QUANTUM MECHANICS Lecture 20

Enrico Iacopini

### QUANTUM MECHANICS Lecture 20

Compatible and incompatible observables The uncertainty principle revisited

Enrico Iacopini

November 19, 2019

D. J. Griffiths: paragraphs 3.4, 3.5

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#### Together with the momentum $\hat{p}$ , another important operator which has a **continuous spectrum is the position operator** $\hat{x}$ .

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#### Continuous spectrum

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 $\hat{x} g_y(x) \equiv x \cdot g_y(x) = y g_y(x)$ 

where x is the position variable, whereas y is the given eigenvalue of the operator  $\hat{x}$ .

The only possibility to satisfy the above eigenvalue equation is that the function  $g_y(x)$  is always zero except in x.

To satisfy the generalized condition concerning its **finite** (*and not always null*) scalar product with any w.f., we must have

$$g_y(x) = \propto \delta(x-y)$$

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Continuous spectrum

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### Continuous spectrum

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Similarly to what happens for the momentum generalized eigenvectors, the generalized eigenfunctions

$$\left\{g_y(x)=\delta(x-y); \ y\in R
ight\}$$

form a *complete, orthonormal set.* 

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In fact, for any (square-integrable) continuous function  $\psi(x)$ , it exists always the scalar product

$$ar{\psi}(y) \;\equiv\; < g_y |\psi> = \int dx \, g_y^*(x) \cdot \psi(x) = \ = \; \int dx \; \delta(x-y) \psi(x) = \; \psi(y)$$

and, clearly, we have

$$\psi(x) = \int dy \, ar{\psi}(y) g_y(x) = \int dy \, \psi(y) \delta(x-y)$$

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Moreover, the generalized position eigenfunctions  $g_y(x) = \delta(y - x)$  satisfy the Dirac generalized orthonormality condition.

In fact

$$\int dx \, g_y^*(x) g_z(x) = \int dx \, \delta(y-x) g_z(x) =$$
  
=  $g_z(y) = \delta(y-z)$ 

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The two examples considered so far, momentum and position, lead us to the following conclusion.

If the spectrum  $S \subset R$  of the eigenvalues s of an observable  $\hat{Q}$  is continuous, the corresponding eigenvectors  $\{e(s); s \in S\}$ , although they do not belong to the Hilbert space, they can be used as elements of a generalized basis.

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### In fact, these generalized eigenvectors e(s) can be made orthonormal in the Dirac sense:

$$\langle \mathbf{e}(s)|\mathbf{e}(t) \rangle = \delta(s-t)$$

and any normalized vector  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{H}$  can be written as

$$\mathbf{v} = \int \, ds \, \phi(s) \, \mathbf{e}(s)$$

where the complex function  $\phi(s)$  is given by

$$\phi(s) \equiv <\mathbf{e}(s)|\mathbf{v}>$$

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Concerning the expectation value of  $\hat{Q}$ , we have

$$\langle Q \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v} | \hat{Q} \mathbf{v} \rangle =$$

$$= \int ds \, dt \langle \phi(s) \mathbf{e}(s) | \hat{Q} \phi(t) \mathbf{e}(t) \rangle =$$

$$= \int ds \, dt \, \phi(s)^* \, \phi(t) \langle \mathbf{e}(s) | \hat{Q} \mathbf{e}(t) \rangle =$$

$$= \int ds \, dt \, \phi(s)^* \, \phi(t) \, t \langle \mathbf{e}(s) | \mathbf{e}(t) \rangle =$$

$$= \int ds \, dt \, \phi(s)^* \, \phi(t) \, t \, \delta(t-s) = \int ds \, |\phi(s)|^2$$

and  $|\phi(s)|^2$  represents the probability density function to obtain a value between s and s + ds when measuring  $\hat{Q}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$ .

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- The generalized statistical intepretation agrees, of course, with what we have called "the Copenaghen interpretation", for which,  $|\Psi(x)|^2$  is the p.d.f. to find the particle between x and x + dx.
- 2 In fact, the *old* wave function  $\Psi(x)$  is nothing but what we are calling, now,  $\phi(x)$ when the physical vector state is  $\Psi$  and the observable  $\hat{Q}$  is the position  $\hat{x}$

$$\begin{split} \phi(x) &= \langle g_x | \Psi \rangle = \int dy \, \delta(x-y)^* \, \Psi(y) = \\ &= \Psi(x) \end{split}$$

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• Concerning the momentum operator  $\hat{p}$ , we have already said that its generalized orthonormal eigenfunctions are

$$\mathbf{e}(p) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{ipx/\hbar}$$
 with  $p \in R$ 

and one has

$$\phi(p) = \langle \mathbf{e}(p) | \Psi \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int dx \, e^{-ipx/\hbar} \, \Psi(x)$$

The quantity  $|\phi(p)|^2$  is the p.d.f. to measure a momentum between p and p + dp and  $\phi(p)$ can be seen as the wave-function of the state  $\Psi$  in the momentum space. QUANTUM MECHANICS Lecture 20

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#### <u>Exercise</u>

In a three dimensional Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ , the spectrum of the observable Q is  $\{-1, 0, +1\}$ . Let  $\{\mathbf{e}_{-}, \mathbf{e}_{0}, \mathbf{e}_{+}\}$  be the orthonormal basis made by the eigenvectors of Q

$$Qe_{-} = e_{-}; \quad Qe_{0} = 0; \quad Qe_{+} = -e_{+}$$

- If  $\mathbf{v} = \alpha \mathbf{e}_{-} + \beta \mathbf{e}_{0} + \gamma \mathbf{e}_{+}$  is a generic vector of  $\mathcal{H}$ , which is the expectation value of Q on the physical state described by  $\mathbf{v}$  ?
- Write the condition on the coefficients α, β, γ for which the expectation value of Q is zero.
- Is it possible to find a basis  $\{\mathbf{f}_1, \mathbf{f}_2, \mathbf{f}_3\}$  for which  $\langle \mathbf{f}_i | Q \mathbf{f}_i \rangle = 0$ ? Explain.

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- Up to now, we have considered only eigenvalues/eigenvectors of a single observable Q.
- <sup>2</sup> Before continuing, we want to remember that the eigenvectors of  $\hat{Q}$ , **corresponding to the same eigenvalue** q, form a **linear subspace** since any linear combination of these eigenvectors is still a  $\hat{Q}$  eigenvector for the eigenvalue q.
- 0 Let us call  $\mathcal V$  this linear space. By definition

$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V} \Leftrightarrow \widehat{Q}\mathbf{v} = q\,\mathbf{v}$$

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• Let us consider, now, two observables  $\hat{Q}_1$ and  $\hat{Q}_2$  and let us assume that  $[\hat{Q}_1, \hat{Q}_2] = 0$ . Let  $\mathcal{V}_1$  be the eigenspace of  $\hat{Q}_1$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $q_1$  and let  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}_1$ . Let us consider the vector  $\hat{Q}_2\mathbf{v}$ : we have

$$\hat{Q}_1\left(\hat{Q}_2\mathbf{v}
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which means that also  $\hat{Q}_2 \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}_1$ .

The subspace  $V_1$  is, therefore, **invariant** also under  $\hat{Q}_2$ . But  $\hat{Q}_2$  is hermitian and, therefore, we can find an orthonormal basis of  $V_1$  made by eigenvectors of  $\hat{Q}_2$ : these vectors are **simultaneously** eigenvectors of  $\hat{Q}_1$  and  $\hat{Q}_2$ .

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- The procedure can be repeated for all the eigenvalues of  $\hat{Q}_1$  and the conclusion is that, if  $\hat{Q}_1$  and  $\hat{Q}_2$  commute, we can find an orthonormal basis of the whole space which is made by simultaneous eigenvectors of both the operators.
- ② We say that  $\hat{Q}_1$  and  $\hat{Q}_2$  are **compatible**.
- This means that there are physical states in which both observables are determinate.
- If  $[\hat{Q}_1, \hat{Q}_2] \neq 0$ , a basis of common eigenvectors cannot exist and the observables  $\hat{Q}_1$  and  $\hat{Q}_2$  are **incompatible** (f.i.,  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}$ ).

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- Let us come, now, to reconsider the **uncertainty principle**.
- We will show that, in the mathematical framework developed so far, it is not, really, a principle, but, it is, in fact, a theorem ...
- Let and B two generic observables (hermitian operators) and let us define the two following non-hermitian operators

$$\hat{C} \equiv \hat{A} + i\alpha \,\hat{B} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \hat{C}^{\dagger} = \hat{A} - i\alpha \,\hat{B}$$

where  $\alpha$  is a generic real number. Then

 $\hat{C}^{\dagger}\hat{C} = (\hat{A} - i\alpha \hat{B})(\hat{A} + i\alpha \hat{B}) = \\ = \hat{A}^{2} + \alpha^{2}\hat{B}^{2} + i\alpha [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$ 

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- Let, now, be  $\Psi$  a generic normalized vector of the Hilbert space. Starting from it, we can always build an orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n, \dots$  for which  $\Psi = \mathbf{e}_1$ .
- Since the vectors {e<sub>i</sub>} form a basis, we will have

$$\widehat{\mathcal{C}} \, oldsymbol{\Psi} = \sum\limits_i \gamma_i \, oldsymbol{e}_i \, \, where \, \, \gamma_i \equiv < oldsymbol{e}_i | \widehat{\mathcal{C}} \, oldsymbol{\Psi} >$$

- Then, by definition
- $< oldsymbol{\Psi} | \hat{\mathcal{C}}^{\dagger} \hat{\mathcal{C}} oldsymbol{\Psi} > = < \hat{\mathcal{C}} oldsymbol{\Psi} | \hat{\mathcal{C}} oldsymbol{\Psi} > = \sum\limits_{i,j} \gamma_i^* \gamma_j < \mathbf{e}_i | \mathbf{e}_j > =$

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 $=\sum_{i}|\gamma_{i}|^{2}$ 

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- But  $\sum_i |\gamma_i|^2 \ge |\gamma_1|^2$ , which means that, since by hypothesis  $\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{\Psi}$ , we have
- $< oldsymbol{\Psi} | \widehat{\mathcal{C}}^{\dagger} \widehat{\mathcal{C}} oldsymbol{\Psi} > = \sum\limits_{i} |\gamma_{i}|^{2} \ge |\gamma_{1}|^{2} = \gamma_{1}^{*} \gamma_{1} = 0$
- $= <\mathbf{e}_1 |\hat{C}\Psi>^* < \mathbf{e}_1 |\hat{C}\Psi> = <\hat{C}\Psi |\mathbf{e}_1> < \mathbf{e}_1 |\hat{C}\Psi> =$
- $= <\hat{C}\Psi|\Psi> <\Psi|\hat{C}\Psi> = <\Psi|\hat{C}^{\dagger}\Psi> <\Psi|\hat{C}\Psi>$

In other words

 $<\Psi|\left(\hat{A}^{2}+lpha^{2}\hat{B}+ilpha[\hat{A},\hat{B}]
ight)\Psi>\geq \ \geq <\Psi|\left(\hat{A}-ilpha\hat{B}
ight)\Psi><\Psi|\left(\hat{A}+ilpha\hat{B}
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#### which means that

$$< \hat{A}^2 > +\alpha^2 < \hat{B}^2 > +i\alpha < [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] > \ge \\ \ge \left( < \hat{A} > -i\alpha < \hat{B} > \right) \left( < \hat{A} > +i\alpha < \hat{B} > \right) = \\ = < \hat{A} >^2 +\alpha^2 < \hat{B} >^2$$

Therefore, remembering the definition of  $\sigma^2$  in terms of the variance and the average, we can conclude<sup>1</sup> that, for any real number  $\alpha$ 

$$\sigma_{A}^{2} + \alpha^{2} \sigma_{B}^{2} + i\alpha < [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] > \ge 0$$

<sup>1</sup>Show that the expectation value  $< [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] >$  is a purely imaginary quantity.

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which means that

<sup>2</sup> Therefore, remembering the definition of  $\sigma^2$  in terms of the variance and the average, we can conclude<sup>1</sup> that, for any real number  $\alpha$ 

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<sup>1</sup>Show that the expectation value  $< [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] >$  is a purely imaginary quantity.

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The second degree equation in the real variable α that we have obtained, to be always non-negative, must have the discriminant smaller or equal to zero:

$$(i < [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] >)^2 - 4\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 \le 0 \Rightarrow 4\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 \ge (i < [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] >)^2$$

2 If we consider, now, for instance, the observables  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}$ , since  $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar$ , we have

$$4\sigma_x^2 \sigma_p^2 \ge (i^2 \hbar)^2 \Rightarrow \sigma_x \sigma_p \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

which is, indeed, the original and well known, Heisenberg uncertainty principle.

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