

Lecture #12

I. Orthogonality

II. Commutation

III. Eigenvalue Spectrum

IV. Linear Combinations of Degenerate Eigenfunctions = Eigenfunctions

I. Orthogonality

ψ_n and ψ_m are eigenfunctions of hermitian operators then these are *orthogonal*:

$\int \psi_n^* \psi_m d\tau = 0$. Eigenvalues of hermitian operators are real.

Remember to use two different indicies n and m when evaluating orthogonality.

show that $\{\psi_n(x) = \exp(-i\theta)$ for $0 < \theta < 2\pi\}$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \psi_m^* \psi_n dq = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-imq} e^{inq} dq = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-imq} e^{inq} dq = \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(n-m)q} dq$$

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos(n-m) + i \sin(n-m) dq = \sin(n-m) \Big|_0^{2\pi} - i \cos(n-m) \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 0$$

A set of eigenfunctions both normalized and orthogonal constitute orthonormal basis set

$$\int \psi_k^* \psi_n dt = \delta_{nk} \text{ kronecker delta} = 1 \text{ or } 0 : \text{ orthonormality}$$

II. Commutation

Two operators **A, B** are said to commute if the $\mathbf{AB}f(x) = \mathbf{BA}f(x)$ which is equivalent to $\mathbf{AB}f(x) - \mathbf{BA}f(x) = 0 \rightarrow \{\mathbf{AB} - \mathbf{BA}\}f(x) = 0$. $\{\mathbf{AB} - \mathbf{BA}\} = \mathbf{0}$ where $\mathbf{0}$ is the multiply by zero operator. is commutator, written as $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}]$.

Thus if A, B, commute $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}] = \mathbf{0}$

$[\mathbf{p}_x, \mathbf{x}] =$

$$[\mathbf{p}_x, \mathbf{x}] \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{p}_x \mathbf{x} \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \mathbf{p}_x \mathbf{y} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \{ \mathbf{x} \mathbf{y} \} - \mathbf{x} \left\{ -i\hbar \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial x} \right\} = -i\hbar \left\{ \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial x} \right\} + i\hbar \mathbf{x} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial x}$$

$$= -i\hbar \mathbf{y} - i\hbar \mathbf{x} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial x} + i\hbar \mathbf{x} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial x} = -i\hbar \mathbf{y} = -i\hbar \mathbf{I} \mathbf{y} \quad [\mathbf{p}_x, \mathbf{x}] = -i\hbar \mathbf{I} \text{ to show operators on both sides.}$$

Where **I** is the identity operator. Thus \mathbf{p}_x and \mathbf{x} don't commute.

For 2 noncommuting operators **A, B**: $\Delta \mathbf{A} \Delta \mathbf{B} \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \mathbf{C} \rangle|$ where $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}] = i\mathbf{C}$, If 2 operators do not commute we can't simultaneously know precise values for corresponding observables thus for \mathbf{p}_x & \mathbf{x} : $\Delta \mathbf{p}_x \Delta \mathbf{x} \geq \hbar/4\pi$, The Heisenberg uncertainty principle.

III. Eigenvalue Spectrum – The distribution of eigenvalues for an operator. If an operator **O** operates on **Y** it will return λY , even though **Y** may not be an eigenfunction of **O**.

$$\mathbf{O}Y = oY \quad o \text{ could be } o_1, o_2, o_3, o_4, \dots$$

$$\text{Spectrum} = \{o\} = \{o_1, o_2, o_3, o_4, \dots\}$$

If Y is **not** an eigenfunction of \mathbf{O} , the o values are still eigenvalues, we just do not know which eigenvalues, i.e. a distribution. This means if you carried out the corresponding experiment for the \mathbf{O} operating on Y you may get one eigenvalue for o , but if you repeat it you obtain yet another value for o . Thus you obtain a distribution of the o eigenvalue spectrum, thus a certain probability of obtaining a particular value. If Y_n is an eigenstate of \mathbf{O} , you will always obtain the same (precise) eigenvalue of o .

$$\mathbf{O}Y_n = o_n Y_n$$

Eigenvalues may be discrete or continuous. Imposition of boundary conditions on eigenfunctions leads to quantization of the eigenvalues (observables). Thus for the Schrodinger equation, imposing boundary condition on ψ leads to quantization of observable E .

IV. Linear combinations of degenerate eigenfunctions are also eigenfunctions

$\mathbf{H}\psi_n = E_n\psi_n$ has eigenfunctions $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots$

For each eigenvalue (energy level) E_n , if there is only one eigenfunction (energy state, or state vector) \rightarrow nondegenerate. If we have several eigenfunctions for a particular eigenvalue, these are said to be degenerate. This means:

$\mathbf{H}\psi_1 = E\psi_1$, $\mathbf{H}\psi_2 = E\psi_2$, $\mathbf{H}\psi_3 = E\psi_3$, and if $\phi_1 = c_{11}\psi_1 + c_{12}\psi_2 + c_{13}\psi_3$ then ϕ_1 is an eigenfunction of \mathbf{H} .

[Prove this](#)-- simply operate on both sides of def with \mathbf{H} and note that it is linear.

So other linear combinations such $\phi_2 = c_{21}\psi_1 + c_{22}\psi_2 + c_{23}\psi_3$, $\phi_3 = c_{31}\psi_1 + c_{32}\psi_2 + c_{33}\psi_3$ are eigenfunctions. Thus the system may be described by the set of eigenfunctions $\{\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3\}$ or $\{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3\}$ if that they are linearly independent (linearly independent functions are such that no relation $a_1\phi_1 + a_2\phi_2 + a_3\phi_3 = 0$, no function can be expressed as a l.c. of the others). This is an example of the principle of superposition - If a state is equally well described by either of several functions (degenerate functions ψ_1, ψ_2, ψ_3) then it is equally well described by the linear combination of these functions (ϕ_1).