

PYL101: EM Waves & Quantum Mechanics

Quantum Mechanics - Lecture 5

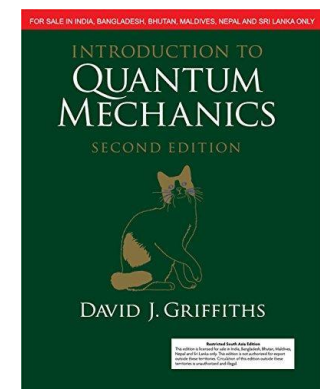
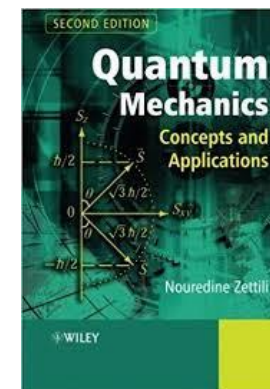
Brajesh Kumar Mani

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- **Schedule:** Monday & Thursday (8:00 – 9:30, Slot A)
- **TAs:**
Radhika T P (phz198033@physics.iitd.ac.in)
Manoj Singh (phz198494@physics.iitd.ac.in)
- **Tutorials:** From January 25th, Monday-Friday, 03:00PM-04:00PM

Reference Books



I will cover the following topics:

Module 8: Quantum Mechanical Operators: observables and operators, linear operators, eigenvalues and eigen vectors of operators, Hermitian operators, product of operators, expectation values and uncertainty relations,

Module 9: Time-Independent Schrodinger Equation: stationary states, free particle solution, bound states

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Module 10: One Dimensional Problems: 1-D infinite potential well, 1-D finite potential well, and quantum mechanical tunneling and alpha-decay.

(will be covered by Prof. Saswata Bhattacharya)

Birth of Quantum Mechanics

The “Classical Physics” fails miserably to explain

- the dynamics of the particles moving with very high speeds (comparable to the speed of light)
- the structure and dynamics of particles/systems at microscopic level. For example, the structure of atoms and molecules, and interaction with light.

1. The Particle-like Behaviour of Waves

- Black-body radiation (1900)
- Photoelectric effect (1905)
- Compton effect (1923)

2. The Wave-like Behaviour of Particles

- de Broglie hypothesis (1923)
- Electron diffraction (Davisson-Germer experiment) (1927)
- Wave particle duality

3. The Puzzling Stability of the Atom

- What is the origin of atomic spectra?

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Wave-Particle Duality: Complementarity

A quick revision of what you have done so far

Wave Function in Quantum Mechanics

Classical Mechanics:

We can determine all these properties by solving the Newton's equation with appropriate boundary conditions.

$$m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = F(x, t)$$



Given: mass, force acting on the mass

Wants to know: position, velocity, momentum and kinetic energy at certain time t

Quantum Mechanics:

“a microscopic particle”

In principle, we can determine all these properties if we know the wave function $\Psi(x, t)$ of the particle. And, the wave function can be obtained by solving the equation

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

BC: at $t = 0$, what is $\Psi(x, 0)$?

time dependent Schrodinger equation

A quick revision of what you have done so far

- Ψ is a continuous function.
- It represents the amplitude of the matter wave associated with particle.
- It contains the information about the probability that one would measure, but cannot give pre-determined results.

$$\int_a^b |\Psi(x, t)|^2 dx = \text{Probability of finding the particle between } a \text{ and } b \text{ at time } t$$

where, $|\Psi(x, t)|^2 = \Psi^*(x, t)\Psi(x, t)$, and $\Psi(x, t)$ represents the probability amplitude. **Statistical Interpretation (Born, 1926)**

- A wave function describing a particle at position x and time t can be represented by

$\Psi(x, t)$	Or	$\langle x, t \Psi \rangle$	or	$ \Psi \rangle$
(Ordinary representation)		(Dirac representation)		

- For every *ket* vector there is a corresponding dual vector, called the “*bra*” vector, which belongs to a dual vector space. That is,

$$|\Psi \rangle \longleftrightarrow \langle \Psi | \quad (\text{one-to-one correspondence})$$

New story begins
from here

- An operator is a mathematical object that maps one quantum mechanical wave function to other.

$$\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = \Phi(x, t)$$

old wave function new wave function

The diagram illustrates the action of a quantum operator. The equation $\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = \Phi(x, t)$ is centered at the top. Below it, the text 'old wave function' is on the left and 'new wave function' is on the right. A blue curved arrow originates from the $\Psi(x, t)$ term in the equation and points down to 'old wave function'. Another blue curved arrow originates from the $\Phi(x, t)$ term and points down to 'new wave function'.

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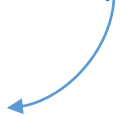

old wave function new wave function

The diagram illustrates the action of a quantum operator. The equation $\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = \Phi(x, t)$ is shown in blue. Below it, the text 'old wave function' is positioned under $\Psi(x, t)$ and 'new wave function' is positioned under $\Phi(x, t)$. Two blue curved arrows originate from the equation: one from $\Psi(x, t)$ pointing to 'old wave function', and another from $\Phi(x, t)$ pointing to 'new wave function'.

- For each observable (position, linear momentum, angular momentum, energy, etc.) in quantum mechanics, there is a corresponding operator.

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$$\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = \Phi(x, t)$$

old wave function  new wave function 

- For each observable (position, linear momentum, angular momentum, energy, etc.) in quantum mechanics, there is a corresponding operator.
- If we can write Φ in terms Ψ such that $\Phi(x, t) = a \Psi(x, t)$ then

$$\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = a \Psi(x, t), \text{ (the eigenvalue equation) Eq.(1)}$$

$\Psi(x, t)$ is called an eigenfunction of \hat{A} and a (a real number for physical systems) is the corresponding eigenvalue.

- If we cannot write Φ in terms of Ψ , $\Phi(x, t) = a \Psi'(x, t)$ then

$$\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) = a \Psi'(x, t), \text{ (Not an eigenvalue equation)}$$

$\Psi(x, t)$ is NOT an eigenfunction of \hat{A} .

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Physical interpretation of eigenvalue equation:

Case I: Consider that the particle is in the state $\Psi(x, t)$:

Using the eigenvalue equation, we can write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x, t) \left(\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) \right) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x, t) a \Psi(x, t) dx = a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(x, t) \Psi(x, t) dx = a$$

→ “if you do a measurement of the observable A , and if the particle is in state Ψ then measured value will be the eigenvalue of the operator \hat{A} ”

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The expectation value of the observable A in the state $\Psi(x, t)$. It can be denoted as $\langle A \rangle_{\Psi}$ or $\langle A \rangle$ or $\langle \Psi | \hat{A} | \Psi \rangle$.

“The expectation value of an observable is the average of repeated measurements on an ensemble of identically prepared systems”

“It is NOT the average of the repeated measurements on the same system”

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Case II: Consider that the particle is in any general state $\Phi(x, t)$:

Using the eigenvalue equation, we can write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi^*(x, t) \left(\hat{A} \Psi(x, t) \right) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi^*(x, t) a \Psi(x, t) dx = a \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi^*(x, t) \Psi(x, t) dx$$

→ if the particle is in the general state Φ then the measured value will be “ a ” with probability $|\Phi^* \Psi|^2$.

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the matrix element of the observable A with respect to states Φ and Ψ .
We denote it as $\langle \Phi | \hat{A} | \Psi \rangle$

Example of Operators

<u>Physical quantity</u>	<u>Operator</u>	<u>Operation</u>
Position (\vec{r})	\hat{r}	$r \Psi(r, t)$
Linear momentum (\vec{p})	$\frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla}$	$\frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla} \Psi(r, t)$
Angular momentum (\vec{L})	$\vec{r} \times \frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla}$	$(\vec{r} \times \frac{\hbar}{i} \vec{\nabla}) \Psi(r, t)$
Kinetic energy (T)	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2$	$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2\right) \Psi(r, t)$
Potential energy (V)	$V(\vec{r})$	$V(\vec{r}) \Psi(r, t)$
Total energy (E)	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 + V(\vec{r})$	$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2\right) \Psi(r, t) + V(\vec{r}) \Psi(r, t)$

... we will do more on this later....

Linear Operators

An operator \hat{A} is said to be linear if it obeys the distributive law. That is, for wave functions Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 , and complex numbers α and β , it satisfies the relation

$$\hat{A} (\alpha\Psi_1 + \beta\Psi_2) = \alpha (\hat{A} \Psi_1) + \beta (\hat{A} \Psi_2)$$

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Hermitian Operators

An operator \hat{A} is said to be Hermitian if for any two wave functions Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 , it satisfies the relation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi_1^* (\hat{A} \Psi_2) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\hat{A} \Psi_1)^* \Psi_2 dx$$

OR

An operator \hat{A} is said to be Hermitian if it is equal to its adjoint \hat{A}^\dagger . That is

$$\hat{A} = \hat{A}^\dagger \Rightarrow \langle \Psi_1 | \hat{A} | \Psi_2 \rangle = \langle \Psi_2 | \hat{A} | \Psi_1 \rangle^*$$

“→ any operator corresponding to a physical observable is a Hermitian operator”

“→ all quantum mechanical operators which represent physical observables are Hermitian”

Important Properties of Hermitian operators:

- The eigenvalues of the Hermitian operators are real.
- The eigenvectors corresponding to two different eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator are orthogonal to each other.



Homework problem 1

Projection operator

If $|\Psi\rangle$ is a normalized wave function, then the projection operator is defined as

$$\hat{P} = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi| \quad (\text{ket-bra}) \text{ (also called the outer product)}$$

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- Let's consider \hat{P} acting on a different state $|\Phi\rangle$

$$\hat{P}|\Phi\rangle = (|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|)|\Phi\rangle = |\Psi\rangle(\langle\Psi|\Phi\rangle) = (\langle\Psi|\Phi\rangle)|\Psi\rangle$$

→ it projects the state $|\Phi\rangle$ onto the state $|\Psi\rangle$ with probability $|\langle\Psi|\Phi\rangle|^2$

- It is Hermitian: $\hat{P}^\dagger = \hat{P}$

- It is idempotent $\hat{P}^2 = \hat{P}$

Homework problem 2

Product of operators

The product of two operators generally do not obey the commutative relation. That is

$$\hat{A} \hat{B} \neq \hat{B} \hat{A}$$

→ “the order of the application is important”. The operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} are called the non – commuting operators.

From above relation we can write: $\hat{A} \hat{B} - \hat{B} \hat{A} \neq 0 \Rightarrow [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \neq 0$

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$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = \hat{x} \hat{p}_x - \hat{p}_x \hat{x} = i\hbar$$

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- If $\hat{A} \hat{B} = \hat{B} \hat{A} \Rightarrow [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$, then \hat{A} and \hat{B} are called the “commuting operators”.

→ “ \hat{A} and \hat{B} can have the same eigen functions”.

Example: $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_y] = \hat{x} \hat{p}_y - \hat{p}_y \hat{x} = 0$

Example Problem 1:

Consider a state $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\phi_1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}|\phi_2\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}|\phi_3\rangle$ which is given in terms of three orthonormal eigenstates $|\phi_1\rangle$, $|\phi_2\rangle$ and $|\phi_3\rangle$ of an operator \hat{B} such that $\hat{B}|\phi_n\rangle = n^2|\phi_n\rangle$. Find the expectation value of \hat{B} for the state $|\psi\rangle$.

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Solution: If ψ is not normalized, the expectation value is $\langle \hat{A} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle \phi_1 | + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\langle \phi_2 | + \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}\langle \phi_3 | \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\phi_1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}|\phi_2\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}|\phi_3\rangle \right) \\ &= \frac{8}{10} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \hat{B} | \psi \rangle &= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\langle\phi_1| + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\langle\phi_2| + \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}\langle\phi_3| \right) \hat{B} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|\phi_1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}|\phi_2\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{10}}|\phi_3\rangle \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2^2}{5} + \frac{3^2}{10} \\ &= \frac{22}{10}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the expectation value of \hat{B} is given by

$$\langle \hat{B} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | \hat{B} | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \frac{22/10}{8/10} = \frac{11}{4}.$$

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Example Problem 2: Prove the commutation relations (a) $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar$ (b) $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_y] = 0$

Solution: (a) Let us assume $\psi(x)$ represent the wave function of the system. Then we can write

$$\begin{aligned} [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x]\psi(x) &= (\hat{x} \hat{p}_x - \hat{p}_x \hat{x})\psi(x) = x \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right) \psi(x) - \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right) x\psi(x) \\ &= -i\hbar x \frac{d\psi(x)}{dx} + i\hbar \psi(x) + i\hbar x \frac{d\psi(x)}{dx} \\ &= i\hbar \psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar$

Solution: (b) Using the wavefunction $\psi(x)$ we can write

$$\begin{aligned} [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_y] \psi(x) &= (\hat{x} \hat{p}_y - \hat{p}_y \hat{x}) \psi(x) = x \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dy} \right) \psi(x) - \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dy} \right) x \psi(x) \\ &= -i\hbar x \frac{d\psi(x)}{dy} + 0 + i\hbar x \frac{d\psi(x)}{dy} \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_y] = 0$