Week 2

The Schrödinger Equation

2.1 Ehrenfest Theorem and Uncertainty Principle

• Announcement: PSet 1 due Friday at midnight.

• Recap.

1/8:

- $-\psi(\vec{r},t)$ is a wave function to which we associate a **probability density**.
 - \blacksquare Integrating this probability density over a volume yields the probability that the particle is in V.
 - \blacksquare Moreover, ψ is not arbitrary but must satisfy the Schrödinger equation.
- $-\hat{\vec{p}}$ is the momentum operator, defined as the differential operator $-i\hbar\vec{\nabla}$.
- Expressing the Schrödinger equation in terms of $\hat{\vec{p}}$, we see that it represents the application of a Hamiltonian operator in the usual form from last quarter (i.e., kinetic plus potential energy) to a certain function.
- $-\langle \hat{\vec{r}} \rangle$ is the mean position, and $\langle \hat{\vec{p}} \rangle$ is the mean momentum.
 - The mean position and mean momentum satisfy the classical relation, i.e., $d\langle \hat{\vec{r}} \rangle / dt = \langle \hat{\vec{p}} \rangle / m$.
- Probability density: The quantity given as follows. Given by

$$|\psi(\vec{r},t)|^2$$

- We now prove something even more amazing than the classical relation result: An analogy to the classical Newton's law.
- Ehrenfest's theorem: The time derivative of the expectation value of the momentum operator is related to the expectation value of the force $F := -\vec{\nabla}V$ on a massive particle moving in a scalar potential $V(\vec{r},t)$ as follows.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\langle \hat{\vec{p}}\rangle}{\mathrm{d}t} = \langle -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r},t)\rangle$$

Proof. Consider the Schrödinger equation:

$$-i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\vec{\nabla}^2\psi - V(\vec{r},t)\psi$$

Take the complex conjugate of it. This means that we're sending $i \mapsto -i$, keeping V fixed (it's real), and sending $\psi \mapsto \psi^*$ (the inclusion of i in the Schrödinger equation means that ψ is complex in general and thus has a nontrivial complex conjugate).

$$-i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi^*}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\vec{\nabla}^2\psi^* + V(\vec{r},t)\psi^*$$

We will use the above two equations to substitute into the following algebraic derivation.

$$\begin{split} \frac{\mathrm{d}\langle\hat{\vec{p}}\rangle}{\mathrm{d}t} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*}(-i\hbar\vec{\nabla}\psi) \right) \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \frac{\partial\psi^{*}}{\partial t} (-i\hbar\vec{\nabla}\psi) + \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*} \left(-i\hbar\vec{\nabla}\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} \right) \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \left[-i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi^{*}}{\partial t} (\vec{\nabla}\psi) \right] + \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*}\vec{\nabla} \left(-i\hbar\frac{\partial\psi}{\partial t} \right) \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \left[-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m}\vec{\nabla}^{2}\psi^{*}(\vec{\nabla}\psi) \right] + \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*}\vec{\nabla} \left(\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m}\vec{\nabla}^{2}\psi \right) \\ &+ \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \left[V(\vec{r},t)\psi^{*}(\vec{\nabla}\psi) + \psi^{*}\vec{\nabla}(-V(\vec{r},t)\psi) \right] \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*}\vec{\nabla}(-V(\vec{r},t)\psi) \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^{3}\vec{r} \; \psi^{*}(-\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r},t))\psi \\ &= \langle -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r},t)\rangle \end{split}$$

as desired.

- How does everything cancel from the long line to the following line in the above proof??
- In quantum mechanics, we have **observables** which are in one-to-one correspondence with operators.

Observables	Operators (\hat{O})
$ec{r}$	$\hat{ec{r}}$
$V(\vec{r},t)$	$\hat{V}(ec{r},t)$
$\hat{ec{p}}$	$-i\hbar \vec{ abla}$
\hat{H}	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\vec{\nabla}^2 + V(\vec{r},t)$

Table 2.1: Observables vs. operators.

- Recall that any Hermitian operator has a real observable.
- Define

$$\hat{O}_{ij} := \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_i^* \hat{O} \psi_j$$

- Then note that

$$\hat{O}_{ij} = (\hat{O}_{ji})^*$$

- Thus, an equivalent definition of a Hermitian operator is one such that the above equation is satisfied for all relevant i, j.
- Recall that the Schrödinger equation is linear.
 - Let $\psi = \sum_i c_i \psi_i$.
 - Then

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \hat{O} \psi = \sum_{i,j} \int d^3 \vec{r} \; c_i^* \psi_i^* \hat{O} c_j \psi_j = \sum_{i,j} c_i^* c_j \hat{O}_{ij}$$

is real.

- Takeaway: Averages over arbitrary wavefunctions are real.
- Similarly, suppose that \vec{r} is Hermitian. Then any function $V(\vec{r})$ of it is also Hermitian.
- Once again,

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_i^*(-i\hbar \vec{\nabla} \psi_j) = \left(\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_j^*(-i\hbar \vec{\nabla} \psi_i)\right)^* = \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_j(i\hbar \vec{\nabla} \psi_i^*) \to -\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} \psi_j(i\hbar \psi_i^*)$$

Involves integration by parts?? Perhaps via

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_j (i\hbar \vec{\nabla} \psi_i^*) = i\hbar \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} (\psi_j \psi_i^*) - \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} \psi_j (i\hbar \psi_i^*)$$

$$= i\hbar \vec{\nabla} \int d^3 \vec{r} \; (\psi_j \psi_i^*) - \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} \psi_j (i\hbar \psi_i^*)$$

$$= i\hbar \vec{\nabla} 0 - \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} \psi_j (i\hbar \psi_i^*)$$

$$= - \int d^3 \vec{r} \; \vec{\nabla} \psi_j (i\hbar \psi_i^*)$$

What is the takeaway??

- Linear algebra analogy.
 - Recall that we can write any vector \vec{v} componentwise as $\vec{v} = v_x \vec{x} + v_y \vec{y} + v_z \vec{z}$.
 - We can apply matrices A to such vectors to generate other vectors via $A\vec{v} = \vec{v}'$ and the like.
 - Lastly, we have an inner product \cdot such that $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \delta_{ab}$, where a, b = x, y, z.
 - On an infinite-dimensional vector space, such as that containing all the ψ , we still can decompose $\psi = \sum_n c_n \psi_n$ into an infinite sum of basis components, apply operators $\hat{O}\psi = \psi'$, and have an inner product $\int d^3\vec{r} \ \psi_m^* \psi_n = \delta_{mn}$.
 - Another analogy: Like the inner product of a vector and unit vector is the component of the vector in that direction (e.g., $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{x} = v_x$), we have

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_m^* \psi = \int d^3 \vec{r} \psi_m^* \sum_n c_n \psi_n = c_m$$

– One more analogy: $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} = A_{xx}$ is like $\langle \psi_i | \hat{O} | \psi_i \rangle = \hat{O}_{ii}$.

2.2 Time-Independent Potentials

- 1/10: Recap of important equations.
 - Momentum and Hamiltonian operators.
 - Schrödinger equation.
 - Expectation values of \vec{x} and \vec{p} , the classical relation between them, and Ehrenfest's theorem.
 - Hermitian operator condition.
 - The fact that their observables are real.
 - Examples: $\hat{\vec{p}}$, \hat{H} , $\hat{\vec{p}}^2/2m$, $V(\vec{r},t)$.
 - Adjoint (of \hat{O}): The operator defined according to the following rule. Denoted by \hat{O}^{\dagger} . Constraint

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \, \psi_i^* \hat{O} \psi_j = \int d^3 \vec{r} \, (\hat{O}^\dagger \psi_i)^* \psi_j$$

– A self-adjoint (Hermitian) operator is an operator satisfying $\hat{O} = \hat{O}^{\dagger}$.

- Dirac notation.
 - Associate with each $\psi(\vec{r},t)$ a "ket" $|\psi\rangle$ and a "bra" $\langle\psi|$.
 - These are like vectors:
 - The full "bra-ket" $\langle \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle := \int d^3 \vec{r} \ \psi_i^* \psi_j$.
 - We also have $\langle \psi_i | \hat{O} | \psi_j \rangle := \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi_i^* \hat{O} \psi_j$
- The condition for an operator being Hermitian/self-adjoint in Dirac notation:

$$\langle \psi_i | \hat{O} | \psi_j \rangle = \left\langle \psi_i | \hat{O} \psi_j \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{O}^\dagger \psi_i | \psi_j \right\rangle$$

• We also have that

$$\langle \psi_i | \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 | \psi_j \rangle = \left\langle \psi_i \middle| \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 \psi_j \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{O}_1^{\dagger} \psi_i \middle| \hat{O}_2 \psi_j \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{O}_2^{\dagger} \hat{O}_1^{\dagger} \psi_i \middle| \psi_j \right\rangle$$

- This is very relevant to PSet 1, Q3a!
- Dirac notation allows us to represent complicated expressions such as

$$\int d^3 \vec{r} \ {\psi'}^* \psi = \left(\int d^3 \vec{r} \ \psi^* \psi' \right)^*$$

in the form

$$\langle \psi | \psi' \rangle = (\langle \psi' | \psi \rangle)^*$$

• In Dirac notation, the Hermitian condition becomes

$$\left\langle \psi_i \middle| \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 \psi_j \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1 \psi_i \middle| \psi_j \right\rangle$$

• We also have that

$$\left\langle \psi_i \middle| \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 \psi_j \right\rangle = \left(\left\langle \psi_j \middle| \hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1 \psi_i \right\rangle \right)^*$$

- This is also relevant to PSet 1, Q3a!
- This last statement has some consequences.
 - In particular, if $\psi_i = \psi_j = \psi$, then

$$\left\langle \psi \middle| \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 \psi \right\rangle = \left(\left\langle \psi \middle| \hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1 \psi \right\rangle \right)^*$$

- Thus, by adding and subtracting the quantities in the above result, we learn that

$$\left\langle \psi \middle| (\hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 - \hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1) \psi \right\rangle$$

is an imaginary number and

$$\left\langle \psi \middle| (\hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 + \hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1) \psi \right\rangle$$

is a real number.

- Example: The commutator of the position and momentum operators gives a purely imaginary number.
 - We have that

$$[\hat{\vec{p}}_x, \hat{x}]f = (\hat{\vec{p}}_x x - x\hat{\vec{p}}_x)f = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xf) + xi\hbar \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial x}{\partial x}f - i\hbar x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + i\hbar x\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = -i\hbar f$$

- Thus,

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

as desired.

- Can ψ_n be an eigenstate of \hat{O}_1 and \hat{O}_2 simultaneously?
 - In the mold of a typical eigenvalue equation $A\vec{x}_n = \lambda_n \vec{x}_n$, let

$$\hat{O}\psi_n = O_n\psi_n$$

$$\hat{O}_1 \psi_n = O_{1,n} \psi_n$$

$$\hat{O}_2\psi_m' = O_{2,m}\psi_m'$$

- Then we have that

$$\hat{O}_1 \psi_n = O_{1,n} \psi_n$$

$$\hat{O}_2 \hat{O}_1 \psi_n = O_{1,n} \hat{O}_2 \psi_n = O_{1,n} O_{2,n} \psi_n$$

and

$$\hat{O}_2 \psi_n = O_{2,n} \psi_n$$

$$\hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 \psi_n = O_{2,n} \hat{O}_1 \psi_n = O_{2,n} O_{1,n} \psi_n$$

- These are the relevant constraints.
- If such a ψ_n exists, then we can determine the values of \hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2 simultaneously to infinite precision.
- The commutator is associated with a compatible observable.
 - In particular, when two operators commute, we say that the associated physical observables are compatible.
- Because waves move in a wave packet, there is some uncertainty in the position.
 - In particular, the uncertainty of \hat{A} in a given state ψ is

$$\langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^2 | \psi \rangle$$

- An alternate form of this expression is

$$\langle \psi | \langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{A} \rangle^2 | \psi \rangle$$

- Wagner proves this as in MathChapter B from CHEM26100Notes.
- Wave packet: It is a continuous sum of waves of different frequencies.
- If ψ_n is an eigenstate of \hat{A} ...
 - Then

$$\langle \psi_n | \hat{A} | \psi_n \rangle = A_n \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle = A_n$$

Similarly,

$$\langle \psi_n | \hat{A}^2 | \psi_n \rangle = A_n^2 \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle = A_n^2$$

- Therefore, the uncertainty of \hat{A} in an eigenstate is $A_n^2 (A_n)^2 = 0$.
- Note that the condition " ψ is an eigenstate of \hat{A} " can be denoted via $\hat{A} |\psi_n\rangle = A_n |\psi_n\rangle$.
- Heisenberg uncertainty principle. Given by

$$\sigma_x \sigma_{p_x} \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

- Why is this the case? It is related to $[p_x, x] = -i\hbar$.
 - The full derivation is in the notes (transcribed below), but for now, know that it is a general fact that

$$\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 \ge \frac{1}{4} |\langle \psi | [A, B] | \psi \rangle|^2$$

- We demonstrate this via the **Schwarz inequality**.
- One thing is always complex; the other is always real.
- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Given by

$$(f,f)(g,g) \ge |(f,g)|^2$$

- -(f,g) denotes the inner product of f and g, where f,g are elements of an abstract vector space.
- Schwarz inequality. Given by

$$\left(\int d^3 \vec{r} |f|^2\right) \left(\int d^3 \vec{r} |g|^2\right) \ge \left|\int d^3 \vec{r} fg^*\right|^2$$

- In Dirac's notation, this is

$$\langle f|f\rangle \cdot \langle g|g\rangle \ge |\langle f|g\rangle|^2$$

- Full derivation of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle.
 - Apply the Schwarz inequality to $f = (\hat{A} \langle \hat{A} \rangle)\psi$ and $g = (\hat{B} \langle \hat{B} \rangle)\psi$, for \hat{A}, \hat{B} Hermitian.
 - Recall that the following identities hold for Hermitian/self-adjoint operators.

$$\langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi' \rangle = \left\langle \psi \middle| \hat{A} \psi' \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{A} \psi \middle| \psi' \right\rangle \qquad \langle \psi | \hat{A}^2 | \psi' \rangle = \left\langle \hat{A} \psi \middle| \hat{A} \psi' \right\rangle$$

- Consequently, we have that

$$\begin{split} \sigma_A^2 \cdot \sigma_B^2 &= \langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^2 | \psi \rangle \cdot \langle \psi | (\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle)^2 | \psi \rangle \\ &= \left\langle (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle) \psi \middle| (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle) \psi \right\rangle \cdot \left\langle (\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle) \psi \middle| (\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle) \psi \right\rangle \\ &\geq \left| \left\langle (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle) \psi \middle| (\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle) \psi \right\rangle \right|^2 \\ &= \left| \langle \psi | (\underbrace{\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle}_{\Delta \hat{A}}) (\underbrace{\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle}_{\Delta \hat{B}}) | \psi \rangle \right|^2 \end{split}$$

Now, any product of operators can be expressed as one half of the sum of the **commutator** and the **anticommutator**. Thus, continuing,

$$\begin{split} &= \left| \left\langle \psi \right| \frac{1}{2} ([\Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B}] + \{\Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B}\}) |\psi\rangle \left|^2 \right. \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left| \left\langle \psi | [\Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B}] + \{\Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B}\} |\psi\rangle \left|^2 \right. \end{split}$$

Recall from above that the mean value of the commutator is an imaginary number and the mean value of the anticommutator is a real number. Thus, if we split the above equation into two terms, the mean value of the anticommutator will be squared, hence a positive number that we can get rid of and maintain the inequality. Lastly, we can compute that $[\Delta \hat{A}, \Delta \hat{B}] = [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$. Therefore,

$$\geq \frac{1}{4} \Big| \left\langle \psi | [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] | \psi \right\rangle \Big|^2$$

- Example: Since $[p_x, x] = -i\hbar$, we can recover the Heisenberg uncertainty principle from the above inequality.
- There's some stuff in the notes that is very relevant to PSet 1, Q3b.
- Commutator (of \hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2): The operator defined as follows. Denoted by $[\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2]$. Given by

$$[\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2] = \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2 - \hat{O}_1 \hat{O}_2$$

• Anticommutator (of \hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2): The operator defined as follows. Denoted by $\{\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2\}$. Given by

$$\{\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2\} = \hat{O}_1\hat{O}_2 + \hat{O}_2\hat{O}_1$$

2.3 Office Hours (Matt)

- PSet1, Q2a: Conceptual reason why the first term in the integration by parts vanishes?
 - Boundary conditions in each of the three directional integrals.
- Quite heavily attended, but Matt still got around.

2.4 Discussion Section

- There's not that much content to go over today, so we'll talk about some more mathematical tools like the Dirac delta function and Fourier transforms.
- Dirac delta function: The function defined as follows. Denoted by $\delta(x-x_0)$. Given by

$$\delta(x - x_0) = \begin{cases} \infty & x = x_0 \\ 0 & x \neq x_0 \end{cases}$$

- Useful for solving the Schrödinger equation; this is a potential that we'll solve for.
- Important application:

$$\int_{a}^{b} dx \, \delta(x - x_0) f(x) = \begin{cases} f(x_0) & x_0 \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Examples.

1.

$$\int_{-5}^{5} dx \, \delta(x+4)(x^2 - 3x + 4) = x^2 - 3x + 4 \bigg|_{x=-4} = 32$$

2.

$$\int_0^\infty \delta(x+\pi)\cos(x) = 0$$

- Because $x_0 = -\pi \notin [0, \infty)$.
- Defining a notion of equality.
 - Let $D_1(x), D_2(x)$ be functions of the δ -function.
 - $\blacksquare \text{ Example: } D_1(x) = \delta(x+3)e^{-3x^2}.$
 - We say that $D_1(x) = D_2(x)$ if

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, D_1(x) f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, D_2(x) f(x)$$

for any smooth function f.

- δ -function equalities.
 - 1. $x\delta(x) = 0$.
 - 2. $\delta(x) = \delta(-x)$.
 - 3. $\delta(cx) = \frac{1}{|c|}\delta(x)$.
 - 4. $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \delta(a-x)\delta(x-b) = \delta(a-b).$
 - 5. $g(x)\delta(x-a) = g(a)\delta(x-a)$.
- These equalities will probably come in handy when we start working with the δ -function.
- We can prove these five equalities with the notion of equality defined above.
- Example: Proving equality 1.

Proof. Let $D_1(x) = x\delta(x)$ and $D_2(x) = 0$. Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \delta(x) x f(x) = \left. x f(x) \right|_{x=0} = 0$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, 0 f(x) = 0$$

It follows by transitivity that the two integrals equal each other, so we must have $x\delta(x)=0$ as desired.

• Equality 4 is the hardest to prove. We will have a constant $D_1(x)$ equal to

$$D_1(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \, \delta(a-y) \delta(y-b)$$

- Fourier transforms (FT) of δ -functions.
- Recall:
 - The FT of the function $\phi(x)$ is

$$\tilde{\phi}(k) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{e}^{-ikx} \phi(x)$$

- The inverse FT is

$$\phi(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \mathrm{e}^{ikx} \tilde{\phi}(k)$$

• We call the FT of $\delta(x-x_0)$ the function

$$\tilde{\phi}(k; x_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, e^{-ikx} \delta(x - x_0) = \left. \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-ikx} \right|_{x = x_0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-ikx_0}$$

• In addition:

$$\delta(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \, e^{ikx} \qquad \qquad \tilde{\delta}(k) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, e^{-ikx}$$

- Matt explains the FT in terms of decomposing sums of sines and cosines.
- Now the physics starts!

- Expectation values.
- So far, we have the wavefunction $\psi(x)$, which mysteriously contains information on the particle.
 - It solves the Schrödinger equation.
- $|\psi(x)|^2$ gives the probability density of finding the particle at x.
- The expectation value of some function f(x) is

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \psi^*(x) f(x) \psi(x)$$

• 1D momentum \hat{p} can be written as the operator $-i\hbar \partial/\partial x$. Thus,

$$\langle p \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \psi^* = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \psi^* \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right)$$

– This holds for n^{th} powers:

$$\langle \hat{p}^n \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \psi^* (-i\hbar)^n \frac{\partial^n \psi}{\partial x^n}$$

• Example (PSet 1, Q2): Prove that

$$\langle f(p) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk \, f(\hbar k) |\tilde{\psi}(k)|^2$$

Proof. Start from

$$\langle f(p) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \psi^*(x) f(p) \psi(x)$$

Taylor expand about f(0):

$$f(p) = f(0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial p} \Big|_{p=0} p + \frac{1}{2!} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial p^2} \Big|_{p=0} p^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \psi^*(x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0} p^n \psi(x)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \, \psi^*(x) p^n \psi(x)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0} \langle p^n \rangle$$

This holds when

$$\begin{split} \langle p^n \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \psi^*(x) (-i\hbar)^n \frac{\partial^n \psi}{\partial x^n} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \mathrm{e}^{ikx} \psi(x) \right)^* (-i\hbar)^n \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}\ell \, \mathrm{e}^{i\ell x} \tilde{\psi}(\ell) \right) \\ &= \frac{(-i\hbar)^n}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}\ell \, \mathrm{e}^{-ikx} \tilde{\psi}^*(k) \tilde{\psi}(\ell) \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} \left(\mathrm{e}^{i\ell x} \right) \\ &= \frac{(-i\hbar)^n}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{d}k \, \mathrm{d}\ell \, \mathrm{e}^{-ikx} \tilde{\psi}^*(k) \tilde{\psi}(\ell) (i\ell)^n \mathrm{e}^{i\ell x} \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}\ell \, \tilde{\psi}^*(k) \tilde{\psi}(\ell) (\ell\hbar)^n \, \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}x \, \mathrm{e}^{i(\ell-k)x} \right| \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \tilde{\psi}^*(k) \tilde{\psi}(\ell) (\ell\hbar)^n \, \left| \frac{1}{\ell=k} \right| \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, \tilde{\psi}^*(k) \tilde{\psi}(k) (k\hbar)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \, \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, (k\hbar)^n |\tilde{\psi}(k)|^2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, |\tilde{\psi}(k)|^2 \int_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} \, \frac{\partial^n f}{\partial p^n} \Big|_{p=0} (k\hbar)^n \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{d}k \, |\tilde{\psi}(k)|^2 f(k\hbar) \end{split}$$

- This example is much more complicated than the PSet. If we can understand 50% of it, we'll be great. If we didn't understand any of it, no worries.
- It sounds like we're not required to come to discussion session this quarter either.

2.5 Simple Cases of Time-Independent Potentials

- Super snowy day, his wife told him only 5 students will show up, he takes a pic of the filled lecture hall with a kid at the front holding up a sign that says "We are more than 5," lol!!
 - Review of equations.

1/12:

- The operators $\hat{H}, \hat{\vec{p}}, \hat{\vec{r}}, \hat{V}$
- The commutator $[p_i, r_j] = -i\hbar \delta_{ij}$
- The relation between $\langle \hat{\vec{r}} \rangle$ and $\langle \hat{\vec{p}} \rangle$, and Ehrenfest's theorem.
- The Schrödinger equation.
- The following equality from last time

$$\left\langle \psi \middle| \hat{O}\psi \right\rangle = \left\langle \hat{O}^\dagger \psi \middle| \psi \right\rangle = \left\langle \psi \middle| \hat{O} \middle| \psi \right\rangle = \int \mathrm{d}^3\vec{r} \; \psi^* \hat{O}\psi$$

– A Hermitian operator is one for which $\hat{O}^{\dagger} = \hat{O}$.

- These have real mean values and observables.
- Incompatible (operators): Two operators \hat{O}_1 , \hat{O}_2 for which the following condition is met. Constraint

$$[\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2] \neq 0$$

- Means that you can't simultaneously determine the values of the observables associated with \hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2 with infinite precision.
- Mathematically, this means that

$$\sigma_{\hat{O}_1}\sigma_{\hat{O}_2} \ge \frac{1}{2} \left| \langle \psi | [\hat{O}_1, \hat{O}_2] | \psi \rangle \right|$$

- We now start discussing time-independent potentials.
- What is important about these in classical mechanics?
 - Energy is conserved.
 - Classically, we demonstrated this by taking the equation

$$\vec{v} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(m \frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{r}}{\mathrm{d}t} \right) = -\vec{\nabla}V(\vec{r}) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}\vec{r}}{\mathrm{d}t}$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\frac{m\vec{v}^2}{2} \right) = -\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}(V(\vec{r}))$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\frac{m\vec{v}^2}{2} + V(\vec{r}) \right) = 0$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}E}{\mathrm{d}t} = 0$$

• The equivalent expression in quantum mechanics is that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\langle \psi | \hat{H} | \psi \rangle \right) = 0$$

- We now prove this expression.
- Start by considering the time variation of a generic Hermitian operator \hat{O} , i.e., we want

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \hat{O} \psi \right) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle \right)$$

- Essentially, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \Big(\langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle \Big) &= \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \hat{O} \psi + \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} \psi + \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \hat{O} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \hat{O} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} + \langle \psi | \frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} | \psi \rangle + \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \left(\hat{O} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \right)^* \psi \\ &= \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \left[\hat{O} \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} \psi \right) \right]^* \psi + \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{O} \hat{H} \psi \right) + \left\langle \psi \left| \frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} \right| \psi \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{i}{\hbar} \int \mathrm{d}^3 \vec{r} \; \psi^* (\hat{H} \hat{O} - \hat{O} \hat{H}) \psi + \left\langle \psi \left| \frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} \right| \psi \right\rangle \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \Big(\langle \psi | \hat{O} | \psi \rangle \Big) &= \frac{i}{\hbar} \; \langle \psi | [\hat{H}, \hat{O}] | \psi \rangle + \left\langle \psi \left| \frac{\partial \hat{O}}{\partial t} \right| \psi \right\rangle \end{split}$$

■ In the first step, we move the derivative into the integral and do a tripartite product rule.

- The last statement above is a general statement that applies to all Hermitian operators \hat{O} , that is, all observables.
- Now, we can simply plug in $\hat{O} = \hat{H}$. Since the commutator of the Hamiltonian with itself is zero and $\partial \hat{H} / \partial t = 0$ by hypothesis (for a time-independent potential), we have that $d/dt (\langle \psi | \hat{H} | \psi \rangle) = 0$, as desired.
- Wagner reproves that $[\hat{\vec{p}}_x, \hat{\vec{x}}] = -i\hbar$.
 - Analogously, he proves that $[\hat{\vec{p}}_x, \hat{\vec{y}}] = 0$.
 - Relevant to PSet 1, Q3b!
- Implication: You can have an operator with a perfectly defined x-momentum and y-position.
- Another new derivation:

$$[\hat{\vec{p}}_x, \hat{V}(\vec{r})]f = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (V(\vec{r})f) + i\hbar V(\vec{r}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$
$$= -i\hbar \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} f$$

- What if we want to figure out $[\hat{\vec{p}}, \hat{V}(\vec{r})]$?
 - Start off with the expression we derived above.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Big(\langle \psi | \hat{\vec{p}} | \psi \rangle \Big) = \frac{i}{\hbar} \, \langle \psi | [\hat{H}, \hat{\vec{p}}] | \psi \rangle = \frac{i}{\hbar} (i \hbar \, \langle \psi | \vec{\nabla} V | \psi \rangle) = - \, \langle \psi | \vec{\nabla} V | \psi \rangle$$

• Moving on, let's try solving the Schrödinger equation with a separable ansatz,

$$\psi(\vec{r},t) = \psi(\vec{r})\phi(t)$$

- This works because the left side of the Schrödinger equation doesn't operate on the position, and the right side doesn't operate on the time.
- Let's begin.

$$\begin{split} -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 \psi(\vec{r},t) + V(\vec{r}) \psi(\vec{r},t) &= i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\psi(\vec{r},t)) \\ \phi(t) \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 \psi(\vec{r}) + V(\vec{r}) \psi(\vec{r}) \right] &= i\hbar \psi(\vec{r}) \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\phi(t)) \\ \frac{1}{\psi(\vec{r})} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \vec{\nabla}^2 \psi(\vec{r}) + V(\vec{r}) \psi(\vec{r}) \right] &= \frac{i\hbar}{\phi(t)} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\phi(t)) \end{split}$$

- Now the two sides of the above equation are functions of different variables, so they cannot be equal unless they are equal to a constant, which we'll call E. This allows us to split the above equation into two:

$$\frac{1}{\psi(\vec{r})}\hat{H}\psi(\vec{r}) = E \qquad \qquad \frac{i\hbar}{\phi(t)}\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\phi(t)) = E$$

$$\hat{H}\psi(\vec{r}) = E\psi(\vec{r}) \qquad \qquad \phi(t) = A\exp\left(-\frac{iEt}{\hbar}\right)$$

- \blacksquare A is a constant of integration.
- We also have that

$$E_n = \langle \psi_n | \hat{H} | \psi_n \rangle$$

■ This means that the eigenstates of \hat{H} correspond to eigenvalues E_n .

• Thus, we have

$$\psi_n(\vec{r},t) = \psi_n(\vec{r}) \exp\left(-\frac{iE_n t}{\hbar}\right)$$

- Note that we assume that we have renormalized every ψ_n written this way from here on out, pulling A and anything with it into $\psi_n(\vec{r})$.
- When $m \neq n$, we can obtain an important rule:

$$\langle \psi_m | \hat{H} | \psi_n \rangle = E_n \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = E_m \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle$$
$$(E_n - E_m) \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = 0$$

- It follows that if $E_m \neq E_n$, then $\langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = 0!$
- Now let

$$\psi = \sum_{n} c_n \psi_n(\vec{r}) \exp\left(-\frac{iE_n t}{\hbar}\right)$$

- Then

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \sum_{m,n} c_m^* c_n \exp\left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} (E_m - E_n) t\right) \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle$$
$$= \sum_m |c_m|^2$$

- This follows from the fact that $\langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = 1$.
- Last note.

$$\langle \psi | \hat{H} | \psi \rangle = \sum_{m,n} c_m^* c_n \exp \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar} (E_m - E_n) t \right) \underbrace{\langle \psi_m' | \hat{H} | \psi_n \rangle}_{E_n \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle}$$
$$= \sum_m |c_m|^2 E_m$$