

Why are the energy eigenfunctions so important?

- 1) All (stationary) states can be written as a linear combination of them:

$$\Psi(x, t=0) = \Psi(x) = \sum_n a_n \phi_n(x)$$

↑ for some set of $\{a_n\}$.

- 2) When we write $\Psi(x, t=0)$ this way, it's trivial to solve the TDSE! The solution is

$$\Psi(x, t) = \sum_n a_n \phi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t}$$

This tells us how Ψ evolves for all times, as long as no measurements are made! ("No collapse of the wavefunction")

- 3) If Ψ involves only one energy eigenfunction, then the expectation values of all observables are constant in time \Rightarrow they never change:

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{constant in time}$$

when $\Psi(x) = \phi_n(x)$, an energy e.f.

(Proof in the homework.)

Three Additional Comments

1) The spatial probability $|\Psi(x, t)|^2$ does not change in time

When $\Psi(x) = \phi_n(x)$ $P(x) = |\Psi(x, t)|^2 = \phi_n^*(x) e^{iE_n t} \phi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t} = |\phi_n(x)|^2$

② Stationary states are the QM analog of systems at rest. $\Psi(x,t)$ still depends on time via $e^{-i\omega t}$, but everything else is constant. The phase factor $e^{-i\omega t}$ is also unobservable in this state. (It cancels in $P(x) = \Psi^* \Psi$).

③ Question
Since we can always write

$$\Psi(x,t = \phi) = \psi(x) = \sum_n a_n \psi_n(x)$$

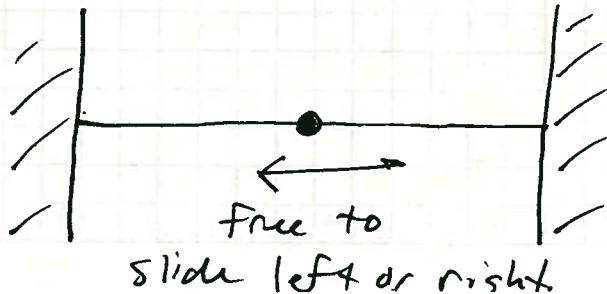
and all $\psi_n(x)$ are stationary, aren't all QM states stationary??

⇒ Answer: No! (otherwise nothing in physics could ever change in time!)

Only states which are represented by one and only one $\psi_n(x)$ are stationary.

4) The phase factor becomes very important in non-stationary states, because it causes interference.
Particle in a Box - The simplest bound states

in QM. Particle on a wire (in 1-D), trapped between two walls:



This is a reasonable physical model for ~~absorption~~ a gas molecule in a ^{1D} container or a conduction electron in

Suppose $\psi(x) = e^{i\alpha x} \psi_1(x) + e^{i\beta x} \psi_2(x)$
 Then $|\psi(x)|^2 = |\psi_1(x)|^2 + |\psi_2(x)|^2 + 2 \cos(\alpha - \beta)x \psi_1(x) \psi_2(x)$

The potential is $V(x) = \begin{cases} \phi, & 0 < x < L \\ +\infty, & x < 0, x > L \end{cases}$



We solve this problem by finding the stationary states.

The Hamiltonian is $\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$

For $0 < x < L$, $\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$. In this region,

the TISE reads

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

$$\psi''(x) + \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi(x) = 0.$$

~~So~~ General Solution is

$$\psi(x) = A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx}, \quad k = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$$

However, the potential $V(x)$ imposes extra boundary conditions. Ordinarily, we have two boundary

conditions on $\psi(x)$:

- 1) $\psi(x)$ is continuous
- 2) $\frac{d\psi(x)}{dx}$ is continuous, except where $V(x) \rightarrow \infty$.

For the particle in a box, only ① applies.
 So what is $\psi(x)$ outside of $0 < x < L$?
 If $V(x)$ were finite there, the $\psi(x)$ could be non-zero \Rightarrow this is called QM tunneling.
 But for the particle in a box, $\psi(x)$ must be zero outside the box, so there is no chance to find the particle outside $0 < x < L$.

So we require

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \psi(0) = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \psi(L) = 0.$$

\therefore From ①, $A + B = 0$

From ②, $Ae^{ikL} + Be^{-ikL} = 0$

but $B = -A$, so

$$A(e^{ikL} - e^{-ikL}) = 0$$

$$2A \sin kL = 0$$

$$\boxed{\sin kL = 0} \quad \text{From boundary condition.}$$

This is satisfied when

$$kL = n\pi, \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3$$

$$k_n = \frac{n\pi}{L} \Rightarrow \left[E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2} \right] \leftarrow \text{Energy eigenvalues.}$$

The e.f. are $\psi_n(x) = A(e^{ik_n x} - e^{-ik_n x})$

$$= 2A \sin k_n x = \underbrace{2A}_{\text{redefine constant } A} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

energy $E \rightarrow \psi(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$

However, the solutions ~~are~~ with $n = 0$ or $n < 0$ are phony:

$$\psi(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{0}{L}\pi x\right) = 0 \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{particle} \\ \text{is nowhere??!} \end{array}$$

$$\psi(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{-n}{L}\pi x\right) = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

(-n) solutions aren't unique.

So the solution is

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_n(x) &= A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \\ E_n &= \frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2} \quad n=1,2,3,\dots \end{aligned}$$

But what is A? Apply normalization condition:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^*(x) \psi(x) dx = 1$$

$$\therefore |A|^2 = \frac{2}{L}, \quad A = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}$$

If $F(x)$ is periodic with period $2L$, then $f(x)$ can be written as

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[A_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) + B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \right]$$

This can also be written as

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n e^{in\pi x/L}$$

We say the functions $\{e^{in\pi x/L}\}$ form a complete set because any periodic function can be written as a linear combination of them

To find the coefficients $\{a_m\}$ for a particular $F(x)$,

we evaluate

one integral $\rightarrow a_m = \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L F(x) e^{im\pi x/L} dx$

for each

coeff.

We proved this taking advantage of the ortho-normality condition for $\{e^{in\pi x/L}\}$:

$$\frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L (e^{in\pi x/L}) (e^{-im\pi x/L}) dx = \delta_{nm} = \begin{cases} 1, & n=m \\ 0, & n \neq m. \end{cases}$$

All of this is a discrete Fourier Series, which is great for periodic functions. We can also represent non-periodic functions, using a continuous limit.

Re-write it this way:

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n e^{i n \pi x / L} \underset{\substack{\Delta n \\ \downarrow \\ 1}}{\Delta n} = \frac{L}{\pi} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n e^{i n \pi x / L} \left(\frac{\pi \Delta n}{L} \right)$$

Define $k \equiv \frac{n\pi}{L}$, $\Delta k = \frac{\pi \Delta n}{L}$ and $\frac{A(k)}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \equiv \frac{L}{\pi} a_n$.

Then

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} A(k) e^{ikx} \Delta k.$$

Now let $L \rightarrow \infty$, so the period becomes infinite.

Then $\Delta k \rightarrow dk$, k becomes continuous:

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk A(k) e^{ikx}$$

Fourier Series for a non-periodic function.
(integral over k .)

$A(k)$ is the "Fourier Transform" of $F(x)$

$$A(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx F(x) e^{-ikx}$$

"Prove via Fourier's Trick"
(integral over x)

We put $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ into the definition of $A(k)$ so that

the expressions for $F(x)$ and $A(k)$ would have the same constant in front.

$A(k)$ is the analog of $\{a_n\}$ for a continuous Fourier ~~series~~ Transform. If we insert the Fourier expression for ~~$A(k)$~~ into the expression for ~~$A(k)$~~ $F(x)$ we get

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk e^{ikx} \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' F(x') e^{-ikx'} \right]$$

use x' on RHS,

interchange the order of integration:

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' F(x') \left[\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk e^{ik(x-x')} \right]$$

$\delta(x-x')$

This looks like the definition of the Dirac Delta function:

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' F(x') \delta(x-x')$$

if

$$\delta(x-x') = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk e^{ik(x-x')}$$

This is one way to write the Dirac Delta function.

If we re-write it as

$$\delta(x-x') = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \left(e^{ikx} \right) \left(e^{-ikx'} \right)$$

It looks like the continuous analog of the Kronecker Delta:

• ortho-normal condition for the discrete Fourier series.



$$\frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^L (e^{im\pi x/L}) (e^{-in\pi x/L}) dx = \delta_{mn} \quad \text{for discrete Fourier Series,}$$

↑ Kronecker Delta

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk (e^{ikx}) (e^{-ikx'}) = \delta(x-x') \quad \text{for continuous Fourier Transform}$$

↑ Dirac Delta Function

Similarly, the ^{discrete} functions $\{e^{im\pi x/L}\}$ are complete

for periodic $f(x)$, and the continuous functions $\{e^{ikx}\}$ are complete for ^{certain} $f(x)$, those ^{for} which

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx \text{ is finite.}$$

This is extremely useful in QM, because $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(x)|^2 dx$ must be equal to 1 if the Born interpretation of $\psi(x)$ holds.



We solved the QM Particle in a Box.

Solution:
$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

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

Any initial state wave function can be written as a linear combination of the $\{\psi_n\}$:

$$\Psi(x, t=0) = \psi(x) = \sum_n a_n \psi_n$$

How do we know we can always do this? Because

Fourier theory guarantees that the functions representing $\left\{\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)\right\}$ are complete for odd, periodic functions.

In fact they are ortho-normal: $\int_0^L \psi_m(x) \psi_n(x) dx = \delta_{mn}$

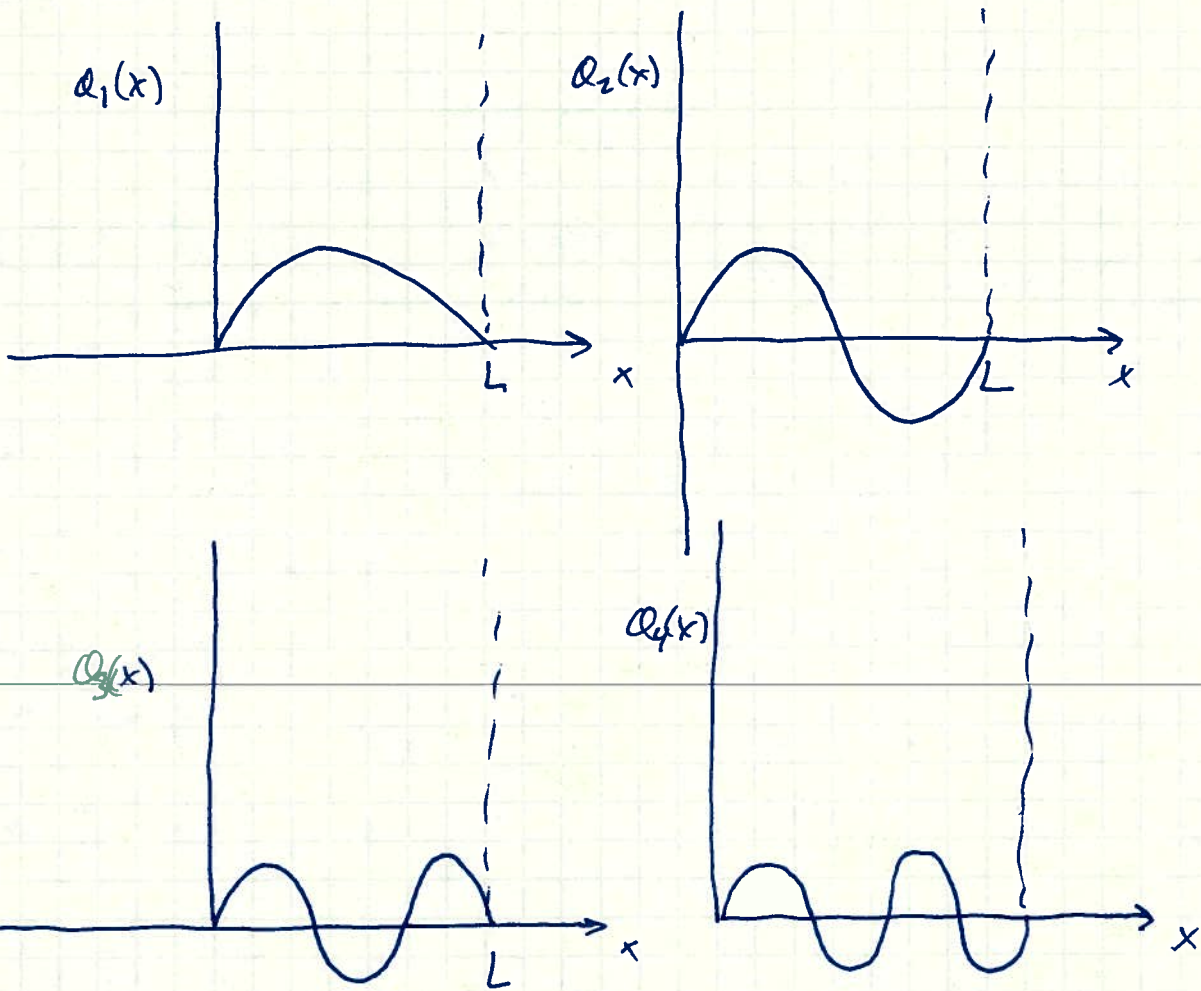
Note: $\psi(x)$ does not need to be periodic to infinity... in fact, $\psi(x)$ is zero outside the box. We simply use the Fourier expression inside the box, and set $\psi(x) = 0$ outside:

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \sum_n a_n \psi_n, & 0 < x < L \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Why did the particle in a box yield sine functions as the stationary states?

Answer: because of the boundary conditions we imposed.

We decided that $\psi(x)$ must go to zero at both ends of the box. This fixed the possible energy eigenfunctions as "standing waves"



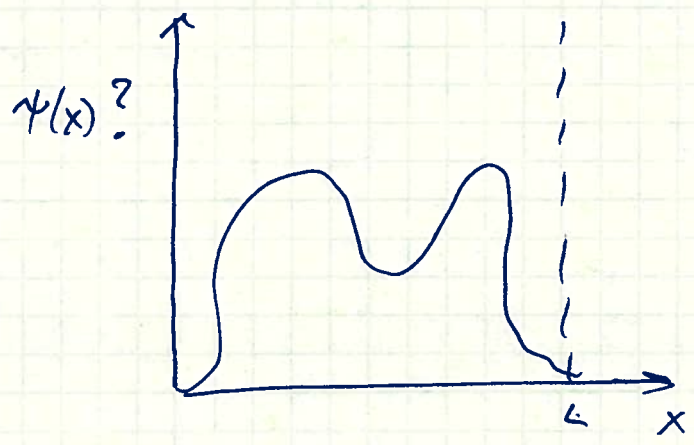
State (a) has (b) half sine waves.

High (n) has a large number of wiggles.

This corresponds to high energy, because

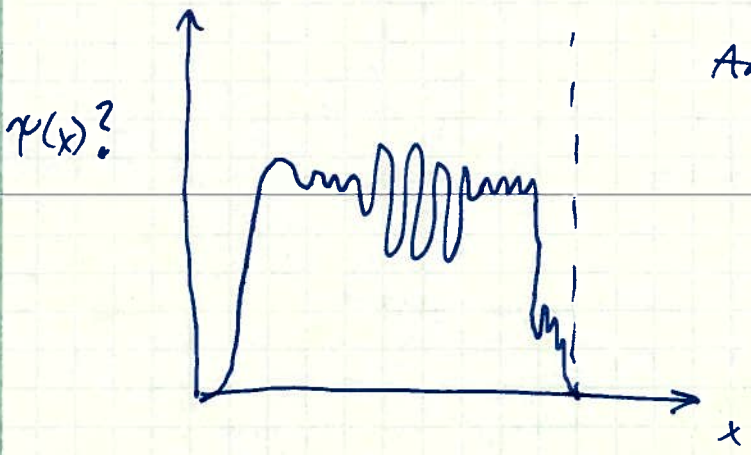
~~$\hat{H} \sim \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$~~ $\hat{H} \sim \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$ ← When the 2nd derivative is larger, the KE is high.

Question: Is this function an allowed initial state wavefunction?



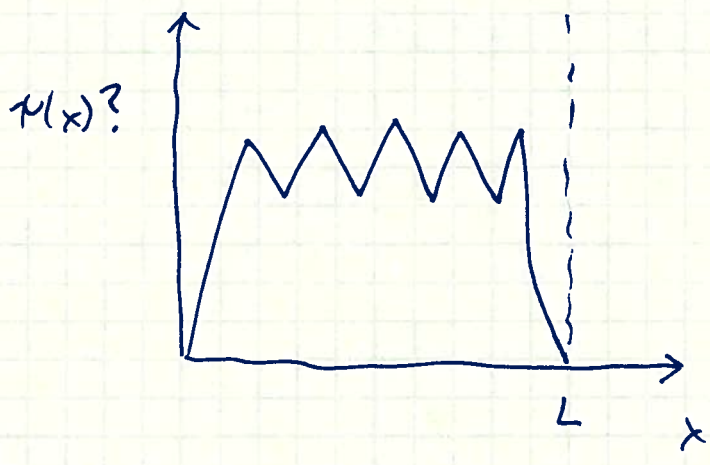
Answer: Yes! Fourier says just find the right set of $\{a_n\}$.

How about this one?



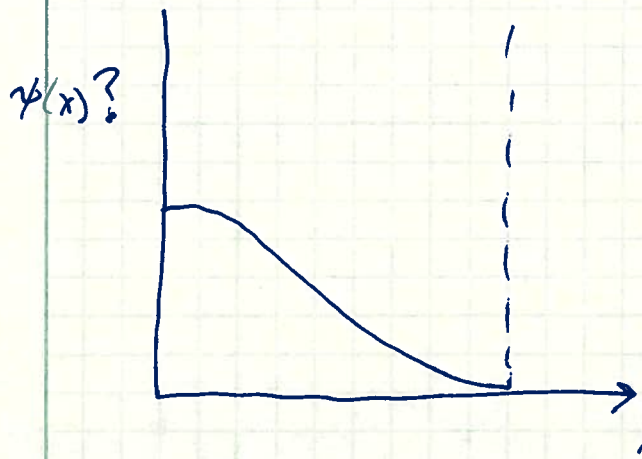
Answer: Yes!

This one?



Answer: Yes!

This one?



Answer: No! It violates the boundary condition $\psi(0) = 0$ and a series made of sine functions cannot represent it (because $\sin(0) = 0$ for each term).

To find the particular coefficients $\{a_n\}$ for a particular $\psi(x)$, we use "Fourier's Trick", as always:

$$\int \psi_m^*(x) \psi(x) dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \int \psi_m^*(x) \psi_n(x) dx$$

← c.c. conj. for practice!

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \delta_{nm} \text{ by ortho-normality}$$

= a_m since $\delta_{nm} = 0$ for $n \neq m$.

$$\therefore a_m = \int \psi_m^*(x) \psi(x) dx$$

Physical Interpretation of $\{a_n\}$

The expansion coefficient $\{a_n\}$ have a very simple, very important physical interpretation.

They represent the "amplitude" to ~~the~~ measure ~~the probability~~ a particular energy eigenvalue, where by "amplitude" we mean a complex number whose square is the probability of the measurement.

Mathematically, $|a_n|^2 = P(E_n)$

amplitude squared = Probability to measure energy eigenvalue E_n

We can infer this by calculating $\langle E \rangle$ for an arbitrary particle-in-a-box wavefunction:

$$\langle E \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{H} \psi dx = \int \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^* \phi_n^* \right) \hat{H} \left(\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} a_m \phi_m \right) dx$$

$$= \sum_n \sum_m a_n^* a_m \int \phi_n^* \hat{H} \phi_m dx$$

$E_m \phi_m$

$$= \sum_n \sum_m a_n^* a_m E_m \int \phi_n^* \phi_m dx$$

Sum by ortho-normality

$$= \sum_n \sum_m E_m \delta_{nm} (a_n^* a_m)$$

$$= \sum_n E_n a_n^* a_n$$

$$= \sum_n E_n |a_n|^2$$

But we know from the ^{statistical} definition of expectation values that for any observable,

$$\langle A \rangle = \sum_i A_i P(A_i)$$

Therefore we must have that $|a_n|^2 = P(E_n)$

This also implies that $\sum_n |a_n|^2 = 1$ \leftarrow Probability to measure E_n

$\{a_n\}$ should satisfy this ...

The $\{a_n\}$ are similar to $\psi(x)$ in the sense that they are both complex amplitudes.

- $|\psi(x)|^2 \rightarrow$ probability to observe particle with position x .
- $|a_n|^2 \rightarrow$ probability to observe particle with energy E_n .

In Schrodinger Wave Mechanics, we usually think of $\psi(x)$ as the fundamental physical quantity predicted by QM, and all other quantities as derived.

More generally, however, $\psi(x)$ is one type of amplitude which can be calculated using QM.

a_n is another type of amplitude, which can be calculated.

~~Also~~

Next month we will re-cast ^{QM} ~~our notation~~ in terms of Dirac notation, which treats all of these amplitudes equally.

Free Particle - simplest Unbound State.

The ~~time independent~~ Energy eigenvalue equation reads

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} = E \psi(x) \quad \text{Time-Independent}$$

$\psi(x)$ is an eigenfunction of \hat{H} .

General Solution: $\psi(x) = A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx}$, where $k \equiv \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$,
 so that $E = (\hbar k)^2 / 2m$

We got the same general solution for particle-in-the-box, but in that case the allowed values of k were restricted by the boundary condition. We found ^{that energy eigenfunctions} discrete k : $k = n\pi/L$.

For free particle, k is unrestricted, and all values are allowed.

The G.S. is a sum of two momentum e.f.: e^{ikx} .
 One term represents $(+)$ ~~prop~~ p , one term represents $(-)$ p . Since $E = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{(\hbar k)^2}{2m}$, both $(+)$ p and $(-)$ are e.f. of \hat{H} . We can write

$$\psi(x) = A e^{ikx}, \quad \text{keeping in mind that } k \text{ could be } (+) \text{ or } (-). \quad (\text{We will return to this question later.})$$

The strange thing is that this $\psi(x)$ cannot be normalized:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^* \psi dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |A|^2 dx \rightarrow \infty.$$

This reflects the fact that in the real world we never have a perfect plane wave which extends to infinity in all directions.

We can deal with the normalization in two ways:

1) Re-interpret $\psi(x)$ as being proportional to particle beam intensity: number of particles / second for example. Then relative beam intensities can be calculated. \Rightarrow Scattering Theory.

2) Create a normalizable single particle wave function by adding together a range of e^{ikx} :

$$\Psi(x, t=0) = \psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) e^{ikx} dk$$

For some $\phi(k)$. This is the Fourier Transform of $\psi(x)$, and ~~from~~ ^{from} Fourier theory we know that we can invert the expression:

$$\phi(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(x) e^{-ikx} dx$$

Fourier Theory also tells us that:

1) Any reasonably localized $\psi(x)$ can be written in this way $\Rightarrow \{e^{ikx}\}$ are complete

2) $\{e^{ikx}\}$ are also ~~orthogonal~~ ^{orthogonal} orthonormal:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \begin{pmatrix} e^{ikx} \\ e^{-ik'x} \end{pmatrix} dk = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i(k-k')x} dx = \delta(k-k')$$

↑
Dirac Delta Function



For the particle-in-a-box, we found that the expansion coefficients $\{a_n\}$ represented the amplitudes to measure a particular energy eigenvalue.

For a free particle, we have a continuum of energy eigenfunctions with a continuum of energy eigenvalues $(\frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m})$. The expansion coefficients $\phi(k)$ is also continuous, and $|\phi(k)|^2 dk$ can be interpreted as the probability to measure momentum between k and $k+dk$.

Comparison of Particle-in-Box & Free Particle.

	Particle in Box bound-state	Free Particle unbound-state
Energy e.f.	$\psi_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$	$\psi = A e^{ikx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx}$
Energy e.v.	$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2m L^2}$	$E_k = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$
	Discrete e.v. & e.f.	Continuous e.v. & e.f.
Completeness Statement	$\Psi(x,t=\beta) = \sum_n a_n \psi_n$	$\Psi(x,t=\beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) e^{-ikx} dk$
Ortho-normality	$\int_0^L \psi_m^* \psi_n dx = \delta_{mn}$	$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i(k-k')x} dx = \delta(k-k')$
Interpretation	$a_n =$ amplitude to measure $E = E_n$	$\phi(k) =$ amplitude to measure $p = \hbar k$

To get the fully time dependent wave function, we simply tack-on the appropriate phase factor as before:

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) e^{+ikx} e^{-iEt/\hbar} dk$$

or substituting $E = \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m$, for a free particle.

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) e^{i(kx - \hbar k^2 t / 2m)} dk.$$

\Rightarrow Given the initial state $\Psi(x, t \rightarrow 0) = \psi(x)$, we can find $\phi(k)$. Because $\phi(k)$ can be interpreted as a probability amplitude to observe momentum = $\hbar k$, we call it "the wave function in momentum space".

In fact, by substituting the above $\Psi(x,t)$ into the time dependent Schrodinger Eq, we can prove that $\phi(k)$ satisfies its own wave equation

$$\text{Define } \Phi(k,t) = \phi(k) e^{-i\hbar k^2 t / 2m}$$

Then the TDSE for $\Phi(k,t)$ is

$$\boxed{i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(k,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Phi(k,t)}$$

"The Schrodinger Eq. in momentum space"
for a free particle

In fact, we can re-write all of QM in p-space :

	<u>x-space</u>	<u>p-space</u>
wavefunction	$\Psi(x,t), \psi(x)$	$\Phi(k,t), \phi(k)$
\hat{x}	x	$-i\hbar \frac{d}{dp}$
\hat{p}	$-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}$	p
Equation of Motion	$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x) \right] \Psi$	$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{p^2}{2m} + V\left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dp}\right) \right] \Phi$

Often we choose to work in x-space rather than p-space, although in some cases p-space makes this simpler (like the free particle).

~~It~~ In most cases our preference for x-space follows from our experience with Classical Mechanics. Sometimes it's easier to guess the correct Hamiltonian in x-space.