Quantum Mechanics

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Chapter 1

The wave function

1.1 The Schrodinger equation

Imagine a particle of mass m, constrained to move along the x-axis, subjet to some to specifies force F(x,t). The program of classical mechanics is to determine the position of the particle at any give time: x(t). Once we know that, we can figure out the velocity $(v=\mathrm{d}x/\mathrm{d}t)$, the momentum (p=mv), the kinetic energy $(T=(1/2)mv^2)$, or any other dynamical variable of interest. And how do we go about determining x(t)? We apply Newton's second law: F=ma. (For conservative systems—the only kins we shall consider, and, fortunately, the only kins that occur at the microscopic level—the force can be expressed as the derivative of a potential energy function 1 , $F=-\partial V/\partial x$, and Newton's law reads $m\mathrm{d}^2x/\mathrm{d}t^2=-\partial V/\partial x$) This, together with appropriate initial conditions (typically the position and velocity at t=0), determines x(t)

Quantum mechanics approaches this same problem quite differently. In this case what we're loocking for ir the particle's **wave function**, $\Psi(x,t)$, and we get it by solving the **Schrodinger equaation**:

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

This equation plays a role logically analogous to Newton's second law: Given suitable initial conditions (typically, $\Psi(x,0)$), the Schrodignes equation determines $\Psi(x,t)$ for all future time, just as, in classical mechanics, Newton's law determines x(t) for all future time.

1.2 The statistical interpretation

What exactly is this "wave function"? Born's **statistical interpretation** of the wave function, says that $|\Psi(x,t)|^2$ gives the **probability** of finding the particle at point x, at time t, or more precisely

$$\int_a^b |\Psi(x,t)|^2 \mathrm{d}x = \text{probability of finding the particle between } a \text{ and } b, \text{ at time } b$$
 (1.2) Statistical interpretation

¹Magnetic forces are an exception, but let's not worry about them just yet. By the eay, we shall assume for the moment that the motion is nonrelativistic (v << c)

Probability is the *area* inder the graph of $|\Psi(x,t)|^2$

Yhe statistical interpretation introduces a kind of **indeterminacy** into quantum mechanics, for even if you know evertything the theory has to tell you about the particle /to wit: its wave function, still you cannot predict with certainty the outcome of a simple experiment to measure its position— all quantum mechanics has to offer is *statistical* information about the *possible* results.

We say that the wave function **collapses**, upon measurement, to spike some point. There are, then, two entirely distinct kinds of physical processes: "ordinary" oenes, in which the wave function evolves in a leisurely fashion inder the Schrodinger equation, and "measurements", in which Ψ suddenly and discontinuously collapses 2 .

1.3 Probability

I will give some definitions. The total number is

$$N = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} N(j) \tag{1.3}$$

The probability of getting j is

$$P(j) = \frac{N(j)}{N} \tag{1.4}$$

In particular, the sum of all the probabilities is 1:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(j) = 0 \tag{1.5}$$

In general, the average value of some function of j es given by

$$< f(j) >= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} f(j) P(j) \tag{1.6} \label{eq:1.6}$$
 Average value of a function

In quantum mechanics the average is usually the quantity of interest; in that context it has come to be called the **expectation value**.

Now we need a numerial measure of the amount of "spread" in a distribution, with respect to the aveerge. The most obvious way to do this would be to find out how far each individual deviates from de average,

$$\Delta j = j - \langle j \rangle \tag{1.7}$$

and compute the average of Δj . Trouble is, of course, that you get zero, by the nature of the avergae, Δj is as often negative as positive. To avoid this irritating problem you might decide

²The role of measurement in quantum mechanics is so critical and so bizarre that you may well be wondering what precisely constitutes a measurement. Does it have to do with the interaction between a miscroscopic (quantum) system and a mecorscopic (classical) measuring apparatus (as Bohr insisted), or is it intervention of a conscious "oberver" (as Wigner proposed)? For the moment let's take the naive view: A measurement is the kind of thing that a scientist does in the laboratory, with rules, stopwatches, and so on

to average de absolute value of Δj . But absolute values are nasty to work with; instead, we get around the sign problem by squaring before averaging:

$$\sigma^2 \equiv <(\Delta j)^2>$$
 (1.8) Variance

This quantity is known as the **variance** of the distribution; σ itsel is called the **standard deviation**.

There is a useful little theorem pn variances:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\langle j^2 \rangle - \langle j \rangle^2} \tag{1.9}$$

1.4 Continous variables