

2. The Free Schrödinger Equation

Notes: • From now on we use natural units, i.e., $\hbar = m = 1$.

• For $\psi: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, partial derivatives are defined in the usual way:

$$\partial_x \psi(t, x) := \partial_x \operatorname{Re} \psi(t, x) + i \partial_x \operatorname{Im} \psi(t, x)$$

Free one-particle SE: $V = 0$, i.e., $i \partial_t \psi(t, x) = -\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x \psi(t, x)$, $\psi: \mathbb{R}_t \times \mathbb{R}_x^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

Recall: solutions to the stationary SE $-\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x \phi(x) = E \phi(x)$

give us solutions $\psi(t, x) = e^{-iEt} \phi(x)$

Formally, the "eigenfunctions" of $-\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x$ are **plane waves**

$$\phi_k(x) = e^{i k \cdot x} = e^{i \sum_{j=1}^d k_j x_j}, \text{ for any } k \in \mathbb{R}^d \quad (\text{since } -\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x \phi_k(x) = \frac{1}{2} k^2 \phi_k(x))$$

\Rightarrow this gives solutions $\psi_k(t, x) = e^{-i \frac{k^2}{2} t} e^{i k x}$ of the free SE

But $|\psi_k(t, x)|^2 = 1$, so on \mathbb{R}^d $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\psi_k(t, x)|^2 dx = \infty$, but we want $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |\psi|^2 = 1$.

By linearity, we find that formally $\psi(t, x) = \int f(k) \psi_k(t, x) dx = \int f(k) e^{-i \frac{k^2}{2} t} e^{i k x} dx$

is also a solution, and $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is determined by the initial condition:

$$\psi(0, x) = \int f(k) e^{i k x} dx$$

Conclusion: we need to study the Fourier transform on \mathbb{R}^d .

2.1 Fourier Transform on Schwartz Space

We often use the following function spaces:

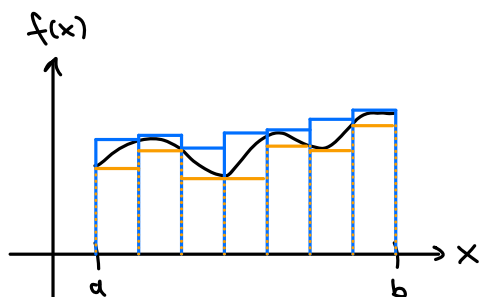
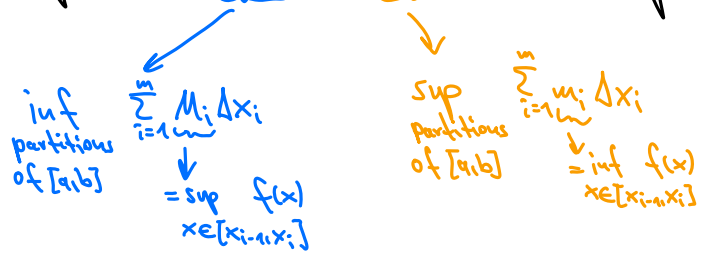
$$L^p(\mathbb{R}^d) := \left\{ f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : \|f\|_p = \left(\int |f|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} < \infty \right\}, \quad 1 \leq p < \infty$$

p-norm

Note: All integrals in this class refer to the Lebesgue integral.

Quick introduction to the Lebesgue integral: (here just for $d=1$)

Recall: $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ bounded is Riemann integrable if upper and lower Riemann integral coincide



Examples: • continuous functions are Riemann integrable

• $\mathbb{1}_{\mathbb{Q}}|_{[0,1]}$ is not Riemann integrable

↳ note: for $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, we define the indicator function $\mathbb{1}_S(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x \in S \\ 0 & \text{for } x \notin S \end{cases}$

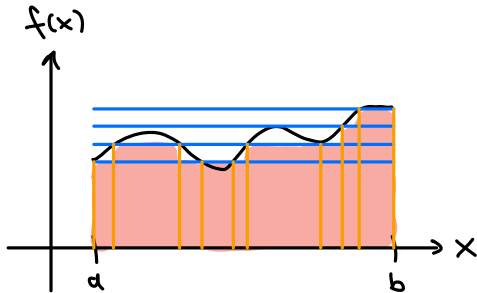
Note: • Improper Riemann integrals might exist if $a = -\infty$ or $b = \infty$ or f is not bounded.

• If $(f_n)_n \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f$ uniformly, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)}_{f(x)} dx$.

But this might fail for improper integrals (e.g., $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} n^{-1} \mathbb{1}_{[0, n]}(x) dx = 1 \neq 0$).

The Lebesgue integral addresses the difficulties with exchanging limits and integration.

Idea of the construction: partition y -axis instead of x -axis



Steps in constructing the Lebesgue integral:

- define "size" of a subset $S \subset \mathbb{R}$; this leads to measure spaces (Ω, Σ, μ) ;

e.g., $\mu([a, b]) = b - a$.

- approximate f by "simple functions" $\sum_k a_k \mathbb{1}_{S_k}$

↳ then $\int \sum_k a_k \mathbb{1}_{S_k} d\mu = \sum_k a_k \mu(S_k)$

- then $\int f d\mu := \sup \{ \int s d\mu : 0 \leq s \leq f, s \text{ simple} \}$ for $f \geq 0$

- in general: $\int f d\mu := \int f^+ d\mu - \int f^- d\mu$ if one of the integrals is finite

↑ positive part of f
↓ negative part of f

a collection of subsets of Ω
e.g., $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$
 $\mu: \Sigma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$
satisfying reasonable axioms

Note: $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (bounded) Riemann integrable $\Rightarrow f$ Lebesgue integrable

• $\int \mathbb{1}_{[0,1]} d\mu = 1$

• but there are improper well-defined Riemann integrals that do not make sense as Lebesgue integrals

Important theorems about Lebesgue integration:

Monotone Convergence: If $(f_n)_n$ with $f_n \geq 0$ and f_n measurable is such that $f_n(x) \leq f_{n+1}(x)$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n}_{\text{pointwise limit}} d\mu$$

Dominated Convergence: If $(f_n)_n$ with f_n measurable $\forall n$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ is such that

$$|f_n(x)| \leq g(x) \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ for some measurable } g \text{ with } \int |g| < \infty, \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int f_n d\mu = \int f d\mu.$$

Note: Dominated Convergence still holds if $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$ and $|f_n(x)| \leq g(x)$ holds $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

for almost all x , i.e., for all x except those in some set of measure zero.

"almost everywhere"

e.g., finitely many points

note: we often abbreviate:

- almost all $x = \text{a.a. } x$
- almost everywhere = a.e.

Fubini: If f is measurable with $\iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} |f(x,y)| dx dy < \infty$, then

$$\iint_{\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}} f(x,y) dx dy = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x,y) dy \right) dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x,y) dx \right) dy.$$

From now on, all integrals are meant in the Lebesgue sense, and we use the usual notations $\int f d\mu \equiv \int f(x) dx \equiv \int dx f(x)$.