

## POSTULATES OF QM

[Φ2.2, Φ7.1, H2.1]

We will now formulate the basic set of postulates upon which quantum mechanics is built.

### A: THE OPERATOR POSTULATE

To each physical observable quantity  $F$  there corresponds in quantum-mechanical theory a linear operator  $\hat{F}$ .

For instance, in the position-space formulation

$$\begin{aligned} x &\rightarrow \hat{x} = x \\ p &\rightarrow \hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \end{aligned}$$

Observables must be real quantities

$\Rightarrow \hat{F}$  must be hermitian/self-adjoint.

### B: THE WAVEFUNCTION POSTULATE

The state of a system is described, as completely as possible, by the wavefunction  $\Psi(x, t)$ . The time development of the wavefunction (and hence of the state) is determined by the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \Psi,$$

where  $\hat{H}$  is the Hamiltonian of the system. Usually the Hamiltonian is the total energy of the system.

This is an equation of motion, which uniquely determines  $\mathcal{I}(q, t)$  given some initial condition  $\mathcal{I}(q_0, t_0)$ .

The concept of a Hamiltonian will become more familiar for those taking classical mechanics. See also Appendix A in Hemmer.

The postulate implies that it is not possible to obtain more information about a system than what is contained in  $\mathcal{I}(q, t)$ .

### C: THE EXPECTATION VALUE POSTULATE

When a large number of measurements of an observable  $F$  is made on a system which is prepared in a state  $\mathcal{I}(q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n, t)$  (before each measurement), the average  $\bar{F}$  of the measured values will approach the theoretical expectation value, which is postulated to be

$$\langle F \rangle = \int \mathcal{I}^* F \mathcal{I} d\tau$$

where  $d\tau = dq_1 dq_2 \dots dq_n$  and where the integration goes over the whole range of each of the variables.

$q_n$ : generalized coordinate.

Example  $x, y, z$  for free particle in 3D.

We are supposing that the wavefunction is normalized,

$$\int d\tau |\tilde{\Psi}|^2 = 1.$$

## D: THE MEASUREMENT POSTULATE

(i) The only possible result of a precise measurement of an observable  $F$  is one of the eigenvalues  $f_n$  of the corresponding linear operator  $\hat{F}$ .

(ii) Immediately after the measurement of the eigenvalue  $f_n$ , the system is in an eigenstate of  $\hat{F}$ , namely the eigenstate  $\psi_n$  corresponding to the measured eigenvalue  $f_n$ .

Which of the eigenvalues is measured, and the probability for each, depends on the state before the measurement.

## EXAMPLE - INFINITE SQUARE WELL

We will use this example as a chance to recap from Intro to QM, and see how some of the postulates come into play.

The Hamiltonian is given by

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(x),$$
$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x),$$

with potential energy function

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq L \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This describes a particle in an infinite, square well. According to postulate B, the system is best described by a wavefunction  $\Psi(x, t)$  which is a solution of

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \Psi, \quad (1)$$

so this is our starting point.  $\hat{H}$  does not depend explicitly on  $t$ , so we will solve the Schrödinger equation (SE) using separation of variables. We assume

$$\Psi(x, t) = \psi(x) \phi(t).$$

Inserted into the SE, we get

$$\left[ i\hbar \frac{d\psi}{dt} \right] \psi(x) = \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + V\psi \right] \psi$$

or

$$i\hbar \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{d\psi}{dt} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + V.$$

depends only  
on t

depends only on x

For this to always hold, both sides must be constant.

We therefore write:

$$i\hbar \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{d\psi}{dt} = E \rightarrow \psi(t) = \psi_0 e^{-iEt/\hbar}.$$

and

↑ can be absorbed  
into  $\psi$ .

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + V\psi = E\psi$$

This is often referred to as the time-independent Schrödinger equation. (TISE).

So far we have

$$\Psi(x,t) = \psi(x) e^{-iEt/\hbar}$$

We now need to find  $\psi(x)$  and  $E$ .

For  $x \leq 0$  and  $x \geq L$  we must have

$\psi = 0$ : a particle cannot be in an area with infinite potential, i.e. inside infinitely "hard walls". We therefore use the boundary conditions (BCs)

$$\psi(0) = \psi(L) = 0,$$

when solving the TISE

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = E\psi.$$

A general solution is

$$\psi(x) = C_1 \sin \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}} x + C_2 \cos \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}} x.$$

For simplicity we define

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}.$$

From  $\psi(0) = 0$  we get  $C_2 = 0$ . From  $\psi(L) = 0$  we get the condition

$$\psi(L) = C_1 \sin kL = 0$$

$$\rightarrow kL = \pi \cdot n, \quad n=0 \text{ just the}$$

$$k = \frac{\pi \cdot n}{L} \quad n=1,2,3\dots \text{ trivial solution.}$$

Negative solutions  $\rightarrow$

Hence, we have determined  $E$ :

$$E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2 \cdot n^2}{2m L^2}, \quad n=1,2,3\dots$$

But what is  $C_1$ ?

We said earlier that  $|\Psi|^2$  is interpreted as a probability density. From postulate C we also connect  $\Psi$  to expectation values of operators. What if we use  $\hat{F} = \hat{1}$ ?

$$\Rightarrow \langle 1 \rangle = \int dx \Psi^* \cdot 1 \cdot \Psi \cancel{\Psi} \\ = \int dx |\Psi|^2 = 1.$$

In other words, the total probability of finding a particle anywhere at all, must be 1. In our case:

$$1 = \int_0^L dx |\Psi|^2 = \int_0^L dx \left| \psi(x) e^{-iEt/\hbar} \right|^2 \\ = \int_0^L dx |\psi(x)|^2 = \int_0^L dx |C_1|^2 \sin^2 kx \\ = |C_1|^2 \frac{L}{2} \Rightarrow |C_1| = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}.$$

Choosing  $C_1$  to be real, we therefore have

$$\underline{\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} \cdot x\right)}, \quad n=1,2,3\dots$$

Note:

The wavefunctions are orthonormal

$$\int_0^L dx \psi_n^*(x) \psi_m(x) = \delta_{nm}.$$

The set of wavefunctions is complete:

Any other function can be expressed as  
a linear combination of them.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(x).$$

$c_n$  complex number.

The general solution to the SE is

$$\Psi(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \bar{\psi}_n(x, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t/h}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{+} i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(x, t) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n E_n \psi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t/h} \\ &\stackrel{!}{=} \hat{H} \Psi(x, t) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{\hat{H} c_n \psi_n(x)}_{= c_n E_n \psi_n(x)} e^{-iE_n t/h} \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n E_n \psi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t/h} \quad \text{OK.} \end{aligned}$$

Since the SE is linear, superposition  
of solutions works. That makes life easy!

Normalization:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^L dx \bar{\Psi}(x, t) \Psi(x, t) &= \sum_{n,m=1}^{\infty} c_n^* c_m \left[ \int_0^L dx \bar{\psi}_n(x) \psi_m(x) \right] \\ &= \sum_{n,m=1}^{\infty} c_n^* c_m e^{i(E_n - E_m)t/h} \delta_{nm} = \sum_n |c_n|^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

## Expectation values

We now use postulate C to calculate some expectation values: we choose

$$\psi(x, t) = \psi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

for simplicity, and calculate:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle E \rangle &= \int_0^L dx \psi_n^*(x) \hat{H} \psi_n(x) e^{-i(E_n - E_n)t/\hbar} \\ &= E_n \underbrace{\int_0^L dx |\psi_n|^2}_{} = E_n. \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \int_0^L dx \psi_n^*(x) \hat{x} \psi_n(x) = \int_0^L dx x |\psi_n(x)|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\langle p \rangle = 2 \int_0^L dx \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \left( -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right) \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$$

$$= \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L dx \left( -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right) \sin^2 \frac{n\pi x}{L}$$

$$= -\frac{i\hbar}{L} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \Big|_0^L = 0.$$

No time-dependence, since  $|\psi|^2 = |\psi_n|^2$  is time-independent. However, if we use a superposition of energy eigenstates

$$\psi(x, t) = c_1 \psi_1(x) e^{-iE_1 t/\hbar} + c_2 \psi_2(x) e^{-iE_2 t/\hbar}$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi(x, t)|^2 &= |c_1|^2 |\psi_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 |\psi_2|^2 \\ &\quad + c_1 \psi_1^* c_2 \psi_2^* e^{-i(E_1 - E_2)t/\hbar} \\ &\quad + c_1^* \psi_1 c_2 \psi_2 e^{+i(E_1 - E_2)t/\hbar} \end{aligned}$$

Assuming  $c_1, c_2, \psi_1, \psi_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ , we get

$$|\Psi(x,t)|^2 = |c_1|^2 |\psi_1(x)|^2 + |c_2|^2 |\psi_2(x)|^2 + 2 c_1 c_2 \psi_1(x) \psi_2(x) \cos\left(\frac{E_1 - E_2}{\hbar} t\right)$$

We have an oscillating probability density due to "interference" between the wavefunctions. This also leads to (potentially) time-dependent expectation values  $\langle x \rangle(t)$  and  $\langle p \rangle(t)$ .  
[See animation].

### Measurements

If we measure the energy of the system described by the state

$$\Psi = c_1 \psi_1(x) e^{-i E_1 t / \hbar} + c_2 \psi_2(x) e^{-i E_2 t / \hbar}$$

what values can be got? We can only get  $E_1$ , with a probability  $|c_1|^2$ , or  $E_2$ , with probability  $|c_2|^2$ , according to postulate D. Furthermore, right after measurement, giving e.g.  $E = E_1$ , the system will be in the state

$$\Psi = \psi_1 e^{-i E_1 t / \hbar}$$

This is sometimes referred to as "wavefunction collapse".

if we instead measure the position, and find the particle at position  $x'$ , the state immediately after the measurement is a position eigenstate:

$$\psi_{x'}(x) = \delta(x - x')$$

This is clearly not an energy eigenstate. What energies could you get if you now measured the energy of the system?

## TIME-DEPENDENCE OF EXPECTATION VALUE [H4.3]

From the simulation, we saw that the expectation values can have a time-dependence. In fact, we can find a general formula for the time-dependence of expectation values. Starting from

$$\langle F \rangle = \int \underline{Y}^* \hat{F} \underline{Y} d\underline{x},$$

we take the time-derivative of both sides:

$$\frac{d\langle F \rangle}{dt} = \int d\underline{x} \left[ \frac{\partial \underline{Y}^*}{\partial t} \hat{F} \underline{Y} + \underline{Y}^* \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial t} \underline{Y} + \underline{Y}^* \hat{F} \frac{\partial \underline{Y}}{\partial t} \right].$$

To proceed, we use the Schrödinger eq.

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \underline{Y}}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \underline{Y} \rightarrow \frac{\partial \underline{Y}}{\partial t} = -i\frac{\hat{H}}{\hbar} \underline{Y},$$

hence, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\langle F \rangle}{dt} &= \frac{i}{\hbar} \int d\underline{x} \left[ (\hat{H} \underline{Y})^* \hat{F} \underline{Y} + \underline{Y}^* \hat{F} \hat{H} \underline{Y} \right] \\ &\quad + \int d\underline{x} \underline{Y}^* \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial t} \underline{Y} \end{aligned}$$

We now use the fact that  $\hat{H}$  is hermitian,

$$\int d\underline{x} (\hat{H} \underline{Y})^* \underline{Y} = \int d\underline{x} \underline{Y}^* \hat{H} \underline{Y},$$

with  $\underline{\Phi} = \hat{F} \underline{Y}$ .

We then get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\langle F \rangle}{dt} &= \frac{i}{\hbar} \int d\tau \overline{\Psi} (\hat{H}\hat{F} - \hat{F}\hat{H}) \Psi \\ &\quad + \int d\tau \overline{\Psi} \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial t} \Psi \\ &= \frac{i}{\hbar} \langle [\hat{H}, \hat{F}] \rangle + \langle \frac{\partial \hat{F}}{\partial t} \rangle.\end{aligned}$$


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We'll call this Ehrenfest's generalized theorem.

If we assume a system described by

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(x)$$

and use  $\hat{F} = \hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}$ , we get

$$\frac{d\langle x \rangle}{dt} = \frac{\langle p \rangle}{m}$$

$$\frac{d\langle p \rangle}{dt} = -\langle V'(x) \rangle$$

This is known as Ehrenfest's theorem.

This is analogous to the classical equations

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{p}{m}$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -V'(x) = F.$$

The equations of motion for quantum mechanical expectation values of position, momentum and force coincide with the classical equations of (20)

motion - however, this does not mean generally  
that the mean position of a wavepacket  
follows the classical trajectory !

## MEASUREMENT OF A DEGENERATE EIGENVALUE

Φ7-2

If we measure an observable  $\hat{F}$ , and the measured eigenvalue is non-degenerate, i.e.

$$\hat{F}|\psi_n\rangle = f_n |\psi_n\rangle$$

has only one solution  $|\psi_n\rangle$  for the eigenvalue  $f_n$ , then from postulate D(ii), the system is in the state  $|\psi_n\rangle$  immediately after the measurement.

However, if eigenvalue  $f_n$  is degenerate, with degeneracy  $g_n$ , the eigenvalue equation has  $g_n$  solutions  $|\psi_{ni}\rangle$ ,

$$\hat{F}|\psi_{ni}\rangle = f_n |\psi_{ni}\rangle, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, g_n.$$

In this case we must formulate D(ii) more precisely, as we shall now see.

Assume discrete set of eigenvalues  $f_n$ , and an orthonormalized set of eigenfunctions

$$\{|\psi_{ni}\rangle \mid n=1,2,\dots; i=1,2,\dots, g_n\}$$

The eigenfunctions form a complete set, meaning the state prior to the measurement can be expanded

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_n \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} |\psi_{ni}\rangle$$

We find the expansion coefficients by projecting  $\Psi$  onto  $\psi_{ni}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \psi_{ni}, \Psi \rangle &= \left\langle \psi_{ni}, \sum_{n=1}^{g_n} \sum_{j=1}^{g_n} c_{nj} \psi_{nj} \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{g_n} \sum_{j=1}^{g_n} S_{nj} S_{ji} c_{nj} = c_{ni}.\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow c_{ni} = \int d\tau \psi_{ni}^* \Psi.$$

Considering a series of measurements of  $F$ , on  $\mathbb{F}$   
the expectation value is

$$\langle F \rangle = \sum_n P_n f_n,$$

with  $P_n$  the probability of measuring  $f_n$ .

From the expectation value postulate, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle F \rangle_{\Psi} &= \int d\tau \Psi^* \hat{F} \Psi = \int d\tau (\hat{F} \Psi)^* \Psi \\ &= \int d\tau \left( \sum_{n=1}^{g_n} \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} \hat{F} \psi_{ni} \right)^* \Psi \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} f_n \underbrace{\int d\tau \psi_{ni}^* \Psi}_{c_{ni}} = \sum_n \left( \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} |c_{ni}|^2 \right) f_n\end{aligned}$$

Both formulas valid for arbitrary state  $\Psi$ ;  
Hence, the probability of measuring eigenvalue  
 $f_n$  when the system is in the state  $\Psi = \sum_{n,i} c_{ni} \psi_{ni}$   
is

$$P_n = \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} |c_{ni}|^2.$$

In the non-degenerate case the corresponding  
relation is simply  $P_n = |c_{ni}|^2$ .

Notice that we may define

$$\mathcal{Y}_n = \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} \psi_{ni}$$

which has eigenvalue  $f_n$ , allowing us to write

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_n \mathcal{Y}_n.$$

$\mathcal{Y}_n$  is therefore the part of  $\mathcal{E}$  compatible with the eigenvalue  $f_n$ . Hence, D(ii) must be formulated:

Immediately after the measurement of the eigenvalue  $f_n$  the system is left in the normalized state

$$\frac{\mathcal{Y}_n}{\|\mathcal{Y}_n\|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} \psi_{ni}}{\left\| \sum_{i=1}^{g_n} c_{ni} \psi_{ni} \right\|}.$$

The part of  $\mathcal{E}$  not compatible with  $f_n$  "is removed" by the measurement. "Wavefunction collapse".

$\|\mathcal{Y}_n\|$ : norm of  $\mathcal{Y}_n$ .

EXAMPLE - 3D isotropic harmonic oscillator.

Recap: In 1D energies of harmonic oscillators is

$$E_n = \hbar\omega\left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right), \quad n=0,1,2\dots$$

with eigenfunctions  $\psi_n(x)$ .

In 3D we have the orthonormal eigenfunction set

$$\psi_{n_x n_y n_z} = \psi_{n_x}(x) \psi_{n_y}(y) \psi_{n_z}(z)$$

and energy eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned} E_{n_x n_y n_z} &= E_{n_x} + E_{n_y} + E_{n_z} = \hbar\omega\left(n_x + n_y + n_z + \frac{3}{2}\right) \\ &\equiv \hbar\omega\left(N + \frac{3}{2}\right) = E_N \end{aligned}$$

At  $t=0$  the oscillator is prepared in the state

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi = & \underbrace{\sqrt{0.4} \psi_{000}}_{\mathcal{I}_0} + \underbrace{\sqrt{0.1} (\psi_{100} + \psi_{010} + \psi_{001})}_{\mathcal{I}_1} \\ & + \underbrace{\sqrt{0.1} (\psi_{200} + i\psi_{020} + \psi_{011})}_{\mathcal{I}_2} \end{aligned}$$

We see that we have

$$\|\Psi\| = \|\mathcal{I}_1\| + \|\mathcal{I}_2\| + \|\mathcal{I}_3\| = 0.4 + 3 \cdot 0.1 + 3 \cdot 0.1 = 1.$$

$\mathcal{I}_0, \mathcal{I}_1$ , and  $\mathcal{I}_2$  have  $N=0, 1$  and  $2$ , respectively.

OK

The possible measured values for the energy are  $E_0 = \frac{3}{2}\hbar\omega$ ,  $E_1 = \frac{5}{2}\hbar\omega$  and  $E_2 = \frac{7}{2}\hbar\omega$ ,

with probabilities  $P_0 = 0.4$ ,  $P_1 = 0.3$  and  $P_2 = 0.3$ , respectively. The corresponding normalized states after measurement are

$$\frac{\Psi_0}{\|\Psi_0\|} = |\psi_{000}\rangle$$

$$\frac{\Psi_1}{\|\Psi_1\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (\psi_{100} + \psi_{010} + \psi_{001})$$

$$\frac{\Psi_2}{\|\Psi_2\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} (\psi_{200} + i\psi_{020} + \psi_{002})$$

## MOMENTUM EIGENFUNCTIONS

[H3.6.1]

The momentum eigenfunctions are solutions of the equation

$$\hat{p}\psi = p\psi.$$

Inserting  $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}$ , we get

$$-i\hbar \frac{d\psi}{dx} = p\psi,$$

which has solution

$$\psi_p = A e^{+ipx/\hbar}.$$

This describes a plane wave.  $p$  must be real for  $\psi_p$  not to diverge when  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ .

However,  $(\psi_p)^2 = |A|^2$  is a constant, so how do we normalize it?

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx |\psi_p|^2 \neq 1.$$

Instead, we use the normalization

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi_p^* \psi_p = \delta(p-p'),$$

where  $\delta(p)$  is the Dirac delta-function.

This is analogous to the relation

$$\int dx \psi_n^* \psi_n = \delta_{nn'}$$

seen earlier for discrete spectra.

The delta-function has the integral representation

$$\delta(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{iyx} dx$$

We compare with our S-function normalization:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx |A|^2 e^{+i(p-p')x/\hbar} = S(p-p').$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' e^{i(p-p')x'}$$

If we define  $x' = \frac{x}{\hbar}$ ,  $dx' = \frac{dx}{\hbar}$ ,

we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' \frac{1}{\hbar} |A|^2 e^{i(p-p')x'} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx' e^{i(p-p')x'},$$

$$\Rightarrow |A| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}.$$

Choosing a real A, we therefore have the plane-wave solutions

$$\psi_p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{ipx/\hbar}.$$

## PHYSICAL INTERPRETATION IN THE CONTINUOUS CASE

Q7.3

Momentum eigenfunctions

H25.2

$$\psi_p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{ipx/\hbar},$$

G3.4

$$\hat{P}_x \psi_p(x) = p \psi_p(x), \quad p \in (-\infty, \infty).$$

Using these as a basis, the expansion of an arbitrary quadratically integrable function becomes a Fourier integral. E.g. for time-dep. wavefunction

$$\Psi(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp \Phi(p, t) \psi_p(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi(p, t) = \langle \psi_p, \Psi(t) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi_p^*(x) \Psi(x, t),$$

which also depends on time.

Assume a series of measurements of the momentum  $P_x$  made on an ensemble prepared in the state  $\Psi$ . The expectation value is written on the form

$$\langle P_x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp P(p, t) p,$$

with  $P(p, t) dp$  the probability of finding  $P_x$  in  $[p, p+dp]$ , and  $P(p, t)$  is the probability in "p-space", at time  $t$ .

From the expectation-value postulate

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle p_x \rangle_{\bar{\Psi}} &= \int dx \bar{\Psi}^*(x,t) \hat{p}_x \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left( \hat{p}_x \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \right)^* \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \left( \hat{p}_x \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp \bar{\Phi}(p,t) \psi_p(x) \right)^* \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp p \bar{\Phi}^*(p,t) \left[ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi_p^*(x) \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \right] \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dp p |\bar{\Phi}(p,t)|^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the formulae for  $\langle p_x \rangle$  we see that  $P(p,t) = |\bar{\Phi}(p,t)|^2$ , and we get the following physical interpretation of the expansion coefficient:

When the system is in the state  $\bar{\Psi}(x,t)$  before the measurement, the probability of measuring  $p_x$  in the interval  $(p, p+dp)$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(p,t) dp &= |\bar{\Phi}(p,t)|^2 dp = |\langle \psi_p | \bar{\Psi} \rangle|^2 dp \\
 &= \left| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi_p^*(x) \bar{\Psi}(x,t) \right|^2 dp.
 \end{aligned}$$