

P423, Lecture 2: Review of P323

In the previous class we argued that in the classical limit $(\hbar \rightarrow 0)$ the wave func should be

$$\psi_{\text{class}}(\vec{r}, t) \approx a e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} S(\vec{r}, t)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \frac{\partial \psi_{\text{class}}}{\partial t} = \frac{i}{\hbar} \frac{\partial S}{\partial t} \psi_{\text{class}} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} H \psi_{\text{class}}, \text{ motivates Schrödinger's eqn: } i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi \\ \vec{p} \psi_{\text{class}} = (\vec{\nabla}_r S) \psi_{\text{class}} = \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla} \right) \psi_{\text{class}} \text{ so } \vec{p} \rightarrow \frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla} \end{cases}$$

If we define $\psi(\vec{r}, t) = \langle \vec{r} | \psi(t) \rangle$ as the wave func, then we may write Schrödinger's eqn as

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi(\vec{r}, t),$$

where $\hat{H} = H(\hat{\vec{r}}, \hat{\vec{p}})$ is the Hamiltonian func with $\hat{p}_i \rightarrow \frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla}_i$ and $\hat{r}_i \rightarrow \vec{r}_i$.

For example, particle in $d=3$ subject to a potential $V(\vec{r})$: $H = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m} + V(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla} \right)^2 + V(\vec{r})$

$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\vec{r}).$$

Furthermore, if H does not depend explicitly in time, we can solve for the time evolution

of any state at $t=t_0$:

$$\psi(\vec{r}, t) = e^{\frac{-i}{\hbar} (t-t_0) \hat{H}} \psi(\vec{r}, t_0)$$

$U(t, t_0)$, Time evolution operator

check: $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[e^{\frac{-i}{\hbar} (t-t_0) \hat{H}} \right] \psi(\vec{r}, t_0) = i\hbar \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (t-t_0) \hat{H} e^{\frac{-i}{\hbar} (t-t_0) \hat{H}} \psi(\vec{r}, t_0)$

$$= \hat{H} \psi(\vec{r}, t).$$

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If we focus on initial states that are eigenstates of \hat{H} :

$$\hat{H} \varphi_E(\vec{r}) = E \varphi_E(\vec{r})$$

Their time evolution is quite simple:

$$\varphi_E(\vec{r}, t) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} t} \varphi_E(\vec{r}) = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E t} \varphi_E(\vec{r}). \text{ Note that } |\varphi_E(\vec{r}, t)|^2 \text{ does not change in time.}$$

That is why the $\varphi_E(\vec{r})$ are often called "stationary states".

In ket notation, a superposition of energy eigenstates such as

$$|\Psi(t_0)\rangle = \sum_i a_i |E_i\rangle \quad (\text{here } \varphi_{E_i}(\vec{r}) = \langle \vec{r} | E_i \rangle)$$

evolves like

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = U(t, t_0) |\Psi(t_0)\rangle = \sum_i a_i e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_i t} |E_i\rangle. \text{ Any state can be written in this way, because } \sum_i |E_i\rangle \langle E_i| = \mathbb{1} \text{ (completeness).}$$

Example 1: Free particle

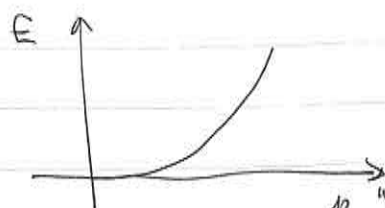
Note: $|\Psi\rangle = \sum_i |E_i\rangle \langle E_i | \Psi \rangle = \sum_i \underbrace{\langle E_i | \Psi \rangle}_{a_i} |E_i\rangle$

$$H = \frac{(\vec{p})^2}{2m} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2. \text{ In this case the energy eigenstates are also eigenstates of momentum}$$

The eigenstates of momentum are just plane waves: $\psi_{\vec{p}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}}$

$$\vec{p} \psi_{\vec{p}}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla} \left[\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} \vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}} \right] = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{i}{\hbar} \vec{\nabla} (\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}) \psi_{\vec{p}} = \vec{p} \psi_{\vec{p}}(\vec{r}), \text{ hence}$$

$$\hat{H} \psi_{\vec{p}} = \frac{(\vec{p})^2}{2m} \psi_{\vec{p}} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{p^2}{2m} \right)}_E \psi_{\vec{p}}$$



p "Quantum number": labels the energy eigenstates

In this case the spectrum is continuous (propagation mode).

Plane waves do not go to zero at $|\vec{r}| \rightarrow \infty$. How do we normalize? Using the $\frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}}$ prefactor.

Consider

$$\langle \vec{r} | \vec{r}' \rangle = \int d^3p \underbrace{\langle \vec{r} | \vec{p} \rangle}_{= \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}}} \underbrace{\langle \vec{p} | \vec{r}' \rangle}_{= \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}'}} = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} \int d^3p e^{i\vec{p} \cdot (\vec{r} - \vec{r}')} = \delta(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')$$

"Delta function normalization"

where we used completeness of the vector space spanned by $|\vec{p}\rangle$: $\{|\vec{p}\rangle\}$ forms a

complete basis of Hilbert space: $\int d^3p |\vec{p}\rangle \langle \vec{p}| = \mathbb{1}$.

Note how propagating modes (with a continuous energy spectra) cannot satisfy $\int d^3r |\psi|^2 = 1$.

We can write any quantum state in terms of the complete basis $\{|\vec{p}\rangle\}$:

$$|\psi\rangle = \underbrace{\int d^3p |\vec{p}\rangle \langle \vec{p}|}_{= \mathbb{1}} |\psi\rangle$$

So any state can be written as

$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \langle \vec{r} | \psi \rangle = \int d^3p \underbrace{\langle \vec{r} | \vec{p} \rangle}_{\varphi(\vec{p})} \langle \vec{p} | \psi \rangle = \int d^3p \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}} \varphi(\vec{p})$$

wave func in momentum representation

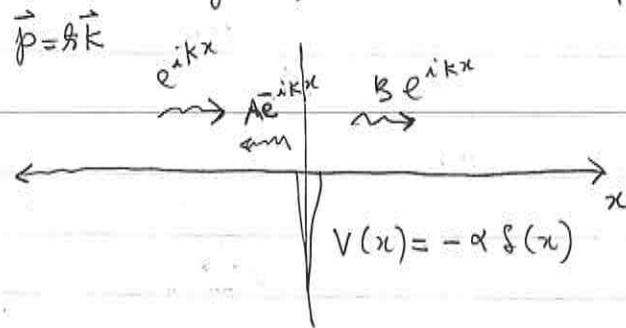
and the inverse relation is

$$\varphi(\vec{p}) = \int d^3r \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} e^{-i\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r}} \psi(\vec{r})$$

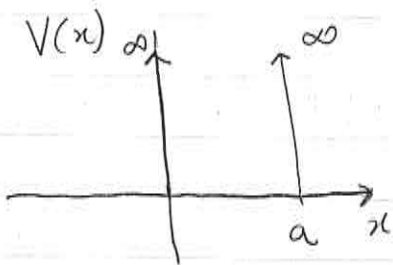
Based on postulate IV $|\varphi(\vec{p})|^2 d^3p$ gives the probability for measuring \vec{p} within d^3p of \vec{p}_0 .

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Propagating modes are usually represented as sum of plane waves, see e.g. problem 4 in A1.



Example 2: Particle in $d=1$ box. $V(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } 0 < x < a \\ \infty & \text{for } x \leq 0 \text{ and } x \geq a \end{cases}$



Find energy eigenstates, $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$.

Since $V(x) = \infty$ outside the box we must have $\psi = 0$ this region. This requirement quantizes the energy in discrete amounts.

The eigenstates of \hat{H} are still plane waves, $e^{\pm ikx}$. But we need to combine them so that $\psi(0) = \psi(a) = 0$. The solution is:

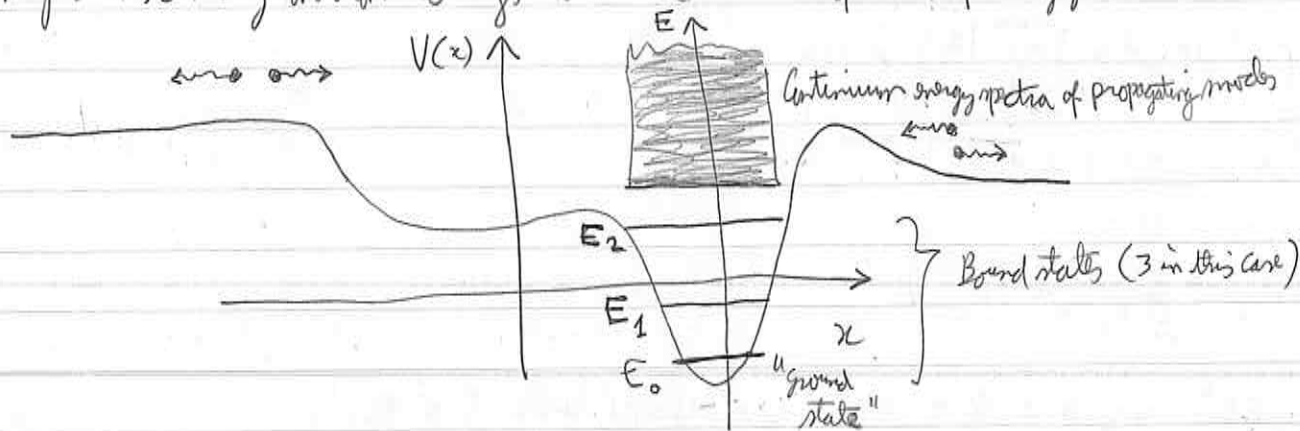
$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a} x\right) \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\text{Check that } \hat{H}\psi_n = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi_n = + \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2}_{E_n} \psi_n \Rightarrow E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m a^2} n^2 //$$

Also check that $\int dx |\psi|^2 = 1$.

An energy eigenstate will be a "bound state" when $\psi(\vec{r}) \rightarrow 0$ when $|\vec{r}| \rightarrow \infty$. We can show that

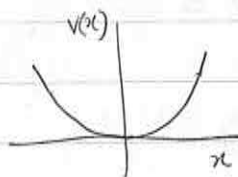
imposing this boundary condition always leads to a discrete spectra of energy.



In problem 3 of A1 you will be asked to calculate the bound states of $V(x) = -\alpha \delta(x)$.

Example 3: Harmonic oscillator in $d=1$.

(reasonable approximation for the ground state of any potential well).



$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2$$

There are always two methods to find eigenstates: Operator method and differential eqn method.

Operator: define $\left\{ \begin{aligned} \hat{a} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{\hat{x}}{x_0} + i \frac{x_0}{\hbar} \hat{p} \right) \quad \text{where } x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}} \text{ is a length scale.} \\ \hat{a}^\dagger &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{\hat{x}}{x_0} - i \frac{x_0}{\hbar} \hat{p} \right) \quad (\text{Note: } \hat{a} \text{ is not Hermitian!}) \end{aligned} \right.$

We can show that using $[x, p] = i\hbar \Rightarrow [a, a^\dagger] = 1$, and that

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

Moreover, we can prove that the set of eigenstates of $\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}$ are $\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} |m\rangle = m |m\rangle$ with $m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

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So the energy eigenstates are $|m\rangle$ with energy $E_m = (m + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega \quad m=0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$\text{Ans, } \begin{cases} \hat{a} |m\rangle = \sqrt{m} |m-1\rangle \\ \hat{a}^\dagger |m\rangle = \sqrt{m+1} |m+1\rangle \end{cases}$$

$$\text{and using } \begin{cases} \hat{x} = \frac{x_0}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger) \\ \hat{p} = -\frac{i \hbar}{\sqrt{2} x_0} (\hat{a} - \hat{a}^\dagger) \end{cases}$$

We can calculate any property of the Harmonic oscillator (Problem 5 in A1).

Differential eqn method:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \psi = E \psi(x)$$

Introduce $\xi = \frac{x}{x_0}$ and divide by $\hbar \omega$:

$$\underbrace{-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{x_0^2 \hbar \omega}}_{= \frac{1}{2}} \frac{d^2 \psi}{d\xi^2} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\frac{m \omega^2 x_0^2}{\hbar \omega}}_{= 1} \xi^2 \psi = \frac{E}{\hbar \omega} \psi$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(-\frac{d^2}{d\xi^2} + \xi^2 \right) \psi = \underbrace{\left(\frac{2E}{\hbar \omega} \right)}_{= 2\nu + 1} \psi, \quad \text{Define } \nu \text{ so that } \frac{2E}{\hbar \omega} = 2\nu + 1$$

and plug $\psi = H(\xi) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2}$:

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{H'' - 2\xi H' + 2\nu H = 0}$$

Solve with Frobenius: $H(\xi) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j \xi^j$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_j \left[j(j-1)a_j \xi^{j-2} - 2j a_j \xi^j + 2\nu a_j \xi^j \right] = 0 \Rightarrow (j+2)(j+1)a_{j+2} - 2j a_j + 2\nu a_j = 0$$

or
$$a_{j+2} = \frac{2(j-\nu)}{(j+2)(j+1)} a_j$$

Now,
$$\frac{a_{j+2}}{a_j} = \frac{2(j-\nu)}{(j+2)(j+1)} \rightarrow \frac{2}{j} \text{ when } j \rightarrow \infty$$

This shows that
$$H(\xi) \approx e^{+\xi^2} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} \xi^{2j}$$

Because
$$a_{2j} = \frac{1}{j!} \Rightarrow \frac{a_{2j+2}}{a_{2j}} = \frac{j!}{(j+1)!} = \frac{1}{j+1}$$

Thus, if the series does not

or
$$\frac{a_{j+2}}{a_j} = \frac{1}{\frac{j}{2}+1} \rightarrow \frac{2}{j} \text{ when } j \rightarrow \infty$$

terminate at finite power the wave function

$$\Psi(\xi) = H(\xi) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \approx e^{\frac{1}{2}\xi^2} \rightarrow \infty \text{ when } \xi \rightarrow \infty$$

will not be normalizable.

The only way the series can terminate is for $\nu = \text{integer} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, with $a_1 = 0$ if ν is even and $a_0 = 0$ if ν is odd.

The $H(\xi) = H_\nu(\xi)$ are the Hermite polynomials:

$$H T_\nu(x) = E_\nu T_\nu(x)$$

$$E_\nu = \hbar\omega \left(\nu + \frac{1}{2}\right), \quad \nu = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$T_\nu(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} x_0 2^{\nu/2} \nu!} H_\nu\left(\frac{x}{x_0}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x}{x_0}\right)^2}$$

$$H_0(\xi) = 1$$

$$H_1(\xi) = 2\xi$$

$$H_2(\xi) = 4\xi^2 - 2$$

$$H_3(\xi) = 8\xi^3 - 12\xi$$

$$H_4(\xi) = 16\xi^4 - 48\xi^2 + 12, \dots$$

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Note: What we are showing here is that while there exists eigenstates with non-integer or negative ν , these behave like

$$\Psi_\nu(x) \sim e^{+\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x}{x_0}\right)^2} \text{ when } |x| \gg x_0.$$

These states are unphysical because

they blow up in the forbidden classical region, where $E < V(x)$.

Therefore, they can not be propagating or bound quantum states. Only $\nu = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

leads to physical quantum states. All of them are bound states since $\Psi_\nu(x) \rightarrow 0$ when

$$x \rightarrow \infty \quad (x \gg x_0).$$