

Methods of Mathematical Physics-I

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Linear function spaces (Vector spaces)

Let $\phi_1(s), \phi_2(s), \phi_3(s), \dots, \phi_n(s)$ be a set of linearly independent functions

These can be used as *basis functions* to construct a linear function space of which each linear combination of these basis functions

$$f(s) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \phi_i(s) \quad \text{is a member.} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} a_i \text{ are coefficients independent of } s \\ \text{They may be real or complex} \\ \text{Equivalent to coordinates in function space} \end{array} \right.$$

If $g(s) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i \phi_i(s)$ is another member of the function space, then

$$h(s) = f(s) + g(s) = \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i) \phi_i(s) \quad \text{is also a member} \\ \text{[closed under addition]}$$

$$u(s) = kf(s) = \sum_{i=1}^n ka_i \phi_i(s) \quad (k \text{ a scalar}) \quad \text{is also a member} \\ \text{[closed under multiplication]}$$

Linear function spaces (Vector spaces)

Scalar Product $\langle f|g\rangle = \int_a^b f^*(s)g(s)w(s)ds$

with $a, b, w(s)$ being chosen as a part of the definition of the scalar product. $w(s)$ must be positive definite in the interval $[a,b]$.

If a function space is closed under addition and multiplication by a scalar and if a scalar product exists for all pairs of its members then such a function space is called a *Hilbert Space*.

If the basis functions are such that $\langle \phi_i|\phi_j\rangle = 0$ for $i \neq j$ then they are called *orthogonal*. In addition if $\langle \phi_i|\phi_i\rangle = 1$ for all i then the basis functions are called *orthonormal*.

In Hilbert space the following inequalities hold:

Schwartz Inequality: $|\langle f|g\rangle|^2 \leq \langle f|f\rangle\langle g|g\rangle$

Bessel's Inequality: $\langle f|f\rangle \geq \sum_{i=1}^n |a_i|^2$ if bases are orthonormal

Linear operators in Hilbert Space: $\mathcal{A}f = \bar{f}$ (another function in the same space)

$$\mathcal{A}(f + g) = \mathcal{A}f + \mathcal{A}g; \quad (\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B})f = \mathcal{A}f + \mathcal{B}f; \quad \mathcal{A}k = k\mathcal{A}$$

If inverse exists then $\mathcal{A}^{-1}\mathcal{A} = 1 = \mathcal{A}\mathcal{A}^{-1}$

Adjoint \mathcal{A}^\dagger : $\langle f|\mathcal{A}g\rangle = \langle \mathcal{A}^\dagger f|g\rangle$

If $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}^\dagger$ then the operator is Self-adjoint, also called *Hermitian*.

Hermitian operators are important in physics because they have real eigenvalues, representing measurable physical quantities.

If $\mathcal{A}^\dagger = \mathcal{A}^{-1}$ then the operator is called *Unitary*.

An operator that is Real and Unitary is called *Orthogonal*.

Eigenvalues and Eigenfunctions

Example: Schrödinger's Equation $\mathcal{H}\psi = E\psi$

\mathcal{H} is a differential operator, E is a scalar

E is a fixed number for which a solution is sought.

Solution may not exist for all values of E

Values of E that admit solutions are called *Eigenvalues*.

The corresponding solutions ψ are called *Eigenfunctions*.

In general $\mathcal{L}u(x) + \lambda w(x)u(x) = 0$

where λ is the eigenvalue and

$w(x)$ is a weight function that appears in the definition of scalar product

For a given λ , the function $u_\lambda(x)$ that satisfies the equation along with the given boundary conditions is the corresponding eigenfunction

Existence of eigenfunction is not guaranteed for an arbitrary λ .

Often the eigenvalues are discrete, dictated by the boundary conditions.

Sturm-Liouville Theory

Consider a second order linear differential operator

$$\mathcal{L} = p_0(x) \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + p_1(x) \frac{d}{dx} + p_2(x)$$

If this can be cast in the form

$$\mathcal{L}u = \frac{d}{dx} \left[p_0(x) \frac{du}{dx} \right] + p_2(x)u(x)$$

Then \mathcal{L} is called a *self-adjoint* or *Sturm-Liouville* operator

This requires $p_0'(x) = p_1(x)$

If the original operator is not self-adjoint then it can be rendered so by multiplying a weight function

$$w(x) = \frac{1}{p_0(x)} \exp \left[\int \frac{p_1(x)}{p_0(x)} dx \right]$$

This is possible if the zeros of $p_0(x)$ do not lie within the domain of interest

Rewrite the self-adjoint operator as

$$\mathcal{L}u = \frac{d}{dx} \left[p(x) \frac{du}{dx} \right] + q(x)u(x) = [pu']' + qu$$

$\mathcal{L}u = f(x)$ would admit two linearly independent solutions. Let's call them $u(x)$ and $v(x)$. The boundary conditions will decide the linear combination that will be the desired solution.

If $x = [a, b]$ define the boundary, then the boundary conditions could be

- ▶ Dirichlet: on $u(a), v(a); u(b), v(b)$
- ▶ Neumann: on $u'(a), v'(a); u'(b), v'(b)$

The scalar product $\langle v | \mathcal{L}u \rangle = \int_a^b v^* \mathcal{L}u \, dx = \int_a^b v^* (pu')' \, dx + \int_a^b v^* qu \, dx$

The 1st term: $v^* pu' \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v^{*'} pu' \, dx = v^* pu' \Big|_a^b - v^{*'} pu \Big|_a^b + \int_a^b u (pv^{*'})' \, dx$

So $\langle v | \mathcal{L}u \rangle = [v^* pu' - v^{*'} pu]_a^b + \int_a^b [(pv^{*'})' + qv^*] u \, dx$

If such boundary conditions are specified that $[v^* p u' - v^{*'} p u]_a^b = 0$

$$\text{then } \langle v | \mathcal{L} u \rangle = \int_a^b v^* \mathcal{L} u \, dx = \int_a^b (\mathcal{L} v)^* u \, dx = \langle \mathcal{L} v | u \rangle$$

Thus \mathcal{L} is self-adjoint.

Boundary conditions of the type

$u, v = 0$ at the boundaries (Dirichlet)

$u', v' = 0$ at the boundaries (Neumann)

$v^* p u'|_a = v^* p u'|_b$ for all u, v (Periodic)

Will all satisfy the requirement of boundary conditions for self-adjointness

Note that any linear combination of functions satisfying the above boundary conditions will also satisfy the same.