Fundamentals of Quantum Mechanics

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

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September 25, 2024

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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

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

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

- $\Psi(x, y, z, t)$ 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

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

- 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).

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*

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

• The three-dimensional equivalent is

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

where $\boldsymbol{\nabla}$ 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 ψ(x) can be written as a superposition of momentum eigenstates:

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

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

$$ilde{\psi}({m p}) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\psi(x)e^{-i{m p}x/\hbar}dx$$

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



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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.

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• 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

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

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

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

$$\langle \Psi_1 | \Psi_2
angle = \langle \Psi_2 | \Psi_1
angle_{}^*$$

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Aside: The Dirac Bracket Notation

• Other properties:

$$egin{aligned} \langle c\Psi_1|\Psi_2
angle &= c^*\langle\Psi_1|\Psi_2
angle \ \langle\Psi|\Psi
angle &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

• 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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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.

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:

$$\hat{A}|\psi
angle
ightarrow |\psi'
angle = \hat{A}|\psi
angle$$

• An operator is linear if

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

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

$$\hat{A}|\psi_{a}
angle=a|\psi_{a}
angle$$

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.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \langle \psi_n | \hat{A} \psi_n \rangle & = & a_n \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle \\ \langle \hat{A} \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle & = & a_n^* \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle \end{array}$$

• 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 <u>Hermitian</u>.

Fourth Postulate: Measurement and Eigenvalues

• The Hermitian conjugate of an operator is defined via

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

• 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:

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

• 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.

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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

$$\langle \hat{A}
angle = rac{\langle \Psi | \hat{A} | \Psi
angle}{\langle \Psi | \Psi
angle}$$

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 |ψ⟩ with the eigenstate |a_n⟩:

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

• 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:

$${}^{ar{t}}\hbarrac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)
angle=\hat{H}|\psi(t)
angle$$

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

• The Hamiltonian operator is given by

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

where $\hat{T} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$ 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

- 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 → non-commutativity.

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

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

• Those operators whose commutators are zero are said to *commute* and can be measured simultanously, e.g. \hat{T} and \hat{p}_{ab} , \hat{z}_{ab} , $\hat{$

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Expanding a Wavefunction in a Basis

 \bullet 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:

$$\hat{A}|\phi_n
angle=a_n|\phi_n
angle$$
 and $\hat{A}|\phi_m
angle=a_m|\phi_m
angle$

• 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 acting on the wavefunction Ψ(x). The action of 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.

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Vector Representation of the Wavefunction

Once a basis is chosen, the wavefunction Ψ(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**:

$$\hat{A}|\Psi
angle={f Ac}$$

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

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