

# Appendix

## A. The Dirac Delta Function and the Normalisation of the Wavefunction of a Free Particle in Unbounded Space

The English physicist *Dirac* introduced a function which is extremely useful for many purposes of theoretical physics and mathematics. Precisely speaking, it is a generalised function which is only defined under an integral. We shall first give its definition, and then discuss its uses. The delta function ( $\delta$  function) is defined by the following properties ( $x$  is a real variable,  $-\infty \leq x \leq \infty$ ):

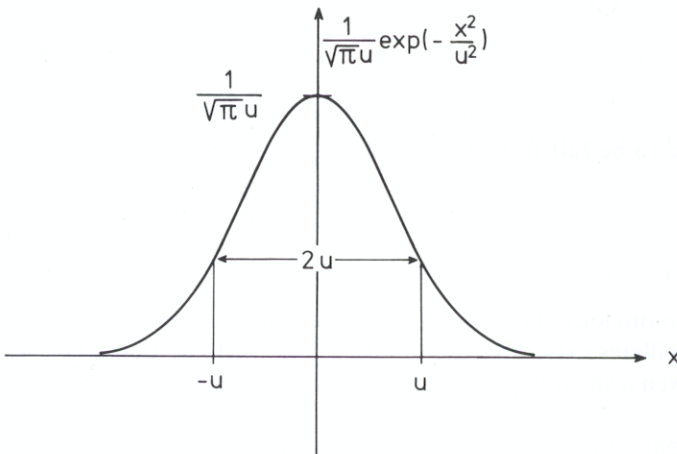
$$1) \quad \delta(x) = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad x \neq 0, \quad (\text{A.1})$$

$$2) \quad \int_a^b \delta(x) dx = 1 \quad \text{for} \quad a < 0 < b. \quad (\text{A.2})$$

The  $\delta$  function thus vanishes for all values of  $x \neq 0$ , and its integral over every interval which contains  $x = 0$  has the value 1. The latter property means, speaking intuitively, that the  $\delta$  function must become infinitely large at  $x = 0$ . The unusual properties of the  $\delta$  function become more understandable when we consider it as the limiting case of functions which are more familiar. Such an example is given by the function

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}u} e^{-x^2/u^2}, \quad (\text{A.3})$$

which is shown in Fig. A.1.



**Fig. A.1.** The function  $(1/\sqrt{\pi}u) \exp(-x^2/u^2)$  plotted against the variable  $x$ . If we let the parameter  $u$  become smaller, the value of the function at  $x = 0$  gets larger and larger and the decrease to both sides gets steeper, until the function has finally pulled itself together into a  $\delta$  function

If we allow  $u$  to go to zero, the function becomes narrower and higher until it is finally just a “vertical line”. We thus have

$$\text{for } x \neq 0: \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi u}} e^{-x^2/u^2} = 0. \quad (\text{A.4})$$

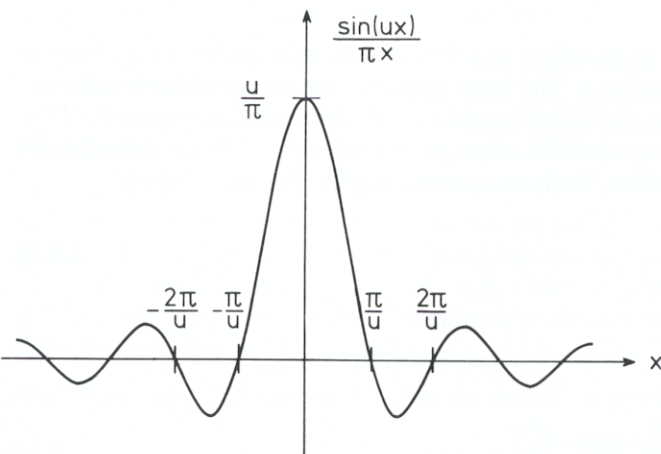
On the other hand, one can find in any integral table the following fact:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi u}} e^{-x^2/u^2} dx = 1, \quad (\text{A.5})$$

independently of the value of  $u$ . If the limit  $u \rightarrow 0$  is calculated it becomes clear that because of (A.4), we can write the integral (A.5) with any finite limits  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a < 0 < b$  without changing its value. This is just the relation (A.2).

In many practical applications in quantum mechanics, the  $\delta$  function occurs as the following limit:

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\sin ux}{x}. \quad (\text{A.6})$$



**Fig. A.2.** The function  $\sin(ux)/\pi x$  plotted against  $x$ . If we allow  $u$  to go to the limit infinity, the value of the function at  $x = 0$  becomes larger and larger. At the same time, the position of the zero-crossing moves towards  $x = 0$

The property (A.2) is found to be fulfilled when we take into account that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\sin(ux)}{x} dx = 1. \quad (\text{A.7})$$

The property (A.1) is not so obvious. To demonstrate it, one has to consider that for  $u \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\sin(ux)/x$  oscillates extremely rapidly back and forth, so that when we average the function over even a small region, the value of the function averages out to zero (Fig. A.2).

The  $\delta$  function has, in particular, the following properties:

for a continuous function  $f(x)$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x) \delta(x-x_0) dx = f(x_0), \quad a < x_0 < b \quad \text{is valid.} \quad (\text{A.8})$$

For a function  $f(x)$  which is  $n$  times continuously differentiable,

$$\int_a^b f(x) \delta^{(n)}(x-x_0) dx = (-1)^n f^{(n)}(x_0), \quad a < x_0 < b \quad (\text{A.9})$$

holds. Here  $f^{(n)}$  and  $\delta^{(n)}$  mean the  $n$ th derivatives w.r.t.  $x$ . The proof of (A.8) follows immediately from (A.1, 2). The proof of (A.9) is obtained by  $n$ -fold partial integration. Furthermore,

$$\delta(cx) = \frac{1}{|c|} \delta(x), \quad c \text{ real} \quad (\text{A.10})$$

is valid. The relation (A.1) is seen to be fulfilled on both sides. If we insert (A.10) in (A.2), we find

$$\int_a^b \delta(cx) dx,$$

which, after changing variables using  $cx = x'$ , becomes

$$\int_{a'}^{b'} \frac{1}{c} \delta(x') dx', \quad a' \leq b' \quad \text{for} \quad c \geq 0,$$

which is thus, according to (A.2), equal to  $1/|c|$ .

We now turn to the question of the normalisation of wavefunctions in unbounded space, where we can limit ourselves to the one-dimensional case without missing any essentials. We start with wavefunctions which are normalised in the interval  $L$ ,

$$\psi_k(x) = (1/\sqrt{L}) e^{ikx}, \quad (\text{A.11})$$

for which we have the normalisation integral

$$\int_{-L/2}^{L/2} |\psi(x)|^2 dx = 1. \quad (\text{A.12})$$

If we furthermore assume that  $\psi(x)$  is periodic,  $\psi(x+L) = \psi(x)$ , the  $k$ 's must have the form

$$k = \frac{2\pi n}{L}, \quad n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \quad (\text{A.13})$$

It is easy to convince oneself that

$$\int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \psi_k^*(x) \psi_{k'}(x) dx = \delta_{k,k'} \quad (\text{A.14})$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k = k' \\ 0 & \text{for } k \neq k' \end{cases} \quad (\text{A.15})$$

To prove this relation, the integral must be computed, taking account of (A.13). The integral yields

$$\frac{1}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} e^{-ikx+ik'x} dx = \frac{1}{iL(k'-k)} (\exp[i(k'-k)L/2] - \exp[-i(k'-k)L/2]) \quad (\text{A.16})$$

If we now abbreviate  $k' - k$  with  $\xi$  and  $L/2$  with  $u$ , we may write (A.16) in the form

$$\sin(\xi u) / \xi u \quad (\text{A.17})$$

This is, however, apart from the factor  $2\pi/L$ , just the function which appears in (A.6) on the right under the limit, if we identify  $\xi$  with  $x$ . If we thus divide (A.16) by  $2\pi/L$  and form  $\lim_{L \rightarrow \infty}$ , we obtain on the left side of (A.16)

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \lim_{L \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \exp(-ikx+ik'x) dx, \quad (\text{A.18})$$

which we may also write somewhat differently:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx} \right]^* \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ik'x} \right] dx \quad (\text{A.19})$$

The right-hand side of (A.16), using (A.17) and (A.6), goes to  $\delta(k' - k)$ . We thus finally obtain

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_k^*(x) \psi_{k'}(x) dx = \delta(k' - k), \quad (\text{A.20})$$

where

$$\psi_k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx} \quad (\text{A.21})$$

Equation (A.20) with (A.21) generalises the relation (A.14) [with (A.11)] to the case of wavefunctions without finite boundary conditions and thus to the corresponding case of continuous  $k$  values. As may be seen in all practical applications, the  $\delta$  function in (A.20) always occurs under further integrals over  $k$  or  $k'$  (or both), so that we have found a self-consistent formalism.

Let the wavefunctions in (A.21) depend not upon  $k$ , but upon  $p = \hbar k$ ; then we must observe (A.10). In order to normalise the new wavefunctions

$$\psi_p(x) = N e^{ipx/\hbar}$$

correctly, we must set  $N$  equal to  $(1/\sqrt{\hbar})(1/\sqrt{2\pi}) = (1/\sqrt{\hbar})$ . The normalised wavefunction is now given by

$$\psi_p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\hbar}} e^{ipx/\hbar}.$$

## B. Some Properties of the Hamiltonian Operator, Its Eigenfunctions and Its Eigenvalues

We write the time-independent Schrödinger equation in the form

$$\mathcal{H} \psi_n = E_n \psi_n \quad (\text{B.1})$$

with the Hamiltonian

$$\mathcal{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_0} \nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{r}), \quad V(\mathbf{r}) \text{ real}.$$

The  $\psi_n(\mathbf{r})$  are square-integrable eigenfunctions with the eigenvalues  $E_n$ . Here,  $\psi_n = 0$  is excluded. The eigenvalues  $E_n$  may be discrete or they may be continuous.

In the following, we denote by  $\psi_\mu$  and  $\psi_\nu$  the wavefunctions on which the operator  $\mathcal{H}$  can act. We can now easily read off the following properties:

a)  $\mathcal{H}$  is a linear operator, i.e. the relation

$$\mathcal{H}(c_\mu \psi_\mu + c_\nu \psi_\nu) = c_\mu \mathcal{H} \psi_\mu + c_\nu \mathcal{H} \psi_\nu$$

holds, where  $c_\mu$  and  $c_\nu$  are some complex numbers. In particular, it follows from this that every linear combination of eigenfunctions of  $\mathcal{H}$  with the same eigenvalue  $E$  is itself an eigenfunction of  $\mathcal{H}$  with the eigenvalue  $E$ .

b)  $\mathcal{H}$  is Hermitian, i.e. the equation

$$\int \psi_\mu^*(\mathbf{r}) [\mathcal{H} \psi_\nu(\mathbf{r})] dV = \int [\mathcal{H} \psi_\mu(\mathbf{r})]^* \psi_\nu(\mathbf{r}) dV \quad (\text{B.2})$$

is valid. It follows from (B.2) that for the operator of the potential energy,  $V^*(\mathbf{r}) = V(\mathbf{r})$ . For the kinetic energy operator, (B.2) can be proved by double partial integration, taking into account the fact that the wavefunctions vanish at infinity.

c) The eigenvalues  $E_n$  are real. This is a consequence of (B.2), if one inserts for  $\psi_\mu$  and  $\psi_\nu$  the same eigenfunction  $\psi_n$  and utilises (B.1).

d) Eigenfunctions with different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

We take the following scalar products (different eigenvalues belong to the functions  $\psi_m$  and  $\psi_n$ ):