

# Chapter 4

## Schrödinger's Equation with Potential Energy: Introduction to Operators

The wave equations of electromagnetism are a natural consequence of Maxwell's equations. The time and spatial derivatives of the fields are found to be connected in a simple manner. But what *physical interpretation* can be given to the quantity  $\nabla^2\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$  that appears in Schrödinger's equation? To understand the physical significance of this term, I have to introduce the concept of *operators*. Operators play a very important role in quantum mechanics but can be a bit confusing; specifically a distinction must be made between operators and functions. The plan is to look at the free particle Schrödinger equation and to show that the  $-(\hbar^2/2m)\nabla^2$  term can be represented as  $\hat{p}^2/2m = \hat{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{p}}/2m$ , where  $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$  is an operator. I will then be able to generalize Schrödinger's equation to account for situations in which an external potential is present. To simplify matters, I work with the Schrödinger equation in one dimension; in the Appendix, an analogous development is given for the Schrödinger equation in three dimensions.

### 4.1 Hamiltonian Operator

So far I have been talking about free-particle solutions of Schrödinger's equation, which, in one dimension, is written as

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2\psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2}. \quad (4.1)$$

The quantity  $\partial^2/\partial x^2$  appearing in this equation is an *operator* that acts on functions in coordinate space. The operation simply involves second order differentiation of the function. Operators do just that, they *operate* on a function to produce a new function. For example, you could define the "Chicago operator" that translates the wave function to the top of the Sear's tower in Chicago.

I've already looked at an integral solution of Eq. (4.1), namely

$$\psi(x, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \Phi(k) \exp[i(kx - \hbar k^2 t/2m)]. \quad (4.2)$$

Actually I could equally well *guess* this as a solution of the free-particle Schrödinger equation. Substituting this guess into Eq. (4.1), I find

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \Phi(k) k^2 \exp[i(kx - \hbar k^2 t/2m)] \quad (4.3)$$

and

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \Phi(k) k^2 \exp[i(kx - \hbar k^2 t/2m)], \quad (4.4)$$

implying that the solution works. I shall assume that  $\psi(x, t)$  is normalized,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx |\psi(x, t)|^2 = 1. \quad (4.5)$$

Instead of working in coordinate space, I could work equally well in *momentum space*; that is, I can try to get a differential equation for  $\Phi(p, t)$ , where  $\Phi(p, t)$  is the Fourier transform of  $\psi(x, t)$  defined by

$$\Phi(p, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi(x, t) e^{-ipx/\hbar} \quad (4.6)$$

and

$$p = \hbar k \quad (4.7)$$

is given by the de Broglie relationship. It is *assumed* that  $|\Phi(p, t)|^2$  is the probability density in momentum space, that is the probability density to find a momentum  $p$  for the particle at time  $t$ . Note that I need a factor of  $\hbar^{-1/2}$  when momentum rather than  $k$  is used in defining the Fourier transform. This assures that  $\Phi(p, t)$  has the correct units of  $p^{-1/2}$  and that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp |\Phi(p, t)|^2 = 1$  if  $|\psi(x, t)|^2$  is normalized.

Differentiating Eq. (4.6) with respect to time and using Eq. (4.1), I find

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(p, t)}{\partial t} &= \frac{i\hbar}{(2\pi\hbar)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} e^{-ipx/\hbar} \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m(2\pi\hbar)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ipx/\hbar} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.8)$$

I now integrate by parts two times and assume that the wave function and its derivative vanish as  $x$  goes to plus or minus infinity (the wave packet is not infinite in extent). In this manner I obtain

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(p, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{p^2}{2m (2\pi\hbar)^{1/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx e^{-ipx/\hbar} \psi(x, t) = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Phi(p, t). \quad (4.9)$$

When this equation is generalized to three dimensions (see Appendix), it becomes

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t) = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t), \quad (4.10)$$

where the operator  $\hat{p}^2$  is defined such that

$$\hat{p}^2 g(\mathbf{p}) = p^2 g(\mathbf{p}). \quad (4.11)$$

for any function  $g(\mathbf{p})$ . In other words, the operator  $\hat{p}^2$  acting on a function  $g(\mathbf{p})$  in momentum space simply *multiplies*  $g(\mathbf{p})$  by  $p^2$ .

This is an important result. In coordinate space, the free particle Schrödinger equation is

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (4.12)$$

The right-hand side of the free particle Schrödinger equation in coordinate space is  $-(\hbar^2/2m) \nabla^2$ , while it is  $\hat{p}^2/2m$  in momentum space. This implies that the operator  $\hat{p}^2$  acting on a function  $f(\mathbf{r})$  in *coordinate* space results simply in  $-\hbar^2 \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{r})$ ; that is,

$$\hat{p}^2 = -\hbar^2 \nabla^2 \quad (4.13)$$

when acting in coordinate space. As a consequence, the Schrödinger equation can be written as

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{-\hbar^2 \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{2m} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (4.14)$$

Since  $p^2/2m$  is equal to the energy of the free particle, I can rewrite Eq. (4.14) as

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t), \quad (4.15)$$

where  $\hat{H}$  is the *Hamiltonian* or energy operator.

I now conjecture that Eq. (4.15) remains valid even when there is a potential  $V(\mathbf{r})$  present, with the Hamiltonian operator generalized as

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \hat{V}. \quad (4.16)$$

In coordinate space, the operator  $\hat{V}$  is defined such that

$$\hat{V}f(\mathbf{r}) = V(\mathbf{r})f(\mathbf{r}) \quad (4.17)$$

for any function  $f(\mathbf{r})$ . In other words, operator  $\hat{V}$  acting on a function  $f(\mathbf{r})$  in coordinate space simply picks out the value of the potential energy at the position of the function and *multiplies* it by  $f(\mathbf{r})$ .

Since  $\hat{p}^2$  is equal to  $-\hbar^2\nabla^2$  in the coordinate representation, I have a complete description of the Hamiltonian operator in the coordinate representation, namely

$$\hat{H}\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left[ \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \hat{V} \right] \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2\nabla^2}{2m} + V(\mathbf{r}) \right] \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (4.18)$$

In the momentum representation, however, things are not so clear, since I do not know the effect of the potential operator in momentum space. To do so, I must use my assumption that  $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$  and  $\Phi(\mathbf{p}, t)$  are Fourier transforms of one another and make the assumption that the average value of the operators is identical in the coordinate and momentum representations. A derivation of Schrödinger's equation in momentum space is given in Chap. 11.

## 4.2 Time-Independent Schrödinger Equation

In coordinate space, the time-dependent Schrödinger equation is

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{r}) \right) \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (4.19)$$

I guess a solution

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = e^{-iEt/\hbar} \psi_E(\mathbf{r}), \quad (4.20)$$

substitute it into Eq. (4.19) and find that it works, *provided*

$$\hat{H}\psi_E(\mathbf{r}) = E\psi_E(\mathbf{r}), \quad (4.21)$$

an equation which is known as the *time-independent Schrödinger equation*. There may be many solutions of Eq. (4.21). Since Eq. (4.19) is linear, its general solution is found by forming a linear superposition of all the solutions of Eq. (4.21), namely

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_E a_E e^{-iEt/\hbar} \psi_E(\mathbf{r}), \quad (4.22)$$

where the expansion coefficients  $a_E$  are determined by the initial conditions on  $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ .

Equation (4.22) is a *critically important* result. *If* we can solve the *time-independent* Schrödinger equation, we can build a solution to the time-dependent problem. This is why so much time is spent in quantum mechanics courses on the time-independent Schrödinger equation. However you should not forget that the interesting dynamics of a quantum system is obtained only through a solution of the *time-dependent* Schrödinger equation. In order to solve equations of the type given in Eq. (4.21), I will need the additional ammunition to be provided in Chap. 5.

### 4.3 Summary

The concept of an operator in quantum mechanics has been introduced. I found that the square of the momentum operator is proportional to the Laplacian operator in coordinate space. We have seen that it is possible to obtain a solution of the time-dependent Schrödinger equation if we are able to solve the time-independent Schrödinger equation. The formal method for solving the time-independent Schrödinger is given in the next chapter, where I discuss the properties of operators in a more systematic fashion.

## 4.4 Appendix: Schrödinger Equation in Three Dimensions

Schrödinger's equation in three dimensions is

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \quad (4.23)$$

As in the one-dimensional case, I *guess* a solution of the form

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{3/2}} \int d\mathbf{k} \Phi(\mathbf{k}) \exp[i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \hbar k^2 t/2m)], \quad (4.24)$$

which is easily shown to be a solution of Eq. (4.23).

In three dimensions,  $\Phi(\mathbf{p}, t)$  is defined by

$$\Phi(\mathbf{p}, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r}/\hbar}, \quad (4.25)$$

where

$$\mathbf{p} = \hbar \mathbf{k} \quad (4.26)$$

is given by the de Broglie relationship.

Differentiating Eq. (4.25) with respect to time and using Eq. (4.23), I find

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t)}{\partial t} &= \frac{i\hbar}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} \int d\mathbf{r} \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} \int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \end{aligned} \quad (4.27)$$

I now use the vector identity

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] &= -\frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} - 2i e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \frac{\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \cdot \nabla \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \\ &\quad + e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \end{aligned} \quad (4.28)$$

to rewrite the integral appearing in Eq. (4.27) as

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) &= \int d\mathbf{r} \nabla^2 \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] \\ &\quad + \frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} + 2i \frac{\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \cdot \int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla \psi(\mathbf{r}, t). \end{aligned} \quad (4.29)$$

The first integral on the right-hand side (rhs) of Eq. (4.29) can be evaluated using the divergence theorem as

$$\begin{aligned} \int d\mathbf{r} \nabla^2 \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] &= \int d\mathbf{r} \nabla \cdot \nabla \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] \\ &= \oint_S \nabla \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] \cdot d\mathbf{a}. \end{aligned} \quad (4.30)$$

The surface integral is taken over a surface whose radius approaches infinity; this integral vanishes if the wave function falls off more rapidly than  $r^{-2}$  as  $r \rightarrow \infty$ , that is,

$$\oint_S \nabla \left[ \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \right] \cdot d\mathbf{a} \sim 0. \quad (4.31)$$

The third integral on the rhs Eq. (4.29) can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 2i\frac{\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \cdot \int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \\
 &= 2i\frac{\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \cdot \int d\mathbf{r} \left\{ \nabla \left[ e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \right] + \left( \frac{i\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \right) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \right\} \\
 &= 2i\frac{\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \cdot \left\{ \oint_S \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} d\mathbf{a} + \left( \frac{i\mathbf{p}}{\hbar} \right) \int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \right\} \\
 &= -2\frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar}, \tag{4.32}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the generalized Gauss' theorem given in Eq. (2.21b) was used to convert the integral containing  $\nabla [e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)]$  into a surface integral that vanishes as the radius of the surface approaches infinity. Combining Eqs. (4.29)–(4.32) and using Eq. (4.25), I find

$$\int d\mathbf{r} e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = -\frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \int d\mathbf{r} \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) e^{-i\mathbf{p}\cdot\mathbf{r}/\hbar} = -\frac{p^2}{\hbar^2} (2\pi\hbar)^{3/2} \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t). \tag{4.33}$$

Substituting this result into Eq. (4.27), I finally arrive at

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Phi(\mathbf{p}, t), \tag{4.34}$$

which is Eq. (4.10).

## 4.5 Problems

1. Given a Hamiltonian of the form

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

in coordinate space, show that the most general solution of the time-dependent Schrödinger equation is

$$\psi(x, t) = \sum_E a_E \psi_E(x) e^{-iEt/\hbar} = \sum_E a_E(t) \psi_E(x)$$

provided  $a_E(t) = a_E e^{-iEt/\hbar}$  and

$$\hat{H}\psi_E(x) = E\psi_E(x).$$

Prove that the probability to be in a given quantum state, given by  $|a_E(t)|^2$ , is constant in time, but that, in general, the probability  $|\psi(x, t)|^2$  varies in time.

2. Why doesn't the momentum distribution change in time for a free particle, even though the coordinate space distribution changes? How would you expect the wave function in momentum space to change for a particle falling in a uniform gravitational field? Explain. What is the difference between the operator  $\hat{p}^2$  in momentum space and in coordinate space?

3. Suppose you are given a Hamiltonian of the form

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

with  $\psi(x, 0) = f(x)$ . In terms of the eigenfunctions and eigenenergies of  $\hat{H}$ , derive an expression for  $\psi(x, t)$ .

4. Prove that

$$\int \psi^*(x, t) \hat{H} \psi(x, t) dx$$

is constant in time. Why must this be the case?

5. Consider a wave function for a free particle having mass  $m$  of the form

$$\psi(x) = N e^{-x^2/a^2} \Theta(b-x) \Theta(b+x),$$

where  $b \gg a > 0$ ,  $N$  is a normalization constant, and  $\Theta(x)$  is a Heaviside function equal to 0 for  $x < 0$  and 1 for  $x \geq 0$ . For  $b \gg a$ , you might think that it would be an excellent approximation to consider the wave function as a Gaussian packet having average energy  $\langle E \rangle = \langle \hat{p}^2 \rangle / 2m = \hbar^2 / (4ma^2)$ . Use the result of Problem 2.9 to show that this is *not* the case—for any finite  $b$ , the average energy is infinite. This occurs because of the point jump discontinuity in the wave function.