

$$\langle \psi_j | H_1 | \psi_i \rangle + \langle \psi_j | H_0 | \psi_i \rangle$$

$$= E_{1i} \langle \psi_j | \psi_i \rangle \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \\ \end{array} \right. \delta_{ij}$$

$$+ E_{0i} \langle \psi_j | \psi_i \rangle \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Coefficient} \\ c_{1ij} \end{array} \right.$$

Say  $Q$  is an observable  
(thus  $Q = Q^+$ ).

$$Q |\psi\rangle = q |\psi\rangle$$

where  $q$  is an eigenvalue  
of  $Q$

Say  $|\alpha\rangle$  is general

$$\langle \alpha | Q | \psi \rangle = q \langle \alpha | \psi \rangle$$

By definition of Hermitian conjugate

$$\langle q | Q^+ | \alpha^* \rangle = q \langle q | \alpha^* \rangle$$

Take the complex conjugate

6-32) of both sides

$$\langle q | Q^+ | \alpha \rangle = q^* \langle q | \alpha \rangle$$

$\left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$

$= Q$  since  $Q$   
is an observable       $= q$  since eigenvalues  
are pure real.

$$\langle q | Q | \alpha \rangle = q \langle q | \alpha \rangle$$

$\left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$

$\therefore$  since  $|\alpha\rangle$  is general

$$\langle q | Q = q \langle q | = \underline{\langle q | q \rangle}$$

So  $\langle \gamma_{0j} | H_0 = \langle \gamma_{0j} | E_{0j}$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \langle \gamma_{0j} | H_1 | \gamma_{0i} \rangle &+ E_{0j} \langle \gamma_{0j} | \gamma_{1i} \rangle \\ &= E_{1i} S_{ij} \\ &\quad + E_{0i} \langle \gamma_{0j} | \gamma_{1i} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

If  $i=j$ , we get  $E_{1i} = \langle \gamma_{0i} | H_1 | \gamma_{0i} \rangle$

which is a pretty reasonable result.

6-33

The 1<sup>st</sup> order correction to the energy is given by the diagonal matrix element of  $H_1$  with the unperturbed states.

You might even have guessed this.

$$\text{If } i \neq j, \quad \langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle = (E_{0i} - E_{0j}) \langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle$$

If  $\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle = 0$   
and  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} \neq 0$ ,  
then  $\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle = 0$   
of course.

If LHS  $\neq 0$   
and  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} = 0$ ,  
then  $\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle$   
diverges and  
perturbation  
theory  
fails.

$$\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle}{E_{0i} - E_{0j}}$$

If  $\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle = 0$

and  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} \neq 0$ ,  
then  $\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle$  (see e.g. 6-34b)  
is zero.  
good "dissociated combinations"  
(see 6v-258, 259).

But how do we find

$\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle$  in this case?

For degenerate states.

matrix  $A$  is already diagonal,

and so  $\langle \psi_{0i} | \psi_{0i} \rangle$  for degenerate

states are the perturbed states.

already. So  
the  $\langle \psi_{0j} | \psi_{0i} \rangle = 0$   
works out right  
but inconsistent  
approximation.  
???

6-34a

But since  $\sum |X_{oi}| > 3$  is a complete set, we can expand

$$|X_{1i}\rangle = \sum_m c_{1im} |X_{om}\rangle$$

$$\therefore \langle X_{oj} | X_{1i} \rangle = \sum_m c_{1im} \underbrace{\langle X_{oj} | X_{om} \rangle}_{S_{jm}} = c_{1ij}$$

We assumed non-degeneracy and so  $E_{oi} \neq E_{oj}$  for  $i \neq j$  so no catastrophe.

$$c_{1jj} = \langle X_{oj} | X_{1i} \rangle = \frac{\langle X_{oj} | H_i | X_{oi} \rangle}{E_{oi} - E_{oj}}$$

but we have this catastrophe,

$$c_{1ii} = \text{undefined} = \frac{\langle X_{oj} | H_i | X_{oi} \rangle}{0}$$

but  $i \neq j$  by our assumption on p. 6-33

6-39b

$$\text{if } j \neq i \quad \langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle = (\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j}) \langle \chi_{0j} | \chi_{0i} \rangle$$

If  $\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle = 0$  and  $\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j} \neq 0$ ,

then  $\langle \chi_{0j} | \chi_{0i} \rangle = 0$

and no immediate problem.

If  $\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle \neq 0$

and  $\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j} = 0$  degeneracy

or  $|\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j}|$  small  
near  
degeneracy

non-degenerate

perturbation theory fails

because

per

the

as  $|\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j}| \rightarrow 0$  at  
some point the perturbation  
will not converge and  
so failure or very slow convergence  
is must happen.

If  $\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle \cancel{=} 0$

and  $|\epsilon_{0i} - \epsilon_{0j}| = 0$

6-34c)

or is very small.

Well if  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} = 0$   
exactly

$\langle \chi_{0j} | \chi_{1i} \rangle$  is

in determinate.

Any value satisfies the 1<sup>st</sup> order equation.

I think we are free to choose  
(as Milton Friedmann used to say)  
the ~~other~~ value.

$\langle \chi_{0j} | \chi_{1i} \rangle = 0$  is the good choice.

Since higher order perturbation ~~is~~ is affected by lower orders, this choice will affect higher order terms.

Can we arrange  $\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle = 0$   
and should we in case of degeneracy, ~~and near-degeneracy~~.

Yes & Yes.

We can diagonalize (to anticouple)

6-39d

the degenerate or  
~~near-degenerate~~ sub set  
 we get new states  
 which are still eigenstates  
 of  $H_0$  and still orthogonal,  
 to all  $\sum K_i > 3$  and as eigenstates  
 of  $H_0$  are still degenerate,  
 but not degenerate at  
 an approximate eigenstate  $H$ .

Presumably the energies in  
 the perturbation series give  
 the right corrections. ~~to~~ Right  
 I think.

Near-degeneracy?  
 Formally trickier I think.

Diagonalization gives new  
 states that are mixtures relative  
 to  $H_0$  and ~~NOT orthogonal~~  
~~to~~ still orthogonal to all  
 other  $\sum K_i > 3$  states.

Not eigenstates  
 of  $H_0$   
 anymore.  
 but close  
 to eigenstates  
 of  $H$ .

6-34e ]

So  $\sum |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| > \sum_{\text{non-subset}}$   
and  $\sum |\psi'_i\rangle \langle \psi'_i| > \sum_{\text{subset}}$  mixtures  
of  $\sum |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$

the diagonalized near degenerate states.

Do they constitute a complete set?

Yes. ~~But not~~

Orthonormal? Yes since all  $\sum |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  are orthonormal.

$\sum_{\text{subset}} |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  Not eigenstates of  $H_0$ .

~~Gives representation for the perturbated case~~

Can  $\sum |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  and  $\sum |\psi'_i\rangle \langle \psi'_i|$  be used for the expansion series?  
Looks tricky. But maybe it could be done.

6-24+

the degenerate subset  $\sum |\chi_{0i}\rangle \sum_{\text{sub}}$   
 to get new states  
 that are still  
 eigenstates of  $H_0$  and still  
 orthonormal,

$\sum |\chi_{0i}\rangle \sum_{\text{sub}}$  are still degenerate  
 as different eigenstates of  $H_0$

One can proceed with ordinary  
 perturbation theory

and I'd guess that the  
 perturbation corrections  
to energy would lead to  
 the same energies for the  
 $\sum |\chi_{0i}\rangle \sum_{\text{sub}}$  that the diagonalization  
 gives.

$$\langle \chi_{0i} | H | \chi_{0j} \rangle \text{ for states from the } \underline{\text{subset}}$$

$$= \langle \chi_{0i} | (H_0 + \lambda H_1) | \chi_{0j} \rangle$$

They do. =  $E_{0i} S_{ij} + \cancel{\lambda \epsilon_{0j}} > E_{0i} S_{ij}$

6-34g)

But what of the near degenerate case?

Here  $\sum |X_{0i}\rangle > \sum_{\text{subset}}$  after diagonalization are such that

$$\langle X_{0i} | H_1 | X_{0j} \rangle = E_{ii} S_{ij}$$

but  $\sum |X_{0i}\rangle > \sum_{\text{subset}}$  are NOT exact eigenstates of  $H_0$  since there are mixtures of non-degenerate states.

$\sum |X_{0i}\rangle > \sum_{\text{subset}} + \sum |X_{0i}\rangle > \sum_{\text{non-subset}}$  are still a complete orthonormal set,

From p. 6-31, one could still write

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle X_{0i} | H_1 | X_{0j} \rangle + \langle X_{0i} | H_0 | X_{0j} \rangle \\ &= E_{ii} \langle X_{0j} | X_{0i} \rangle + E_{ii} \langle X_{0j} | X_{0i} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

There must be a formally correct way to treat this case, but darned if I can see it. Maybe it's very finicky.

$$\text{So } c_{1ij} = \frac{\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0i} \rangle}{E_{0i} - E_{0j}} \quad | 6-35$$

is only for  $i \neq j$

But what is  $c_{1ii}$  then?

All the labor on p. 6-17-6-25

was to show that  
 normalization of the  
 full perturbed solution  
 requires  $c_{1ii} = 0.$

So Now we have the complete  
 1st order perturbation  
 correction and 1st  
 order corrected  
 quantities

In  
 my  
 view  
 Gr-253  
 wants  
 this.  
 He shows  
 that you  
 can choose

$$c_{1ii} = 0,$$

but

NOT

that

it

must be

to preserve  
 normalization

- Not obviously  
 anyway.

6-36 a)

$$E_{1p} = \langle \psi_{0i} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle$$

We note  
the closer  
in energy  
 $E_{0j} >$  to  
 $E_{0n} >$   
the bigger  
the mixing  
in general

$$E_i^{1st} = E_0 + \lambda \langle \psi_{0i} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle$$

Mixtures  
of  
unperturbed  
states.

$$|\psi_{1i}\rangle = \sum_j \frac{\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle}{E_{0i} - E_{0j}} |\psi_{0j}\rangle$$

due  
to the denominators

$$|\psi_i^{1st}\rangle = |\psi_{0i}\rangle + \lambda \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle}{E_{0i} - E_{0j}} |\psi_{0j}\rangle$$

Note  $|\psi_i^{1st}\rangle$

is NOT  
exactly  
normalized.

It's only normalized  
to 1<sup>st</sup> order.

The imposed normalization constraint  
is for  $|\psi_i\rangle$  normalized

Not  $i$  comes  
first in denominator  
and second in  
numeration.

The exact perturbed state?

There must be some profound reason why mixing of states decreases with energy separation.

We should reflect on it.

We reflect. Maybe Two things at work

a) Recall

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} = k^2 \psi$$

expressed by denominator & numerator

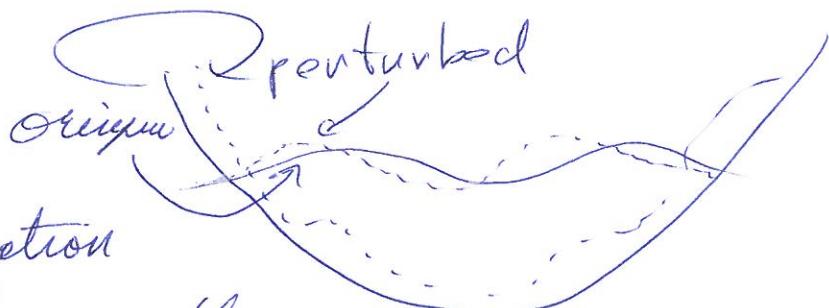
$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (\mathbb{E} - E)}$$

$$k = i k \text{ if } E \geq V$$

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V)}$$

So  $E$  controls local curvature/oscillation.

It seems clear that a small perturbation can only change the shape of the wave function a little.



— So one only needs a bit more or less curvature everywhere and stays local in energy space

6-36c]

give that.

- remote states in energy  
give ~~too many~~ <sup>lots of</sup> wiggles (higher  $E$ )  
or ~~too much~~ <sup>lots of</sup> smoothing (lower  $E$ )

So ultimately it seems like the wave nature dictates the fall off of ~~the~~ mixing with increasing  $|E_{0i} - E_{0j}|$ .

But what of non-wave function perturbation?

~~Spin~~ state perturbation?

The same perturbation theory formalism applies.

Well energy still dictates state structure somehow

- more reflection needed.

b) But there is another point.

[6-36d]

I think  $\langle \psi_j | H | \psi_i \rangle$

for  $j \neq i$  which are  
the off-diagonal matrix elements  
or state couplings in the  
diagonalization approach

have a tendency

to grow small as  $|\epsilon_{oi} - \epsilon_{oj}|$   
increases

For all  $|\epsilon_{oi} - \epsilon_{oj}|$  small or even zero

$|\psi_i\rangle$  and  $|\psi_j\rangle$   
are orthogonal.

But if  $|\epsilon_{oi} - \epsilon_{oj}|$  is small or even zero,  
that orthogonality is {fine-tuned.}  
global

But if  $|\epsilon_{oi} - \epsilon_{oj}|$  is large,  
then  $|\psi_i\rangle$  &  $|\psi_j\rangle$

6-36e}

have a very different set  
of oscillatory wiggles }  
and will tend to be }  
incoherent.  $\rightarrow$  even locally }  
so even perturbed }  
still tends }  
to be }  
incoherent }  
and near zero. }  
I think.

$$\text{So } H_i | \psi_i \rangle >$$

distorts  $|\psi_i\rangle$ , but tends  
in some cases to leave as  
wiggly as before

$$\therefore \langle \psi_j | H_i | \psi_i \rangle \text{ will}$$

tend to be ~~further~~

toward zero as  $|\epsilon_{ij} - \epsilon_{oi}|$   
grows.

It's just a tendency that can be  
overruled by the peculiarities  
of  $|\psi_i\rangle$ ,  $|\psi_j\rangle$ , and  $H_i$ .

- Experience though suggests it's a often/usually  
the case I think/guess.

We assumed non-degeneracy, | 6-37  
and so our corrections  
are NOT undefined.

But what if  $E_{0i}$  and  $E_{0j}$   
get very close?

Then the corrections get  
very big

and  
that hints ~~on~~ that ~~other~~ high  
orders are needed for  
accuracy

or  
the series may not converge  
(in which case perturbation  
theory is not adequate).

One could say that as

$E_{0j} \rightarrow E_{0i}$  mixing of  
the unperturbed states becomes

6-38 ↗

strong and eventually  
too strong.

That's when the diagonalization  
approach is needed  
(see below)

## 6) 2nd Order Perturbation

- We only do the 2nd order energy.
- the 2nd order state correction is beyond us. (We could do it. Maybe a good problem.)

From p. 6-29 with  $n=2$

$$\sum_{k=1}^2 H_{2-k} |\psi_{ki}\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^2 E_{2-k,i} |\psi_{ki}\rangle$$

$$H_1 |\psi_{1i}\rangle + H_0 |\psi_{2i}\rangle = E_{2i} |\psi_{0i}\rangle + E_{1i} |\psi_{1i}\rangle + E_{0i} |\psi_{2i}\rangle$$

6-39

We we don't  
know  $\langle \chi_{2i} \rangle$ ,

but we can eliminate it  
by inner producted with  
 $\langle \chi_{0i} \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} & \langle \chi_{0i} | H_1 | \chi_{1i} \rangle + E_{0i} \langle \chi_{0i} | \chi_{2i} \rangle \\ &= E_{2i} + E_{1i} \langle \chi_{0i} | \chi_{1i} \rangle \\ &+ E_{0i} \langle \chi_{0i} | \chi_{2i} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

These two cancel

~~100~~

and  $\langle \chi_{0i} | \chi_{1i} \rangle = 0$

by p. 6-25

$$E_{2i} = \langle \chi_{0i} | H_1 | \chi_{1i} \rangle$$

But  
we know  
this  
from p. 6-36

6-40 ]

So

$$E_{2i} = \langle \psi_{oi} | H_1 | \sum_j \frac{\langle \psi_{oj} | H_1 | \psi_{oi} \rangle}{E_{oi} - E_{oj}} | \psi_{oj} \rangle$$

Note  $\langle \psi_{oi} | H_1 | \psi_{oj} \rangle$

$$= \langle \psi_{oj}^* | H_1^+ | \psi_{oj} \rangle^* \quad \text{defn. of Hermitian conjugate}$$

$$= \langle \psi_{oj} | H_1^+ | \psi_{oj} \rangle^* \quad \text{since } H_1^+ = H_1^*$$

$$E_{2i} = \sum_j \frac{|\langle \psi_{oj} | H_1 | \psi_{oi} \rangle|^2}{E_{oi} - E_{oj}}$$

$$E_i^{(2nd)} = E_{oi} + \lambda \langle \psi_{oi} | H_1 | \psi_{oi} \rangle$$

$$+ \lambda^2 \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq i}} \frac{|\langle \psi_{oj} | H_1 | \psi_{oi} \rangle|^2}{E_{oi} - E_{oj}}$$

Note as  $E_{oj} \rightarrow E_{oi}$  we again have an expansion. This suggests that approaching degeneracy causes ~~average~~ infinities in all order corrections.

But I don't know if this is true or not

6-41

$$\text{Note } \Sigma_{z_i} = \sum_j \frac{\langle \psi_j | H_1 | \psi_{0i} \rangle^2}{E_{0i} - E_{0j}}$$

The numerator is always positive.

, If  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} > 0$ ,

there is a positive contribution to  $\Sigma_{z_i}$

If  $E_{0i} - E_{0j} < 0$ , there is a negative contribution.

So  ~~$E_i$~~   $E_i$  is pushed up by states with  $E_{0j} < E_{0i}$  and down by states with  $E_{0j} > E_{0i}$

~~I think~~ Is this may be related phenomenon to the repulsion of the energy levels that turns up with the diagonalization of the Hamiltonian with degenerate energy levels. Probably not — any perturbation would lead to split degeneracy.

6-42

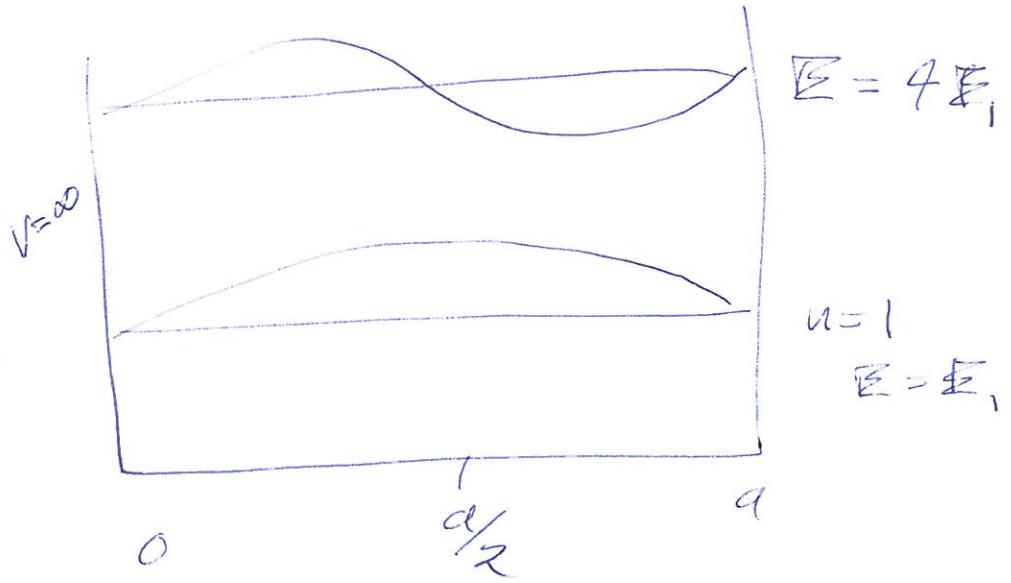
## 7) Infinite Square Well with a Perturbation (Gr-p.254)

$$\psi = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin kx$$

$$ka = n\pi$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

quantum numbers



$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 (\pi/a)^2}{2m} n^2 = E_1 n^2$$

The spatial states are non-degenerate, provided we don't add any internal degeneracy like spin

$$H_0 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} V=0, x \in [0,a] \\ V=\infty, \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right\}$$

Now we add perturbation

$$H_1 = \alpha S(x - a/2)$$

a Dirac delta function potential  
with  $\alpha$  as the potential strength

$$[\alpha] = \frac{E}{L} \quad [S(x - \frac{a}{2})] = \frac{1}{L}$$

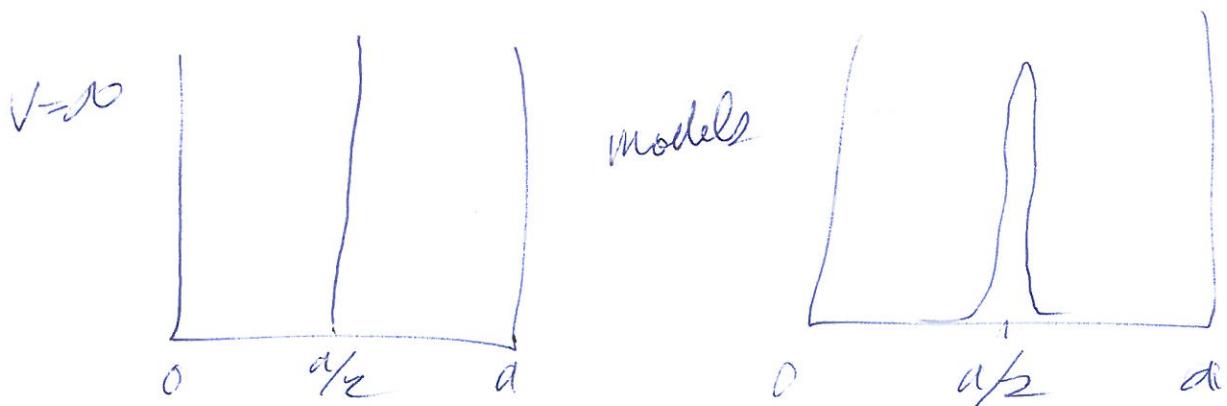
$$= EL$$

digression

A Dirac Delta function

is the limiting form of a sharply peaked function.

One could also think of it as the ~~model~~ ideal model of a sharply peaked function.



6-44

- a function that varies  
rapidly over some distance  
interval ~~scale~~ <sup>over which</sup> ~~that~~ all other  
behaviors of the system  
are effectively constant  
~~over that interval.~~

$$\int_a^b f(x) \delta(x - x_0) dx = \begin{cases} f(x_0), & x_0 \in [a, b] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

~~Are there any real~~

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \delta_m(x - x_0) dx$$

$$\int_a^b \delta(x - x_0) dx = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in [a, b] \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Mathematically  
a Dirac delta  
function is a  
limiting process for an integral

a sharply peaked  
function that grows  
more sharply  
peaked as  
parameter m increases

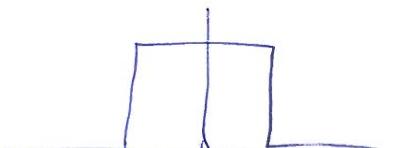
with a sharply peaked function, A normalized function

6-45

There are several common sharply peaked functions that yield Dirac Delta functions as a limit.

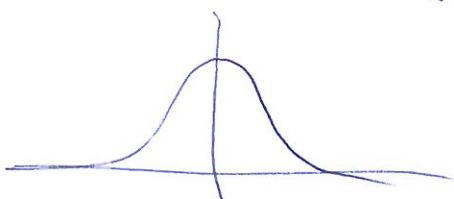
Examples (Arf - 413-417)

a)  $S_m = \begin{cases} 0 & x < -\frac{1}{2m} \\ m & -\frac{1}{2m} < x < \frac{1}{2m} \\ 0 & x > \frac{1}{2m} \end{cases}$



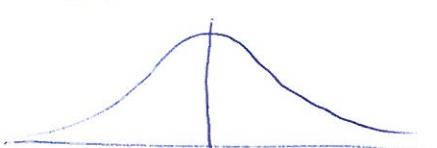
hat function

b)  $S_m = \frac{m}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-m^2 x^2}$



Gaussian

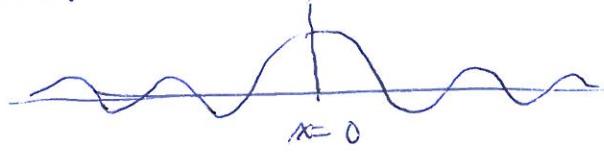
c)  $S_m = \frac{m}{\pi} \frac{1}{1+m^2 x^2}$  Lorentzian



6 - 46 ]

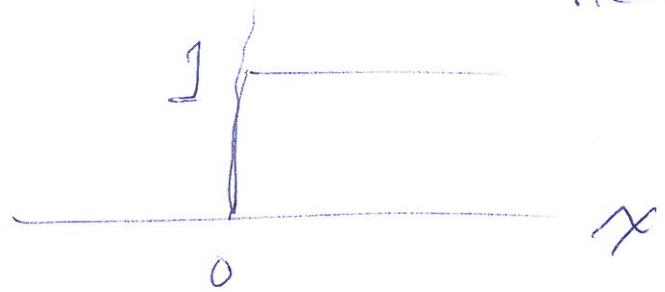
d)  $S_m = \frac{\sin mx}{\pi x} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-m}^m e^{ixt} dt$

Integral of Dirac Delta function



$$\int_{-\infty}^x S(x') dx' = H(x)$$

Heaviside step  
function



$$\int_{-\infty}^x f(x) H(x) dx = \int_0^x f(x) dx$$

Derivative of Dirac delta function

$$\int_a^b f(x) \frac{dS(x)}{dx} dx$$

$$= f(x) S(x) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b \frac{d}{dx} S(x) dx$$

$\curvearrowright$   
 $= 0$  as long as  $b \neq 0, a \neq 0$  which are undefined cases in general.

$$= \begin{cases} - \frac{df}{dx}(0) & \text{in interval } [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{out of interval} \end{cases}$$

This can be generalized

6-47

to

$$\int_a^b f(x) \frac{d^n s(x)}{dx^n} dx = (-1)^n \int_a^b \frac{d^n f}{dx^n} s(x) dx$$

$$= \begin{cases} (-1)^n \frac{d^n f}{dx^n}(0) & \text{at all zero in interval } [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{zero out of interval } [a, b] \end{cases}$$

### Dirac Delta function of a function

$$\int_a^b f(x) \delta(g(x)) dx$$

Let  $y = g(x)$

$$dy = g'(x) dx$$

$$\int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(g^{-1}(y)) \frac{\delta(y)}{g'(g^{-1}(y))} dy$$

6-98]

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{f(g^{-1}(0))}{g'(g^{-1}(0))} & \text{if } 0 \in [g(a), g(b)] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

If  $g(x) = ax + b$  (a common case)

the  $\int f(x) g(ax+b) dx$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{f(-b/a)}{(-b/a)} & \text{if } 0 \in [ac+b, ad+b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$y = ax + b$   
 $x = \frac{y-b}{a}$

Real Dirac Delta functions  
in Nature in some sense?

I don't know.

For many fast varying functions

relative to context, 6-49

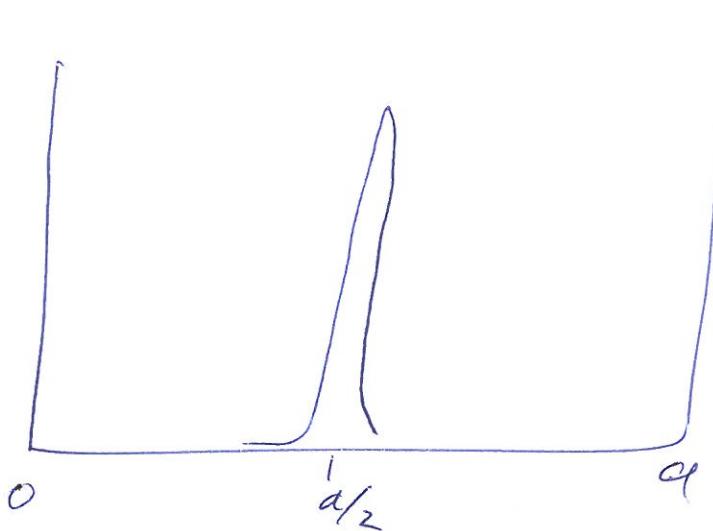
a Dirac Delta function is  
a good model.

But a real one?

What would it mean?

For the infinite square well,  
the  
Dirac  
Delta  
function

can  
be



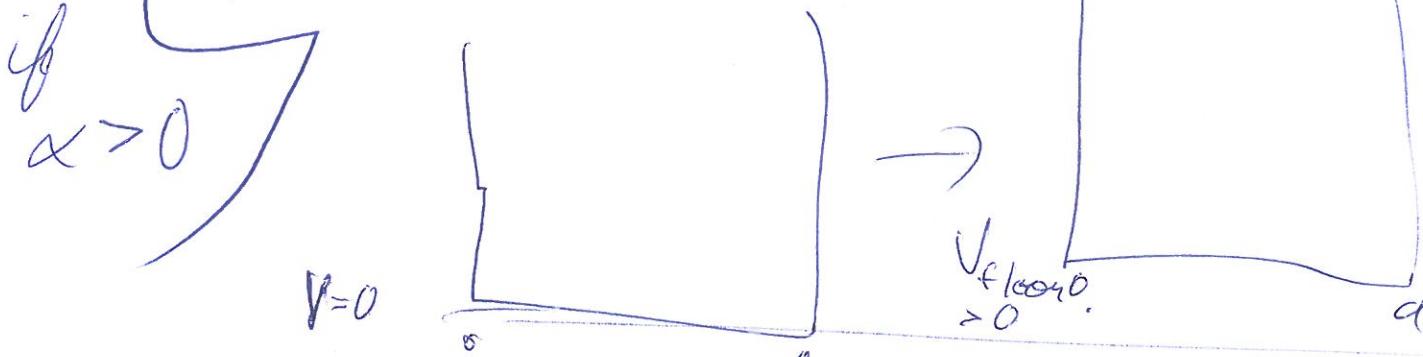
thought of  
as a model for a sharply  
peaked function.

Can we guess what such  
beta

6-50

perturbation would do to  
the solutions?

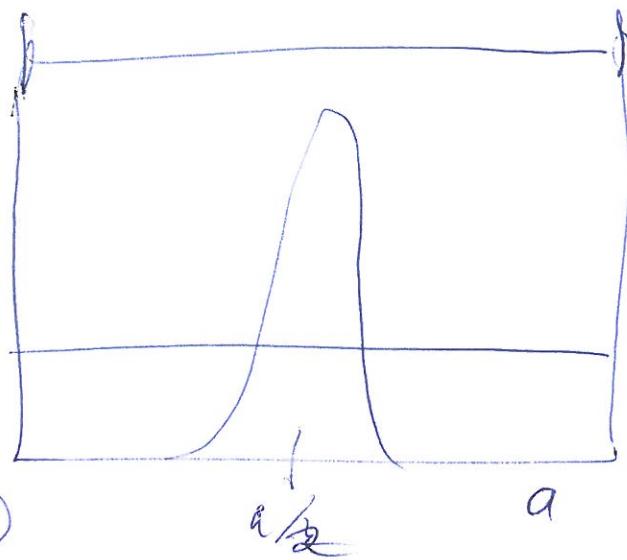
Well raise the energies a  
bit.



If one raised floor potential  
of the infinite square well,  
energy would rise all  
energies would rise.

So raising a bit of the  
floor should raise energies  
one might guess.

What of the stationary states?



16-51

assuming  
 $x > 0$

Recall  $\left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V \right) \psi = E \psi$

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

$$= k^2 \psi$$

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (V - E)}$$

exponential  
like if  
 $V > E$

$$= i \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V)}$$

oscillatory  
if  $V < E$

$$= 0$$

if  $E = V$ .

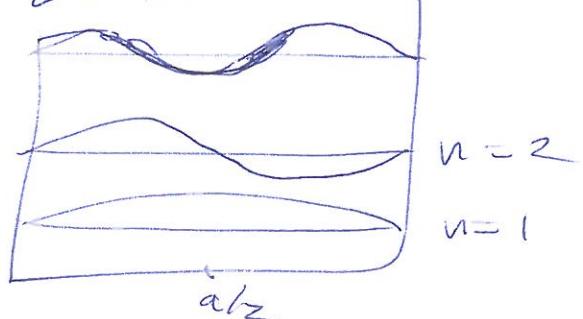
Well going across the center  $x = a/2$  will be less oscillatory.

6-52)

This should be true in the limit  
of the Dirac Delta function.

Be

But more than that, it's hard to  
say.



1<sup>st</sup> Order

$$\begin{aligned} E_{1n} &= \langle \psi_{on} | H_1 | \psi_{on} \rangle \\ &= \int_0^a \left( \frac{2}{a} \right) x \sin^2 kx \delta(x - a/2) dx \\ &= \left( \frac{2}{a} \right) x \sin^2(k a/2) \\ &= \left( \frac{2}{a} \right) x \sin^2 \left( \frac{n\pi}{2} \right) \quad (\text{see p. 6-42}) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left( \frac{2}{a} \right) x \left( \frac{1 - (-1)^n}{2} \right)$$

Note  $\psi_{on} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin k_n x$

has a node at  $x = a/2$  for all cases on  $n$  even and an antinode for  $n$  odd, so No 1<sup>st</sup> order correction to energy

0 if  
 $n$  is even

1 if  
 $n$  is  
odd.

$$|\psi_{1n}\rangle = \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq n}} \frac{\langle \chi_{0j} | H_1 | \chi_{0n} \rangle}{E_{0n} - E_{0j}} |\chi_{0j}\rangle$$

(see p. 6-36)

$$= \left( \frac{2}{a} \right) \frac{\alpha}{E_{02}} \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq n}} \frac{\int_0^a \sin k_j x \sin(k_n - \alpha_a) \sin k_n x dx}{n^2 - j^2}$$

Zeroth order  
perturbation  
ground  
state.

\*  $|\chi_{0j}\rangle$

$$\sin k_j a/2 \sin k_n a/2$$

$$= \sin\left(\frac{j\pi}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$= (-1)^{\frac{j-1}{2}} \left(\frac{1 - (-1)^j}{2}\right) (-1)^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \left(\frac{1 - (-1)^n}{2}\right)$$

$$\boxed{l = \frac{j-1}{2}} \quad = (-1)^{\frac{n+j-1}{2}} \left(\frac{1 - (-1)^n}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1 - (-1)^j}{2}\right)$$

$$\therefore j = 2l + 1 \quad \text{and as } l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

j goes through all odd numbers

6-54)

while  $\ell$  alternates  
between even and odd.

$$|x_{1n}| = \left( \frac{2}{\alpha} \right) \left( \frac{\alpha}{E_{on}} \right) \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq n}}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{\frac{n+j-1}{2}} (1 - (-1)^n) (1 - (-1)^j)}{n^2 - j^2} |x_{0j}|$$

The series is infinite.

Does it converge?

Well in the ~~large~~.

large  $j$  limit  $j \gg n$

we have

~~$$\sum_{j=L}^{\infty} |c_j| \leq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\ell=L}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 - (2\ell+1)^2}$$~~

$$\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j > n}}^{\infty} |c_j| \leq \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\ell=L}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 - (2\ell+1)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\ell=L}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)^2 - n^2}$$

where  
 $L \gg 2n+1$

The integral test for 6-55  
convergence should work.

(Art. 242)

$$\int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2x+1)^2 - n^2} dx$$

$$\text{let } y = 2x + 1$$

$$dy = 2dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{2L+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{y^2 - n^2} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} \ln \left( \frac{y-n}{y+n} \right) \right]_{2L+1}^{\infty}$$

(Hudson - 5)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln \left( \frac{2L+1+n}{2L+1-n} \right)$$

The integral does converge,  
 and so the series converges  
 (and absolutely converges)

6-56

But the convergence is not real fast it seems.

Example case  $n=1$

So we'll see ~~on~~ how the groundstate ground state is perturbed

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\psi}{\psi_0} &= \left( \frac{2\alpha}{a} \right) \frac{\sum_{j=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{\frac{1+j-1}{2}} \frac{(1-(-1)^j)}{2}}{1 - j^2} \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin k_j x \right) \\
 &= \left( \frac{2\alpha}{a} \right) \left[ \frac{(-1)}{1-9} \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin k_3 x \right. \\
 &\quad - \frac{1}{1-25} \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin k_5 x \\
 &\quad + \frac{(-1)}{1-49} \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin k_7 x \\
 &\quad \left. - \dots \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Gr solution  
- 154  
agrees.

The 1<sup>st</sup> order state  
is

6-57

$$|\psi_1^{1st}\rangle = |\psi_{01}\rangle + \lambda |\psi_{11}\rangle$$

recall.

2<sup>nd</sup> Order — just the energy

$$E_{2n} = \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq n}} \frac{|\langle \psi_{0j} | H_1 | \psi_{0n} \rangle|^2}{E_{0n} - E_{0j}}$$

(See p. 6-40)

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{2\alpha}{a}\right)^2}{E_{01}} \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq n}} \frac{\left(\frac{1-(-1)^n}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1-(-1)^j}{2}\right)^2}{n^2 - j^2}$$

Now  $\left(\frac{1-(-1)^n}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{1-2(-1)^n+1}{4}$

which we should have intuited.

$$= \frac{1-(-1)^n}{2}$$

$$B_{2n} = \frac{\left(\frac{2\alpha}{a}\right)^2}{E_{01}} \sum_{\substack{j \\ j \neq n}} \frac{\left(\frac{1-(-1)^n}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1-(-1)^j}{2}\right)}{n^2 - j^2}$$

Converge just as the 1<sup>st</sup> order state does  
See p. 6-59.

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So we had to work reasonably hard even in the simple case of an infinite square well with a central Dirac Delta function potential perturbation.

But it should be ~~known~~ no surprise that QM is tricky,

## 8) Diagonalization

on Diagonalizing the matrix

on Diagonalizing the Hamiltonian

→ Synonyms for solving the Sch. eq. by the matrix method.

— perhaps diagonalization L6-59  
is not a good name,  
but that's what it is called.

People say let's diagonalize  
the Hamiltonian  
not (it seems) ~~it~~ lets  
solve the Sch. eqn. in ~~H~~  
its matrix form ]

It is actually an exact  
method for finite Hilbert  
space of N dimensions.

→ One solves an  $N \times N$   
matrix.

For infinite dimensions,  
diagonalization can only  
be approximate — but

6-60)

there is no in principle limit on how accurate you can make it.

You truncate  $\infty \times \infty$  to  $N \times N$

and if that is not accurate enough increase  $N$  until you reach the accuracy you want.

Of course, there practical limitations; e.g., finite computing time, machine accuracy.

Special cases of diagonalization are called degenerate or nearly degenerate perturbation theory.