

Dimension and basis of vector space

Operator

Any mathematical operation like addition, multiplication, division, differentiation etc. can be represented by certain symbols known as operators. In other words operator  $\hat{O}$  is a mathematical operation which operates on a function  $f(x)$  and changes the function to another function  $g(x)$ . This can be represented by as

$$\hat{O} f(x) = g(x) \text{ --- (1)}$$

For example multiplication by  $x$  may be considered as an operator as

$$x(2x+3) = 2x^2+3x$$

In operator language when an operator  $\hat{O} = x$  operates on a function  $f(x) = 2x+3$ , it changes the function  $f(x)$  to another function  $g(x) = 2x^2+3x$ . Similarly  $\frac{d}{dx}$  may be considered as an operator. Say  $f(x) = 4x^3+2x$  then the operator  $\hat{O} = \frac{d}{dx}$  operates on the  $f(x) = 4x^3+2x$  gives another function  $\hat{O} f(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(4x^3+2x) = 12x^2+2 = g(x)$

In quantum mechanics we know that there are some observable quantities such as energy, momentum, position which are denoted by operators. For example the observation of momentum which is denoted by momentum operator  $\hat{p}$ , the observation of position which is denoted by position operator  $\hat{x}$  etc.

(2)  
 To each type of observation (e.g. observation of energy, momentum or position) there exists a set of numbers — which are nothing but the possible results of the observations. We already know from the energy levels of hydrogen atom  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Electron energy} = \frac{-13.6}{n^2} \text{ eV,} \\ \text{where } n \text{ is the principal quantum no.} \end{array} \right.$  when electron jumps from one orbit to another orbit then either photon is emitted or absorbed with energy

$$E = h\nu = E_2 - E_1 = \frac{z^2 m e^4}{8 h^2 \epsilon_0^2} \left[ \frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right] = -13.6 z^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right] \text{ eV}$$

which can be expressed as

$$E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{z^2 m e^4}{8 h^2 \epsilon_0^2} \left[ \frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{z^2 m e^4}{8 h^3 c \epsilon_0^2} \left[ \frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right] = R_H z^2 \left[ \frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

where  $R_H = \frac{m e^4}{8 h^3 c \epsilon_0^2}$  is called the Rydberg constant

### Commutators of two operators

We define the commutator of two operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  as  $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$ .

In general  $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \neq 0$  i.e. the commutator of two operators is not zero.

Let us show this by taking a simple example.  
 Let  $\hat{A} = x$ ,  $\hat{B} = \frac{d}{dx}$ . Then for any function  $\psi(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} [A, B] \psi(x) &= \left[ x, \frac{d}{dx} \right] \psi(x) = \left[ x \frac{d}{dx} - \frac{d}{dx} (x) \right] \psi(x) \\ &= x \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x) - \psi(x) - x \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x) = -\psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore [A, B] = \left[ x, \frac{d}{dx} \right] = -1 \neq 0$$

An eq<sup>n</sup> which determines the commutator of two operators is called a commutation relation.

Similarly suppose  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  operator represent observation of particular observables say position and momentum.

Suppose the position observable is denoted by the operator  $\hat{A} = \hat{x} = x$  and the momentum observable is denoted by the operator  $\hat{B} = \hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

Then the commutation relation of  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}_x$  is

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = [x, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}]$$

$$\therefore [x, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}] \psi(x)$$

$$= \left( x(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) + i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) \right) \psi(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow = -i\hbar x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} + i\hbar \frac{\partial x}{\partial x} \psi(x) + i\hbar x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

$$\Rightarrow = i\hbar \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore [x, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}] \psi(x) = i\hbar \psi(x)$$

$$\boxed{\therefore [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar \neq 0}$$

## Eigenvalues and Eigenfunctions

(4)

Let  $\psi(x)$  be a well-behaved func<sup>n</sup> of the state of a system and let this be operated on by the operator  $\hat{A}$  such that it satisfies the eq<sup>n</sup>.

$$\hat{A}\psi(x) = \lambda\psi(x) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Then we say that the no.  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of the operator  $\hat{A}$  and the function  $\psi(x)$  is an eigenfunction of  $\hat{A}$ . Eq<sup>n</sup> (1) is termed as the eigenvalue eq<sup>n</sup> for the operator  $\hat{A}$ .

Suppose the operand  $\psi(x) = \sin 4x$  and the operator

$$\hat{A} = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$$

$$\therefore \hat{A}\psi(x) = -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \sin 4x = -4 \frac{d}{dx} (\cos 4x) = +16 \sin 4x$$

$$\therefore -\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \sin 4x = 16 \sin 4x$$

So we can say that 16 is an eigenvalue of the operator  $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$  and  $\sin 4x$  is the eigenfunction of the operator  $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2}$ .

The eigenfunc<sup>n</sup> of momentum operator  $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

The eigenfunc<sup>n</sup> of the momentum operator  $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  are found by solving the eq<sup>n</sup>.

$$\hat{p}_x \psi(x) = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x) = p \psi(x)$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x) = +\frac{i p}{\hbar} \psi(x)$$

$$a, \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \Psi(x) - \frac{i}{\hbar} p \Psi(x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

The solution of this eq<sup>n</sup> (2) is

$$\Psi(x) = c e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p x} \quad \text{where } c = \text{normalization const.}$$

↓  
 This is a plane wave which represents a state of definite momentum  $p$  ( $p$  is the eigenvalue) and  $e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p x}$  are the eigenfunctions. The eigenfunctions represent plane wave states of a free particle of momentum  $p$ . The normalized wave functions are

$$\Psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p x}$$

# Calculation of commutators

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## Example

1. Show that  $[\hat{H}, \hat{p}] = 0$  where  $\hat{H}$  = Hamiltonian of the system  
 = Total energy =  $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$

$$= \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x)$$

for free particle  $V(x) \therefore \hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

and  $\hat{p}$  is the momentum operator =  $-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}$

Ans. In quantum mechanics the operator which commutes with Hamiltonian is known as constant of motion. In case of free particle since  $p.E = V = 0$  so the Hamiltonian operator  $\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore [\hat{H}, \hat{p}] \psi(x) &= \hat{H} \hat{p} \psi(x) - \hat{p} \hat{H} \psi(x) \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left[ -i\hbar \frac{d\psi(x)}{dx} \right] - \left( -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right) \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} \right) \\ &= i \frac{\hbar^3}{2m} \frac{d^3 \psi(x)}{dx^3} - \frac{i\hbar^3}{2m} \frac{d^3 \psi(x)}{dx^3} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore [\hat{H}, \hat{p}] = 0$  i.e.  $\hat{H}$  commutes with  $\hat{p}$ . So momentum is a constant of motion is conserved.

2. Show that  $u(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2}$  is an eigenfunction of the operator  $\hat{A}(x, \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 \right)$

Ans

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A} u(x) &= \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 \right) u(x) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 \right) e^{-\frac{1}{2}x^2} \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \left( -\frac{2x}{2} \right) \right) - x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$= -x \left( e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \right) \cdot \left( -\frac{2x}{2} \right) - e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} (+1) - x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \quad (E)$$

$$= x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} - x^2 e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} = -e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} = -u(x)$$

$$\hat{A} u(x) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 \right) u(x) = -u(x)$$

$\therefore u(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$  is an eigenfunction of the operator  $\hat{A} \left( x, \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)$  with eigenvalue  $= -1$  proved.

3. Establish the operator eq<sup>n</sup>.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial n} x^n = n x^{n-1} + x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \text{ and show that}$$

$$\left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial n}, x^n \right] = n x^{n-1}.$$

Ans. Here the operator is  $\hat{A} = \frac{\partial}{\partial n} x^n$   
 Consider any function  $\psi(x)$  on which the operator  $\hat{A}$  will operate.

$$\therefore \hat{A} \psi(x) = \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial n} x^n \right) \psi(x)$$

$$= n x^{n-1} \psi(x) + x^n \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial n}$$

$$\therefore \hat{A} \psi(x) = \left( n x^{n-1} + x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \right) \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial n} x^n \right) \psi(x) = \left( n x^{n-1} + x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \right) \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{\partial}{\partial n} x^n = n x^{n-1} + x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial n}} \text{ proved}$$

Now we have to show that  $[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^n] = nx^{n-1}$  (5)

We know the commutator of two operators is

$$[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^n] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^n - x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

$\therefore$  For any function  $\psi(x)$

$$[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^n] \psi(x) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^n - x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) \psi(x)$$

$$= nx^{n-1} \psi(x) + x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x) - x^n \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore [\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^n] \psi(x) = nx^{n-1} \psi(x)$$

$$\boxed{\therefore [\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, x^n] = nx^{n-1}} \text{ proved.}$$

4. Verify the operator eq.  $(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x)(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 - 1$

For any func<sup>n</sup>  $\psi(x)$  on which the operator  $(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x)(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x)$  operates and gives

$$(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x)(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x) \psi(x)$$

$$= (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x) (\frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x} - x \psi(x))$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} - \psi(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x} + x \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x} - x^2 \psi(x)$$

$$= \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} - \psi(x) - x^2 \psi(x)$$

$$= \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 - 1 \right) \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x)(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x) \psi(x) = \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 - 1 \right) \psi(x)$$

$$\therefore (\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + x)(\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - x^2 - 1 \text{ proved}$$



## Orthogonal and Orthonormal functions (9)

If the product of a function  $\psi_1(x)$  and the complex conjugate  $\psi_2^*(x)$  of other func<sup>n</sup>.  $\psi_2(x)$  vanishes when integrated w.r.t.  $x$  over the interval  $a \leq x \leq b$ , that is

$$\int_a^b \psi_2^*(x) \psi_1(x) dx = 0 \quad (1)$$

Then  $\psi_1(x)$  and  $\psi_2(x)$  are said to be mutually orthogonal or simply orthogonal in the interval  $(a, b)$ .

If

$$\int_a^b \psi_k^*(x) \psi_k(x) dx = 1 \quad (2)$$

Then the functions  $\psi_k$  are said to be normalized in the interval  $(a, b)$ . The functions which are orthogonal and also normalized are called orthonormal functions. The relations (1) and (2) expressing orthogonality and normalization can be combined into one eq<sup>n</sup> using Kronecker delta symbol  $\delta_{mn}$

$$\int_a^b \psi_m^*(x) \psi_n(x) dx = \delta_{mn} \quad (3)$$

Where  $\delta_{mn} = 1$  when  $m = n$  and  $\delta_{mn} = 0$  when  $m \neq n$ .

Eq<sup>n</sup> (3) then expresses the orthonormality of eigenfunc<sup>n</sup>s  $\psi_n(x)$ . In case of unnormalized func<sup>n</sup>s, they are expressed as  $c\psi$  where  $c$  is the normalization coefficient whose value can be obtained as

$$\int_a^b c^* \psi_k^* c \psi_k dx = 1$$
$$\therefore c^2 = \frac{1}{\int_a^b \psi_k^* \psi_k dx} \quad (4)$$

(10)

Now we will discuss the concept of operators, operating on the wave function (or eigenstate)  $\Psi(r, t)$ , and providing information about their eigenvalues. We will also study how to write down the equation of motion which governs space and time ~~of~~ development of the wavefunction  $\Psi(r, t)$ .

Measurement process as operator operating on the wave function of a particle having definite linear momentum

We know that a moving particle may be represented by a single infinitely extended propagating plane wave of well defined wave length  $\lambda$  (so  $\Delta\lambda = 0$  or  $\Delta p = 0$  because  $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$  gives  $\Delta p = \frac{h\Delta\lambda}{\lambda^2}$ ). In this case the particle is spread throughout the region which means if I ask the question 'where is the particle?' the answer is 'it can be anywhere'. That means the position of the particle is totally uncertain which implies  $\Delta x = \infty$ . But the ~~part~~ plane wave representing the particle has well defined single value of its wave length  $\lambda$  and hence well defined value of its wave vector  $k (= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda})$ . This means the uncertainty in its wave vector  $\Delta k = 0$  (ie  $\Delta p = h\Delta k = 0$ ) ie uncertainty in momentum is zero.

Again a particle may even be represented by a narrow wave packet [wave packet represents superposition of large no. of plane propagating waves having different wave lengths making  $\Delta\lambda$  (or  $\Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{\Delta p}$  ie  $\Delta p$ ) non zero and  $\Delta x$ , the width of wave packet zero]. In this case

In this case, the wave packet or the particle has a sharply defined position  $x$  in space i.e.  $\Delta x = 0$  but a definite maximum value of its wave vector  $k$  i.e.  $(k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda})$  i.e.  $\Delta k = 0$  (which implies  $\Delta p = 0$ ). In each case, the Heisenberg uncertainty principle ( $\Delta x \Delta k \gg 1$  or  $\Delta x \Delta p \gg \frac{h}{2\pi}$ ) is ~~being~~ being followed.

In fact Heisenberg uncertainty principle has been obtained through the measurement process. So we can conclude that any statement about the value of a physical quantity of the system (i.e. the particle or the corresponding wave) is equivalent to a measurement of the physical quantity of the system (i.e. the particle or the corresponding wave) with suitable experimental set up which gives that particular value.

For example, suppose we make a statement like this 'a particle is moving in +x direction with its linear momentum having value  $p$ '. This means if one measures its linear momentum, it will have sharply defined value  $p$  (or sharply defined value of  $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$  from de Broglie relation). Further this means we shall measure the linear momentum  $p$  or the wavelength using a double slit arrangement ( $\lambda = \frac{2d}{\theta}$ ) which gives precise value of  $\lambda$  (or  $p$ ) but gives no information about the position of the particle (i.e.  $\Delta x = \infty$ ). So in quantum mechanics making a statement about the value of the physical quantity of a system is equivalent to an experimental measurement process of that physical quantity on that system (particle or the corresponding wave).

Let us now consider a system the double slit experiment with the beam of mono-energetic electrons. We can measure the wavelength  $\lambda$  of the electron in the beam by measuring fringe width  $\beta$  of the interference pattern on the screen, the distance  $d$  between the two slits and the distance  $D$  between the slit and the screen. (12)

A plane propagating classical wave of wave vector  $k (= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda})$  and angular frequency  $\omega (= 2\pi\nu) = 2\pi \frac{c}{\lambda} = kc$  propagating in +ve  $x$  direction is presented by wave displacement  $y(x,t)$  as

$$y(x,t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

But for the moment, let us consider a plane propagating (electron/matter) wave represented by a complex function

$$\psi(x,t) = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Now let us see what the operator  $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  operating on the complex wave function  $\psi(x,t)$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x,t) &= -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} A e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \\ &= (-i\hbar)(ik) A e^{i(kx - \omega t)} = \hbar k A e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \\ &= \hbar k \psi(x,t) \quad \text{--- (3)} \end{aligned}$$

So the operator  $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  operating on  $\psi(x,t)$  gives

$\hbar k$  times  $\psi(x,t)$ .

Now we know that  $\hbar k = p$  (using de Broglie relation) the linear momentum of the particle (electron in the beam). So the operator operating on the wave function  $\psi(x,t)$  which is representing the moving electron gives the information about the linear momentum

$p (= \hbar k)$  of the electron. Thus we see that (13)  
 on one hand, doing interference exp. by double slit  
 with electron beam described by the wave func<sup>n</sup>.  
 $\psi(x,t) = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$  and finding the value of  $\lambda (= \frac{h}{p})$   
 or the value of the linear momentum of the electron  
 in the beam is equivalent to doing operator algebra  
 with the operator  $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  operating on the same wave  
 function  $\psi(x,t) = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$  and finding the value  
 of wave vector  $k$  or the linear momentum  $p (= \hbar k)$   
 So in a way quantum mechanics may be called  
as operator mechanics.

After studying the role of operation  $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  on the  
 wave func<sup>n</sup>.  $\psi(x,t)$ , let us see the role of one more  
 operation  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = \hat{H}$ . We find

$$E = \hbar \omega = \frac{\hbar 2\pi \nu}{2\pi \frac{1}{\omega}} = \hbar \omega$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi(x,t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$= (i\hbar)(-i\omega) A e^{i(kx - \omega t)} = \hbar \omega \psi(x,t) = E \psi(x,t)$$

A where  $E = \hbar \omega$  is the energy of the particle which  
 is represented by the plane propagating wave of angular  
 freq.  $\omega$ . Therefore the operator  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$  when operating  
 on  $\psi(x,t)$  gives the value of the energy of the particle.

Thus we have found that when we are dealing with free  
 particles (ie particles propagating with definite, well defined  
 linear momentum) may be written in terms of their  
 wave func<sup>n</sup>.  $\psi(x,t) = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$  and the operators  
 $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  and  $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$  operating on the wave func<sup>n</sup>.  $\psi(x,t)$   
 give the values of linear momentum and energy of  
 the particle respectively

This may be summarized in the table below

(9)

Table 1: A list of some physical quantities and corresponding operators

Sl. No.	Physical quantity	Corresponding operator
1.	x - component of linear momentum, $p_x$	$-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$
2.	y - " " " " " , $p_y$	$-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y}$
3.	z - " " " " " , $p_z$	$-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$
4.	linear momentum $p$	$-i\hbar \nabla$
5.	kinetic energy $T = \frac{p^2}{2m}$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$
6.	Energy of the particle $E$	$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$
7.	Potential energy $V(r, t)$	$V(r, t)$
8.	Total energy $\frac{p^2}{2m} + V(r, t)$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(r, t)$