7.2. Operators.

An operator is a rule by means of which we can map on elements A of a linear space on elements B of another linear space, such that an equation may be set it necessarily implies that

B=TA.

B is range of operator,

A is domain of operator,

T is operator. He are to size is made

Visy This is generalization of the idea

of a function le rebro ed a in espace, n is the order of inoinnul le

y=f(x) se independent se f(x)

by means of which one variable x is a mapped on another variaand any complex number a, then ble y.

An operator may also be defined as a mathematical term which is used in operation on function such that lite transforms to another function.  $A = \lambda_1 \alpha_1 + \lambda_2 \alpha_2 + \dots + \lambda_n \alpha_n$ 

Thus if  $T_{0p}$  is some operator applied to function  $\psi(x)$ , then

 $T_{\mathbf{0}p} \psi(x) = \phi(x)$ 

where  $\phi(x)$  is the transformed function. maneath neighbors of the Linear Operators. In quantum mechanics we sare concerned almost exclusively with linear operators and throughout the book the term operators will be used to mean linear operators unless the contrary is explicitly stated. An operator T is said to be linear operator if it satisfies the following conditions 10

 $T_{n}(u+v) = Tu + Tv_{n, k=1}$ 

and on subtracting above two forms, Tois

where u and v are arbitrary operators and c is an arbitrary constant.  $a_1 - a_2 = 0$ in general

Let us now discuss some examples of linear operators and some of their properties.

Identity operator and null operator. Unit or identity operator is such an operator, in which function remains unchanged after operation.

Also

Here I is identity operator because function A before and after operation is unchanged.

Null or zero operator is such an operator, by which the function becomes zero. Thus if

 $O_{0p}$ .  $A=\overline{0}$  then  $O_{0p}$  is called null operator.

Laws of operator. Let us take F and G as two operators.

I. 
$$(F \dashv G)A = FA + GA$$
II.  $(FG)A = F (GA)$ 
III.  $FG \neq GF$ 

Addition is commutative but in general multiplication is noncommutative.

In the special case

$$FG = GF$$
.

Then these two operators are said to be commuting.

Examples. Let us take two operators  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , such that

Examples. Let us take two operators 
$$\alpha$$
 and  $\beta$ , such that 
$$\alpha = x, \ \beta = \frac{d}{dx}$$

$$\alpha \beta \left[ \psi(x) \right] = x \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \psi(x) \right] = x \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x}$$

and

(0) ...

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 $\beta \alpha \left[ \psi(x) \right] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[ x \psi(x) \right] = x \frac{\partial \psi(x)}{\partial x} + \psi(x).$   $\alpha \beta \neq \beta \alpha.$ Therefore

Hence α and βrdo not commuteritavired tanh edt guied (x)4

differential calculus. Similarly expression [x] \( \psi(x) \) consists of two Multiplication of operators; Commutators, odi sinoniitanoa

Let us consider the multiplication of two operators; the position operator x and momentum operator p. visnibio na tori

The momentum operator p is given by x) has x to touborq

1 (x) = ch(x) + (z)(1)... For an arbitrary  $\psi(x)$ , the riging of  $\theta$  (7) is the algebraic

product of (4), and constant c. We shall use further these operators and years in (x) as simply didx, x and c. These who at (x) age called differential

(8) that 
$$(x) + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} (x) = \frac{1}{i} \frac{\partial x}{\partial x}$$
 (1)...(1)

and

$$p\vec{x} \psi(x) = [(x)\psi(x)] = \frac{b}{i} \frac{b}{\partial x} (x\psi) = [(x)\psi(x)] \frac{b}{xb}$$

$$(9)... = \frac{\hbar}{i} \sqrt{\psi} + \frac{\hbar}{i} \left( x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \frac{b}{xb} x = (x) \psi x \frac{b}{xb} \right) ... (2)$$

It is obvious that (1) and (2) are not the same i.e. so that  $xp \neq px$ 

we have

$$(xp-px) \psi = \frac{\hbar}{i} x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\hbar}{i} \psi - \frac{\hbar}{i} x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$$

...(3)  $(xp-px) \psi = i \hbar \psi$ (xp-px) is called the commutator of two operators x and p and

is denoted by [x, p]. From eqn. (3) it is clear that the commutator of position

operator and momentum operator satisfies the relation

$$[x, p] = i\hbar \qquad \dots (4)$$

Power of linear operator. Consider F is any linear operator

$$F^{2} = F \cdot F$$

$$F^{n} = F \cdot F \cdot \dots F$$
 (product up to n)

In general

Polynomial of operator. If F is linear operator and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ ... are complex numbers, then

 $(\alpha_1 F + \alpha_2 F^2 + ...)$  is called polynomial.

If F is linear operator, then any power (or polynomial) of F will also be linear operator.

Differential operators. Consider any function  $\psi(x)$  like  $x^3$ ,  $\sin x$  and  $e^{ikx}$  and differentiate these functions with respect to x.

The expression  $[d/dx] \psi(x)$  consists of two consituents; the operator [d/dx] and the operand  $\psi(x)$ 

$$\left[\frac{d}{dx}\right]\psi(x) = \psi'(x) \qquad \dots (5)$$

 $\psi(x)$  being the first derivative of  $\psi(x)$  obtained by the rules of differential calculus. Similarly expression  $[x] \psi(x)$  consists of two constituents the operator [x] and operand  $\psi(x)$ 

$$[x] \psi(x) = x\psi(x) \qquad \dots (6)$$

For an ordinary  $\psi(x)$ , the right side of (6) is the algebraic product of x and  $\psi(x)$ ; and the operator [c] is defined as

$$[c] \psi(x) = c\psi(x) \qquad \dots (7)$$

For an arbitrary  $\psi(x)$ , the right side of (7) is the algebraic product of  $(\psi)$ , and constant c.

We shall use further these operators [d/dx], [x] and [c] as simply d/dx, x and c. These operators are called differential operators.

$$\left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)\psi(x)-x\psi(x)=\left(\frac{d}{dx}+x\right)\psi(x). \qquad ...(8)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [x\psi(x)] = x \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right) \psi(x) + \psi(x)$$

or 
$$\frac{d}{dx} x \psi(x) = x \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x) + \psi(x) \qquad ...(9)$$

so that 
$$\frac{d}{dx} x \psi(x) \neq x \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x)$$

unless  $\psi(x)=0$ .

Inverse operator. Consider A is one linear space and B is another linear space and T is any linear operator, such that

B = TA  $A = T^{-1} B$ 

...(11)

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If T is linear operator, then  $T^{-1}$  is inverse operator.

Fig. 7.2

A-B&B-+A

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Theorem. If  $T^{-1}$  exists then  $TA=\overline{0}$  implies that  $A=\overline{0}$ , where  $\overline{0}$  is null or zero operator.

Let 7

TA' = B

and

and

TA''=B.

Then  $T(A'-A'')=\overline{0}$ 

A'=A''.

Therefore TA = B is unique correspondence.

Singular and non-singular operators. If the two operators A and B have the following relation

$$AB=BA=I$$
,

where I is identity operator.

Then A and B are reciprocal to each other, i.e.,

$$A^{-1}=B, B^{-1}=A.$$

An operator for which a reciprocal exists is called non-singular. For a non-singular operator if the relation  $\phi = A\psi$  holds good i.e., operator A has reciprocal, then  $\psi$  can be obtained by the help of  $A^{-1}$ .

$$\psi = A^{-1}\phi$$
.

And if for non-zero  $\psi$ ,  $A\psi=0$  exists, then A operator has no reciprocal i.e., A is singular. Therefore an operator which has reciprocal, is called singular operator.

## 7.3. Eigen functions and eigen values.

If a wave function is well behaved function and satisfies the continuity conditions and boundary conditions, then by result of operation with an operator P, we get the same function as:

$$P \psi(x) = \lambda \psi(x) \qquad \dots (1)$$

where  $\lambda$  is complex number,  $\psi(x)$  is called eigen function and  $\lambda$  is called eigen value of operator P.

Let us take a well behaved function sin 2x. If it is operated

by an operator 
$$-\left(\frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right)$$
 the result is:  
 $-\frac{d^2}{dx^2} (\sin 2x) = 4 (\sin 2x).$ 

On comparison with general equation (1), we get  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{1}{2}$  $\psi(x) = \sin 2p.$ So, the number 4 is the eigen value of the operator  $-d^2/dx^2$ and  $\sin 2x$  is the function of the operator. The operator formalism in quantum mechanics. 10 5810 vill at The expectation values of position and momentum is given by the following relations.  $\langle x \rangle = \frac{\int \psi^* x \psi \, dx}{\int \psi^* \psi \, dx}, \langle p \rangle = \frac{\int \psi^* \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}\right) \psi \, dx}{\int \psi^* \psi \, dx}$ Here  $\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}$  is momentum operator, which has an installed i.e.  $p_{\omega} \to \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}\right)$ . As well as  $p_{\omega} \to \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}\right)$ . The Schroedinger equation for a particle is the bill crode  $\frac{h^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi = E \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi_{1-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V$ We know that it can be obtained by the energy expression boos solon where protections if the relations are a solon where  $\frac{1}{2m} + V = E$  obtained by the energy expression and the protection of  $\frac{1}{2m} + V = E$  obtained by the energy expression and the protection of  $\frac{1}{2m} + V = E$  of the protection of  $\frac{1}{2m} + \frac{1}{2m} + \frac{1}{2$ By replacing  $p o p_{0p} = \frac{\hbar_0}{i} \frac{d_i}{dx}$ , we get the equation as no And if for non-zero  $\phi$ ,  $A\phi = 0$  exists, then A operator has no (Esciprocal i.e., A is singular. Therefore, which has in which  $H_0 = \frac{p^2 6 \sqrt{6} \sqrt{6}}{2m} + \frac{p^2 6 \sqrt{6}}{2m} = \frac{p^2 6 \sqrt{6}}{2m}$  in which  $H_0 = \frac{p^2 6 \sqrt{6} \sqrt{6}}{2m} = \frac{p^2 6 \sqrt{6}}{2m}$ If a wave function is well to have inction and satisfies the continuity conditions and boundarm conditions, then by result of and  $H_{0p} \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \nabla}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \nabla}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \nabla}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \nabla}{\partial z^2}$ (1). And where  $\lambda$  is complex number,  $\psi(x)$  is called eigenoisenest south in The one dimension  $H_{0p}$ , Hamitonian operator is given by the state a well believe  $\frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100} \frac{1}{100}$ These observations suggest classical dynamical quantity of

the system has its correspondence in the quantum mechanical theory. So classical dynamical variable and quantum mechanical

operator are linked together.