QUANTUM MECHANICS Lecture 19

Enrico Iacopini

QUANTUM MECHANICS Lecture 19 Observables with a continuous spectrum

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November 13, 2019

D. J. Griffiths: paragraph 3.3

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In the previous lecture, we have concluded that the **determinate** states of an observable Q are described by the **eigenvectors** of the self-adjoint (hermitian) operator \hat{Q} , representing that particular observable.

We have also said that the opposite is not always true.

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We need, in fact, to distinguish two cases:

- the spectrum of Q is continuous, which means that the eigenvalues fill some real range.

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- In the case of *discrete spectrum*, the eigenvectors (eigenfunctions) can be normalized and they belong to the Hilbert space.
- According to the postulates of QM, each of them represents a physical state which is a determinate state for the observable that we are considering.

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Let us remark also that

- Since the operator representing the observable is self-adjoint, the eigenvalues are real (which is true also in case of continuous spectrum ...).
- The eigenvectors (eigenfunctions) corresponding to different eigenvalues are mutually orthogonal, in fact

 $<\psi_1|\hat{Q}\psi_2>=<\hat{Q}\psi_1|\psi_2>$

 $\Rightarrow q_2 < \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = q_1 < \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle \Rightarrow < \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = 0$

where the last implication comes from the fact that, by hypothesis, $q_1 \neq q_2$.

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 $\langle \psi_1 | \hat{Q} \psi_2 \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle$ $\Rightarrow q_2 \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = q_1 \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = 0$

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- This is why stationary states corresponding, for instance, to different energies are orthogonal: they are eigenfunctions corresponding to different eigenvalues.
- If an eigenvalue is degenerate, we cannot say anything about the scalar product of two independent eigenvectors corresponding to the same eigenvalue.
- However, there exists a well-defined procedure to find an orthonormal basis of the linear subspace made by the eigenvectors corresponding to the same eigenvalue (Gram-Schmidt procedure).

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- So, even in presence of degeneracy, the eigenvectors (eigenfunctions) of a hermitian operator with a discrete spectrum can always be choosen to be orthonormal.
- This happens, for instance, in case of finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces, where the spectrum of any operator can only be discrete.

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- This happens, for instance, in case of finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces, where the spectrum of any operator can only be discrete.

- This property for which, given a generic hermitian operator, we can always find an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space which is made by its eigenvectors, does not generalize to infinite-dimensional spaces.
- that every observable has this property.

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- This property for which, given a generic hermitian operator, we can always find an orthonormal basis of the Hilbert space which is made by its eigenvectors, does not generalize to infinite-dimensional spaces.
- However, following Dirac, we will assume that every observable has this property.
- The reason is physical. If we measure that particular observable \hat{Q} on any physical state, we will obtain a determinate state of \hat{Q} , which means that any state must be a linear combination of such states.

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- In other words, every hermitian operator representing a physical observable and having a discrete spectrum, has the eigenvectors that form a complete set and, therefore, any vector belonging to the Hilbert space can be expressed as a linear combination of them.
- Moreover, thanks to the Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization procedure, starting from the above complete set, we can always define an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.

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• This means that if \hat{Q} is an observable with a **discrete, non-degenerate spectrum**, then, in the Hilbert space of the physical states, we can define an orthonormal basis $\{\mathbf{e}(q_j)\}$ made by the eigenvectors of \hat{Q} corresponding to the eigenvalues q_j .

Therefore, a generic physical state described by the vector ${\bf v}$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum\limits_{j} c_{j} \, \mathbf{e}(q_{j})$$
 where $c_{j} \equiv < \mathbf{e}(q_{j}) | \mathbf{v} > 0$

If we measure the observable Q on the state \mathbf{v} , the only possible outcome is an eigenvalue of \hat{Q} and the probability to obtain a particular value q_k is $|c_k|^2 = |\langle \mathbf{e}(q_k) | \mathbf{v} \rangle |^2$.

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- But what happens if the spectrum of the observable \hat{Q} is discrete, but degenerate ?
- Also in this case, as we have already said, we can define an orthonormal basis made by eigenvectors (determinate states) of Q, but, now, the eigenvalues q_j are not enough to label these vectors, because of the degeneracy.

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Let us write this orthonormal basis as $\{\mathbf{e}(q_j, k)\}$, where the parameter k is introduced to distinguish the eigenvectors of \hat{Q} corresponding to the same eigenvalue. By definition we have

$$\hat{Q} \mathbf{e}(q_j, k) = q_j \mathbf{e}(q_j, k)$$

$$< \mathbf{e}(q_i, k_1) | \mathbf{e}(q_j), k_2 \rangle = 0 \quad if \quad q_i \neq q_j$$

$$< \mathbf{e}(q_i, k_1) | \mathbf{e}(q_i), k_2 \rangle = \delta_{k_1 k_2}$$

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The generic state described by the vector v can now be represented in this basis as

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{q_j,k} c(q_j,k) \mathbf{e}(q_j,k), with$$

$$c(q_j, k) = \langle \mathbf{e}(q_j, k) | \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

2 A measurement of \hat{Q} will result again only in an eigenvalue q_s of \hat{Q} , but, because of the degeneracy, the probability of measuring such a value (if there are no conditions on k) is now

$$\sum_{k} |c(q_s, k)|^2$$

because all the states $e(q_s, k)$, no matter what k is, can contribute !

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- In case of a continuous spectrum, the eigenvectors do not belong to the Hilbert space because they cannot be normalized.
- However, we accept them as possible generalized eigenvectors if they have a finite scalar product with any function (vector) of the Hilbert space.
- Realizable physical states (normalizable) can only be linear combinations (wave packets) of these generalized eigenvectors, corresponding to different eigenvalues.
- This implies that the observable Q, strictly speaking, does not admit determinate states.

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- This is the case, for instance, of the momentum operator $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}$.
- 2 An eigenfunction of \hat{p} for the eigenvalue p should satisfy the equation

$$egin{aligned} \hat{p}\,\psi_p(x) &= p\,\psi_p(x) \ \Rightarrow \ -i\hbarrac{d\psi_p}{dx} &= p\,\psi_p \ \Rightarrow \psi_p(x) &= A\,e^{ipx/\hbar} \end{aligned}$$

These eigenfunctions are not square integrable, which means that the operator p̂ has not eigenvectors in the Hilbert space.

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- This implies that we cannot realize physical states with a perfectly definite momentum !
- Output: Note: The second content of the s

$$\int dx\,\psi^*(x)\,\psi_p(x)=A\int dx\,\psi^*(x)\,e^{ipx/\hbar}=c(p)\in C$$

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- This implies that we cannot realize physical states with a perfectly definite momentum !
- However, we accept these functions as generalized eigenvectors because, although they cannot be normalized, they have a finite scalar product with any square-integrable function \u03c6 (Dirac condition),

$$\int dx\,\psi^*(x)\,\psi_p(x)=A\int dx\,\psi^*(x)\,e^{ipx/\hbar}=c(p)\in C$$

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Normalization

Coming to the normalization of these functions, let's start by remembering that

$$\int dx \, e^{i\eta x} = 2\pi \, \delta(x)$$

2) therefore, if we define the normalization constant of $\psi_{\mathcal{P}}$ in such a way that

$$\psi_p(x)\equiv rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}\,e^{ipx}$$

the momentum generalized eigenfunctions satisfy the **Dirac orthonormality condition**

$$\int dx \, \psi_p^*(x) \, \psi_q(x) = rac{1}{2\pi\hbar} \int dx \, e^{ix(q-p)/\hbar} =
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- The set {ψ_p(x); p ∈ R} of these eigenfunctions form an orthonormal, generalized complete set.
- But, what exactly do we mean with this sentence ?

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Let us consider a generic normalized wave function $\psi(x)$. In case of a finite or numerable orthonormal basis ψ_n , we already know that

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n \, c_n \, \psi_n(x)$$

where the complex coefficients c_n are the scalar product of the functions ψ_n with ψ :

$$c_n \equiv \, < \psi_n | \psi > \, = \int dx \, \psi_n^*(x) \, \psi(x)$$

and one has

$$1 = \int dx \, |\psi(x)|^2 = \sum_n |c_n|^2$$

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• Let us consider, now, the momentum eigenfunctions $\psi_p(x)$. We know that they are orthonormal in the Dirac sense. If, in close analogy to the numerable case, we define

$$egin{aligned} c(p) &\equiv ilde{\psi}(p) &= < \psi_p |\psi> = \int dx \, \psi_p^*(x) \psi(x) = \ &= rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int dx \, e^{-ipx/\hbar} \psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

Ithe Fourier transform theory guarantees that

$$egin{array}{rll} \psi(x)&=&\int dp\;c(p)\,\psi_p(x)\equiv\int dp\; ilde{\psi}(p)\,\psi_p(x)\ 1&=&\int dx\,|\psi(x)|^2=\int dp\,| ilde{\psi}(x)|^2 \end{array}$$

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About the Fourier transform

In fact, the Fourier transform theory states that, if f(x) is a continuous integrable function, then we can define its Fourier transform $\hat{f}(k)$ as follows

$$\widehat{f}(k) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int dx \, f(x) \, e^{-ikx}$$

and the *inverse* Fourier transform of $\hat{f}(k)$

$$rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int dk\, \widehat{f}(k)\, e^{ikx}$$

gives back the original function f(x)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int dk \, \hat{f}(k) \, e^{ikx}$$

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It is easy, now, to verify that $\tilde{\psi}(p)$ is simply proportional to the Fourier transform $\hat{\psi}(k)$ of the w.f. $\psi(x)$, evaluated in $k = p/\hbar$: in fact

$$egin{array}{ll} ilde{\psi}(p) &\equiv & rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}\int dx\,e^{-ipx/\hbar}\psi(x) = \ &= & rac{1}{\sqrt{\hbar}}\,\hat{\psi}\Big(rac{p}{\hbar}\Big) \end{array}$$

and, because of the inverse Fourier transform theorem, we have indeed that

$$\int dp \,\tilde{\psi}(p) \,\psi_p(x) = \int dp \,\frac{1}{\sqrt{\hbar}} \,\hat{\psi}\left(\frac{p}{\hbar}\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{ipx/\hbar} = \\ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \frac{dp}{\hbar} \,\hat{\psi}\left(\frac{p}{\hbar}\right) \,e^{ix\frac{p}{\hbar}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int dk \,\hat{\psi}(k) e^{ikx} = \\ = \psi(x)$$

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