find the eigenfunctions & eigenvalues of the position operator.

call g_y the eigenfunction, & y the eigenvalue;
 $\hat{x} = x$.

$$x g_y = y g_y$$

So, what is g_y ? — y must be a fixed # for any given eigenfunction.

— The problem is however, that x is a continuous variable.

— What function, when multiplied by x is the same as multiplying by a constant?

g_y must be the delta function.

$$g_y(x) = A \delta(x - y) \text{ solves } x g_y = y g_y$$

For some reason beyond me, the eigenvalues must be real, for $xg_y = yg_y$, $g_y = A\delta(x-y)$

Checking for Dirac orthonormality —

$$\begin{aligned}\langle g_y | g_y \rangle &= A \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_y^* g_y dx = |A|^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-y) \delta(x-y) dx \\ &= |A|^2 \delta(x-y) \Big|_y = |A|^2 \delta(y-y)\end{aligned}$$

Choosing $A \propto 1$, $\langle g_y | g_y \rangle = \delta(y-y)$

✓ yup, dirac orthogonal!

And completeness,

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) g_y(x) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) \delta(x-y) dy$$

for which we find trivially just through integration,

$$\langle g_y | g_y \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) \langle g_y | g_y \rangle dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y)$$

$$c(y) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_y(x)^* f(y) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-y) f(y) dy$$

$$c(y) = \langle g_y | g \rangle$$

Completeness of $\hat{X} = x$:

$$g_y = \delta(x-y)$$

Completeness:

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) g_y(x) dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) \delta(x-y) dy$$

let $-y = u$

Evaluating $c(y)$:

$$\cancel{c(y)} = \langle f_y | f \rangle \quad c(y) = \langle g_y | g \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle g_y | f \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \langle \delta(x-y') | \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} c(y) \delta(x-y) dy \right\rangle \rangle \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\delta(x-y'))^* f(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x-y') f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

- If a hermitian operator's spectrum is continuous, the
- eigenfunctions are not normalizable.
 - they are not in Hilbert space
 - they do not represent physically possible states.

However, those eigenvalues (continuous) of real values are at least

- Dirac orthonormal
- complete ... And this is just enough.

(3.9) @