Section 1: How QM Works, Part 1

In these slides we will cover:

- The Schrödinger Equation
- The probability interpretation of the wavefunction
- The discrete nature of observables
- The correspondence between observables and operators
- Eigenfunctions, eigenvalues and their properties
- Measurement in Quantum Mechanics
- Expectation values

Particles and waves

In classical physics, we use Newton's
Laws to determine the equation of motion x(t) of a particle of mass m moving in a potential V(x):

$$F = m \; \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -\frac{dV}{dx}$$

• Equivalently, we can **conserve the energy** of the particle:

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 + V(x) = \text{Energy}$$



Particles and waves

 This picture cannot apply in the Quantum world, because particles behave like waves (see: the double-slit experiment)



• Since a wave is an **object extended in space**, we need to change how we describe a particle

The Schrödinger equation

• In Quantum Mechanics, the equation of motion of a particle in a potential V(x) is replaced by the **Schrödinger equation**:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\partial^2\Psi(x,t)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\Psi(x,t) = i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi(x,t)}{\partial t}$$

- The symbol $\hbar = h/2\pi$, where h is Planck's constant
- It's an equation for the wavefunction of the particle $\Psi(x, t)$. This looks complicated, but we'll soon see it's the same as:

Kinetic energy + Potential energy = Total energy

• The $i = \sqrt{-1}$ appearing in the Schrödinger equation looks strange – the wavefunction is a complex number in general!

The wavefunction

- The wavefunction Ψ that's the Greek letter "psi" is how we describe the state of a particle in Quantum Mechanics
- At a given time t, a particle is not at a fixed position x(t), but is in a state described as a **function of position**, $\Psi(x, t)$



• The wavefunction depends on the co-ordinates of a system and contains **all the information about the system**

Probability interpretation of the wavefunction

• What does the wavefunction mean? It's connected to the probability of the particle being in a particular position:

Probability of finding a particle in a range $x \to x + dx$ = $|\Psi|^2 dx$ Note: although Ψ can be a complex number, $|\Psi|^2 = \Psi \cdot \Psi^*$ is real, as it should be for a probability!

• The particle must be somewhere! Hence, these probabilities must sum to 1.0, which is known as the **normalisation** of Ψ :

 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(x,t)|^2 \, dx = 1$

• The probability interpretation of the wavefunction implies that Quantum Mechanics has a **statistical** or **indeterminate** nature

Discrete nature of observables

- In Quantum Mechanics, a measurement of a quantity can only produce discrete (specific) outcomes, not any value
- You have previously studied a particle in an infinite potential well, which has certain allowed energy levels (see recap on next slide)
- Another example is poor Schrödinger's cat, which only has 2 possible states ...



Discrete nature of observables

- In Physics 2A QM, you studied that a particle enclosed in an infinite potential well has discrete energies and wavefunctions
- We'll see this example again in Section 3!

Image credit: https://opentextbc.ca/universityphysic sv3openstax/chapter/the-quantumparticle-in-a-box/



Discrete nature of observables

- Physics is described in the language of mathematics; so we need a mathematical structure in which discrete values appear
- Welcome to the world of operators, eigenfunctions and eigenvalues! Please do not turn back!
- We can describe the mathematical framework of Quantum Mechanics by the following statement:

Each quantity we can observe is represented by a corresponding operator. If we measure that observable, we will always obtain a result which is one of the eigenvalues of the operator

• What do these words mean??

What is an operator?

An operator is a mathematical instruction which acts on a function to produce another function:

Operator acts on Function f(x) to produce Function g(x)

- Example: $\frac{d}{dx}$ is an operator which acts on a function f(x) to produce the derivative function $g(x) = \frac{df}{dx}$
- **Example:** $x \cdot ($ "multiply by x") is an operator which acts on a function f(x) to produce another function g(x) = x f(x)

Eigenfunctions and eigenvalues

 When an operator acts on some special functions – called the eigenfunctions of the operator – it returns the same function, scaled by a number – called an eigenvalue

 $\hat{A} \phi_n(x) = a_n \phi_n(x)$



 $\phi_n(x)$ is an **eigenfunction** – the subscript "*n*" labels the different eigenfunctions $(\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3, ...)$ a_n is the **eigenvalue** (number) corresponding to the eigenfunction $\phi_n(x)$

Eigenfunctions and eigenvalues

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$$\hat{A} \phi_n(x) = a_n \phi_n(x)$$

- As an example, let's consider the operator $\hat{A} = \frac{d}{dx}$ again
- $\phi(x) = e^{ax}$ is an eigenfunction of \hat{A} with eigenvalue a
- Why? Because $\hat{A}\phi(x) = \frac{d\phi}{dx} = a e^{ax} = a \phi(x)$ the operator has returned the same function, scaled by a number

Properties of the operators representing observables

Each quantity we can observe is represented by a corresponding operator. If we measure that observable, we will always obtain a result which is one of the eigenvalues of the operator



Properties of the operators representing observables

- The operators representing observables have **3 key properties**:
- 1. Their **eigenvalues are real** (not complex) numbers, so they can correspond to the results of physical measurements
- 2. Different eigenfunctions are **orthogonal**, which is defined by:

 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m^*(x) \phi_n(x) dx = \begin{cases} 1, & m = n & \text{Note: } \phi^* \text{ means the} \\ 0, & m \neq n & \text{ complex conjugate of } \phi \end{cases}$

3. Any other function f(x) can be expressed as a **linear combination of the eigenfunctions**, which we can write as:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} c_n \, \phi_n(x)$$

Properties of the operators representing observables

- We can use the energy eigenfunctions for the infinite potential well to illustrate **orthogonality**
- These sine functions average to zero if $m \neq n$, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m^*(x) \phi_n(x) dx = 0$
- If m = n, then $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi_n(x)|^2 dx = 1$, which is the same as normalising the eigenfunctions



Linear combinations of eigenfunctions

 We just mentioned that any function f(x) can be expressed as a linear combination of the eigenfunctions of an operator:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n} c_n \, \phi_n(x)$$

• We can determine the coefficients c_n using the orthogonality property. We can derive them by considering:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m^*(x) f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m^*(x) \sum_n c_n \phi_n(x) dx$$

Changing the order of
the integral and sum ...
$$= \sum_n c_n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m^*(x) \phi_n(x) dx$$

$$= c_m$$

This is equal to 1 if m = nand 0 otherwise

Measurement if $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ is an eigenfunction

- At the heart of Quantum Mechanics is the how the wavefunction is related to **measurement of observables**
- Suppose we measure a particular observable of a system (e.g. momentum, position, energy, angular momentum, etc.)
- Recapping ... this observable is represented by a corresponding operator (we will see some examples shortly)
- If the wavefunction of the system is an **eigenfunction** of the corresponding operator ($\Psi = \phi_n$), then the result of the measurement is the corresponding **eigenvalue**, a_n

Measurement if Ψ is not an eigenfunction

 If the wavefunction Ψ is **not** an eigenfunction of the corresponding operator, it can always be expressed as a **linear combination** of the eigenfunctions:

$$\Psi(x) = \sum_{n} c_n \, \phi_n(x)$$

- In this case, the result of the measurement may be any one of the eigenvalues a_n , with corresponding probabilities $|c_n|^2$
- Following the measurement, the wavefunction "collapses" and becomes the eigenfunction, $\Psi(x) = \phi_n(x)$
- If the observable is measured again, we'll find value a_n again

Measurement if Ψ is not an eigenfunction

Measurement changes the wavefunction, causing it to "collapse" into the eigenfunction corresponding to the result of the measurement. This ensures that future measurements of the quantity produce the same result.

 It is equivalent to opening the box containing Schrödinger's cat, and seeing the result!

[Yes, cat photos are an occupational hazard here.]



Measurement if $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ is not an eigenfunction

• This gives us the recipe for measurement in Quantum Mechanics, represented by the following flow chart!

The state of the particle is described by its wavefunction $\Psi(x)$



Measurement if $\boldsymbol{\Psi}$ is not an eigenfunction

Example: a particle in an infinite potential well in the range |x| < L is prepared in the wavefunction $\Psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5L}} \left[\cos \left(\frac{\pi x}{2L} \right) + 2 \sin \left(\frac{\pi x}{L} \right) \right]$. What energy states can be measured, and with what probabilities?

- The factor $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5L}}$ is to ensure $\Psi(x)$ is normalised: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(x)|^2 dx = 1$
- We notice that the terms in the square bracket are the 1st and 2nd energy eigenfunctions. Substituting these in, we find $\Psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\phi_1(x) + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\phi_2(x)$
- Hence, the possible measurements of the energy state are E_1 (with probability $|c_1|^2 = \left|\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\right|^2 = \frac{1}{5}$) and E_2 (with probability $|c_2|^2 = \left|\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\right|^2 = \frac{4}{5}$)
- The probabilities $\frac{1}{5}$ and $\frac{4}{5}$ sum to 1, as they should!

Expectation values

Although we can't predict exactly which value will result from a measurement (only their probabilities), we can predict the mean measurement, also known as the expectation value – which has the symbol of angled brackets, (a)

$$\langle a \rangle = \sum_{n} \operatorname{Prob}(n) a_{n}$$

• **Example**: what is the expectation value when a dice is thrown?

$$\langle a \rangle = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 2 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 3 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 4 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 5 + \frac{1}{6} \cdot 6 = 3.5$$

[Note: the value 3.5 cannot be obtained for any individual throw of the dice, but is the average over many throws!]



Expectation values

• In Quantum Mechanics, we have seen that $Prob(n) = |c_n|^2$

$$\langle a \rangle = \sum_{n} \operatorname{Prob}(n) a_{n} = \sum_{n} |c_{n}|^{2} a_{n}$$

- **Example**: for the particle in the infinite potential well 2 slides back, $\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{5}E_1 + \frac{4}{5}E_2$
- We can also find a general relation by substituting in $c_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x) \phi_n^*(x)$ and using the orthogonality relation:

$$\langle a \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x) \, \hat{A} \Psi(x) \, dx$$

Summary

The rules of Quantum Mechanics

- The state of a particle is described by the wavefunction $\Psi(x, t)$, which satisfies the Schrödinger equation, $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\Psi = i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t}$
- The probability of a particle being located at a position in the range [x, x + dx] at time t is $|\Psi(x, t)|^2$
- Physical observables are represented by operators, and the possible results of measuring an observable are the eigenvalues a_n of those operators
- Any wavefunction can be expressed as a linear combination of the eigenfunctions of these operators: $\Psi = \sum_n c_n \phi_n$. The probability of measuring the eigenvalue a_n is then $|c_n|^2$
- If a measurement of an observable yields a result a_n , the wavefunction collapses into the corresponding eigenfunction, $\Psi = \phi_n$