Fundamentals of Quantum Mechanics

Postulates, Wave Functions, Operators, Observables, and Matrix Representation

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The Wave Function

Interpretation of the Double-Slit Experiment

Tonomura et al. (1989) Electron double-slit experiment

- A single electron passes through either one of the slits, A or B.
- The accumulated pattern looks like wave interference \rightarrow superposition
- The term wave function is assigned to the probability amplitude with

$$
P(x,y,z,t) \propto |\Psi(x,y,z,t)|^2
$$

where P is the probability of finding the particle at a position (x, y, z) at time t.

- $\blacktriangleright \Psi(x, y, z, t)$ is the so-called wave function.
- Note that $\Psi(x, y, z, t)$ can also be complex.

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The Free Particle

The Wave Function of the Simplest System

Definition

A free particle is a point particle, which is under no potential. Within the wave-particle duality, it can be seen as a de Broglie wave with a definite wave length extending over the entire space.

• The momentum of such a particle for a given wavenumber $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ is $p = \hbar k$ or in 3D $\vec{k} = \hbar \vec{k}$.

• Its energy is
$$
E = h\nu = \hbar\omega
$$
.

• To this particle, we assign a wave function

$$
\psi_p(x,t) = Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)}
$$

- This function represents a delocalized state, meaning the probability of finding the particle is equally distributed across all positions.
- The momentum is well-defined, but the position is completely uncertain (delocalized over all space). $\left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} \square & \rightarrow & \left\langle \begin{array}{ccc} \square & \rightarrow & \left\langle \begin{array}{ccc} \square & \square & \end{array} \right\rangle \end{array} \right. \right. \right. \left. \pm \begin{array}{ccc} \searrow & \left\langle \begin{array}{ccc} \square & \rightarrow & \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right. \end{array}$

The Free Particle

The Momentum Operator

- Let us try to a mathematical operator (inspired by the classical wave equation) to access the momentum from the wave function
- These mathematical constructs will be called the momentum and energy operators

$$
\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \hat{p}\psi_p(x,t) = \hbar k \psi_p(x,t) = p\psi_p(x,t)
$$

• The three-dimensional equivalent is

$$
\hat{\mathbf{p}} = -i\hbar \nabla
$$

where ∇ is the gradient operator in Cartesian coordinates.

• The components of the momentum operator are:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{p}} = \left(-i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial y}, -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)
$$

The Free Particle

Fourier Transform: Superposition of Momentum States

• A general wavefunction $\psi(x)$ can be written as a superposition of momentum eigenstates:

$$
\psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{\psi}(p) e^{ipx/\hbar} dp
$$

where $\tilde{\psi}(p)$ is the wavefunction in the momentum representation. • The function $\tilde{\psi}(p)$ is the Fourier transform of $\psi(x)$:

$$
\tilde{\psi}(\rho)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\psi(x)e^{-i\rho x/\hbar}dx
$$

This allows us to decompose any wavefunction into momentum eigenstates, linking the position and momentum representations.

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 $\left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right.$

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First Postulate: The State of a System

Postulate

At each instant, the state of a physical system is represented by a wave function $\Psi(\vec{r},t)$.

• If the wave function is to be interpreted as a probability amplitude, it must be true that:

$$
\int |\Psi(\vec{r},t)|^2 d\vec{r}=1
$$

This rule is called the *normalization* of the wave function.

• The quantity

$$
P(\vec{r},t)=|\Psi(\vec{r},t)|^2
$$

is interpreted to be the probability of the particle to be at position \vec{r} at time t.

Aside: The Dirac Bracket Notation

- Since we use a lot of integration in quantum mechanics, a convenient shortcut is often used.
- In this notation, the scalar product of two wave functions $\Psi_1(\vec{r})$ and $\Psi_2(vr)$ (drop time dependence for brevity) is denoted as

$$
\langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \equiv \int \Psi_1^*(\vec{r}) \Psi_2(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}
$$

• The two halves of the notation are called, respectively, the bra, and the ket

$$
\begin{aligned}\n\langle \Psi_1 | \to \mathsf{bra} \\
|\Psi_2 \rangle \to \mathsf{ket}\n\end{aligned}
$$

The bra and ket of a wave function are complex conjugates of one another

$$
\langle \Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle=\langle \Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle_{\text{tot}}^*
$$

Aside: The Dirac Bracket Notation

• Other properties:

$$
\begin{aligned} & \langle \textit{c} \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle = \textit{c}^* \langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2 \rangle \\ & \langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = 1 \end{aligned}
$$

• Two wave functions are said to be *orthogonal* if

$$
\langle \Psi_1|\Psi_2\rangle=0
$$

• The bra and ket can be used to represent wave functions in the space, momentum and any other representation. This is why they are usually refered to as abstract states of the system.

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Postulates of Quantum Mechanics

Second Postulate: The Superposition Principle

The Postulate

The states of a quantum system are linearly superposable.

• The space of states is a vector space, allowing superposition:

$$
|\psi\rangle = a_1|\psi_1\rangle + a_2|\psi_2\rangle
$$

where a_1 and a_2 are complex numbers.

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Third Postulate: Observables and Operators

Postulate

With every measurable quantity (observable) of the system, there is associated a linear operator.

• An operator \hat{A} acts on a ket $|\psi\rangle$ as:

$$
\hat{\mathsf{A}}|\psi\rangle\rightarrow|\psi'\rangle=\hat{\mathsf{A}}|\psi\rangle
$$

An operator is linear if

$$
\hat{\textbf{A}}|c_1\Psi_1+c_2\Psi_2\rangle=c_1\hat{\textbf{A}}|\Psi_1\rangle+c_2\hat{\textbf{A}}|\Psi_2\rangle
$$

• The eigenstate $|\psi_a\rangle$ of an operator \hat{A} is defined such that:

$$
\hat{\mathsf{A}}|\psi_{\mathsf{a}}\rangle=\mathsf{a}|\psi_{\mathsf{a}}\rangle
$$

where a is an eigenvalue.

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Third Postulate: Observables and Operators

• For example, the momentum operator \hat{p} in the position representation is given by:

$$
\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}
$$

and the position operator \hat{x} is simply:

$$
\hat{x}\Psi(x)=x\Psi(x)
$$

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Fourth Postulate: Measurement and Eigenvalues

Postulate

The only possible result of a measurement of an observable A is one of the eigenvalues of the corresponding operator \hat{A} .

- The totality of the eigenvalues of an operator \hat{A} is called the spectrum of \hat{A} : $\hat{A}|\psi_n\rangle = a_n|\psi_n\rangle$.
- Since the results of measurements are real numbers, the spectrum must also be real.

$$
\langle \psi_n | \hat{A} \psi_n \rangle = a_n \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle
$$

$$
\langle \hat{A} \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle = a_n^* \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle
$$

Since a_n must equal a_n^* , $\hat A$ must satisfy $\langle \hat A\psi_n|\psi_n\rangle=\langle \psi_n|\hat A\psi_n\rangle$ Such operators are called [He](#page-14-0)r[mi](#page-16-0)[t](#page-14-0)[ian](#page-15-0)[.](#page-16-0)

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Fourth Postulate: Measurement and Eigenvalues

The Hermitian conjugate of an operator is defined via

$$
\langle \phi | \hat{\mathbf{A}}^\dagger | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{\mathbf{A}}^\dagger | \phi \rangle
$$

• A Hermitian operator then satisfies

$$
\hat{A}^{\dagger}=\hat{A}
$$

where $\hat A^\dagger$ is the Hermitian adjoint (or conjugate transpose) of $\hat A$. **•** Example: The Hamiltonian operator \hat{H} is Hermitian and represents

the total energy of the system.

Fourth Postulate: Measurement and Eigenvalues

- When measuring an observable, the system collapses to an eigenstate of the corresponding operator.
- If \hat{A} is an operator with eigenfunctions ψ_n and eigenvalues a_n , then:

$$
\hat{A}\psi_n=a_n\psi_n
$$

 \bullet The probability of obtaining the measurement value a_n is given by:

$$
P(a_n)=|\langle\psi_n|\Psi\rangle|^2
$$

where $\langle \psi_n | \Psi \rangle$ is the projection of the wavefunction Ψ onto the eigenfunction ψ_n .

• This concept is central to quantum mechanics, where each measurement yields one of the eigenvalues of the corresponding operator. ◆ ロ ▶ → 何 ▶ → 三 ▶ → 三 ▶ → 三 ▶

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Fifth Postulate: The expectation value of an operator

Postulate

If a series of measurements is made of the observable A on an ensemble of systems, described by the wave function Ψ , the *expectation* or average value is

$$
\langle \hat{A} \rangle = \frac{\langle \Psi | \hat{A} | \Psi \rangle}{\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle}
$$

• The probability of obtaining an eigenvalue a_n when measuring an observable A is given by the square of the inner product of the state $|\psi\rangle$ with the eigenstate $|a_n\rangle$:

$$
P(a_n)=|\langle a_n|\psi\rangle|^2
$$

• After measurement, the system collapses into the eigenstate $|a_n\rangle$.

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Sixth Postulate: Time Evolution of a System

Postulate

The system evolves in time according to the time-dependent Schrödinger equation:

$$
i\hbar \frac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle = \hat{H}|\psi(t)\rangle
$$

where \hat{H} is the so-called *Hamiltonian* of the system.

• The Hamiltonian operator is given by

$$
\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V}
$$

where $\hat{\mathcal{T}} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$ is the kinetic energy operator and \hat{V} is the potential energy operator.

• The eigenvalues of the Hamiltonian operator are the energy spectrum of the system:

$$
\hat{H}|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle
$$

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Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle and Commutators Motivation

- Classical physics suggests that we can measure the position and momentum of any object with unlimited precision.
- In quantum mechanics, once, say, the momentum is measured, the wave function collapses to a momentum eigenstate and the particle then has equal probability of being at any point in space

This means that momentum and position cannot be measured simultaneously.

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle and Commutators

The Uncertainty Principle

- The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle states that certain pairs of physical quantities, such as position and momentum, cannot both be precisely measured at the same time.
- For two operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} , this principle is expressed as:

$$
(\Delta A)^2(\Delta B)^2 \geq -\frac{1}{4}(\langle [A, B] \rangle)^2
$$

where ΔA is the uncertainty in observable A and ΔB is the uncertainty observable B.

- This inequality defines a fundamental limit to the precision of measurements in quantum mechanics.
- This can be understood from the wave nature of particles: a wave localized in space has a wide spread in momentum.
- It also means that the order in which the momentum and position is measured also matters \rightarrow non-commutativi[ty](#page-21-0). QQ

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle and Commutators Commutativity

The Commutator

For two operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} , the *commutator* is defined as: $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$

- The commutator is also an operator itself.
- For position and momentum, we apply the commutator to a free particle in one-dimension

$$
[\hat{x},\hat{p}]Ce^{ikx} = Cx\left(-i\hbar\frac{d}{dx}\right)e^{ikx} - C\left(-i\hbar\frac{d}{dx}(xe^{ikx})\right) = i\hbar Ce^{ikx}.
$$

• The commutator between \hat{x} and \hat{p} is then

$$
[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar \longrightarrow \Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}
$$

• Those operators whose commutators are zero are said to *commute* [an](#page-22-0)[d](#page-24-0) can be measured simultanously, e.g. \hat{T} and \hat{p} 000

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Expanding a Wavefunction in a Basis

• Consider a Hermitian operator with normalized eigenstates $\{\phi_n\}$ such that

$$
\langle \phi_n | \phi_n \rangle = 1
$$

Now consider two separate eigentates with two unequal eigenvalues:

$$
\hat{A}|\phi_n\rangle=a_n|\phi_n\rangle\qquad\text{and}\qquad\hat{A}|\phi_m\rangle=a_m|\phi_m\rangle
$$

• Next, using the Hermiticity of \hat{A} , let us develop the expression

$$
(a_n-a_m)\langle\phi_n|\phi_m\rangle=\langle\hat{A}\phi_n|\phi_m\rangle-\langle\phi_n|\hat{A}\phi_m\rangle=0
$$

• Since $a_n \neq a_m$, then it must be true that $\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = 0$.

• The two eigenstates are then said to be orthonormal:

$$
\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} = \begin{cases} 0 & n \neq m \\ 1 & n = m \end{cases}
$$

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Expanding a Wavefunction in a Basis

Using the basis introduced in the previous slide, let us write a general wave function as

$$
\Psi(x)=\sum_{n}c_{n}\phi_{n}(x)
$$

• Here, the coefficients c_n are the projection of $\Psi(x)$ onto the basis functions:

$$
c_n = \langle \phi_n | \Psi \rangle = \int \phi_n^*(x) \Psi(x) dx
$$

- The choice of basis depends on the problem at hand. Common bases include:
	- Energy eigenstates (for the Hamiltonian)
	- Position or momentum eigenstates
	- Harmonic oscillator states, etc.

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Operators in a Basis Representation

- In the basis $\{\phi_n(x)\}\)$, operators can be represented by matrices.
- Consider an operator \hat{A} acting on the wavefunction $\Psi(x)$. The action of \hat{A} on a basis function is given by:

$$
\hat{A}\phi_n(x)=\sum_m A_{mn}\phi_m(x)
$$

where A_{mn} are the matrix elements of \hat{A} in this basis:

$$
A_{mn} = \langle \phi_m | \hat{A} | \phi_n \rangle
$$

- The operator \hat{A} , therefore, becomes a matrix **A** with elements A_{mn} in this basis.
- The matrix representation simplifies the computation of observables, eigenvalues, and eigenstates. QQQ

Vector Representation of the Wavefunction

• Once a basis is chosen, the wavefunction $\Psi(x)$ is represented by a vector of expansion coefficients:

$$
\Psi(x) = \sum_{n} c_n \phi_n(x) \quad \rightarrow \quad |\Psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}
$$

• Similarly, an operator \hat{A} is represented by a matrix A :

$$
\hat{A}|\Psi\rangle = Ac
$$

• For example, applying \hat{A} to $|\Psi\rangle$ results in a new wavefunction:

$$
\mathbf{A}\begin{pmatrix}c_1\\c_2\\ \vdots\end{pmatrix}=\begin{pmatrix}\sum_jA_{1j}c_j\\ \sum_jA_{2j}c_j\\ \vdots\end{pmatrix}
$$