

## Phys. 2b 2026, Week 5, Lecture Notes (Lectures 9 & 10) (2/3-5/2026)

### Key Concepts

1. Postulates of Quantum Mechanics
2. What do the Postulates "Mean"?

Today we will discuss, for the first time, the role of measurement in Q.M. In a sense it represents a new type of "time evolution" of the Wave Function...

### The Postulates of Non-Relativistic Quantum Mechanics

- I. For *each* physical observable, e.g.  $T$ , there corresponds an operator (actually an Hermitian operator - more later)  $\hat{T}$ , such that an *ideal* measurement of observable  $T$  produces an eigenvalue of  $\hat{T}$  (e.g.,  $t$ )  
 $\hookrightarrow T$  could be position, momentum, energy ...  $\hookrightarrow$  *ideal* means *perfect* or no uncertainty
- II. An ideal measurement of observable  $T$  that results in an eigenvalue of  $\hat{T}$  (e.g.,  $t$ ) leaves the system in an eigenfunction of  $\hat{T}$  (i.e., final wave function is an eigenfunction of  $\hat{T}$ )  
 $\hookrightarrow$  Clearly a measurement can perturb the system  
 $\hookrightarrow$  Some say that this is when the Wave Function "collapses"
- III. The dynamical state of a system can be described by a continuous and differentiable wave function that contains *all* that can be known about the system.  
 $\hookrightarrow$  wave equation must be first order in time ... Why? If it's 2nd order in time then you must be given both  $\psi(x, 0)$  **and**  $\partial\psi(x, 0)/\partial t$ , while postulate says everything you need is in  $\psi(x, t)$ .
- IV. The evolution of the wave function in space and time is given by the Schrödinger Equation.

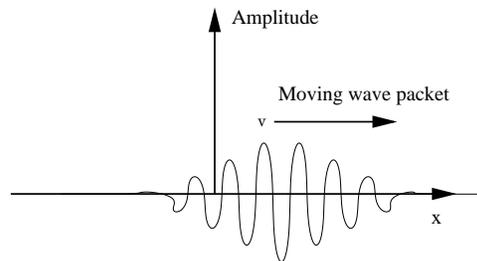
### What do the Postulates Mean?

$\implies$  Postulate I and II  $\implies$  *Observables as Operators*

Wave nature of particles suggests: free particles are superposition of waves with different  $\lambda$  (or  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ )  $\therefore$  use wave packets

Recall - Ph2a - a classical wave packet in 1-d has amplitude:

$$\psi(x, t) = \int f(k)e^{i(kx - \omega t)} dk,$$



but in Q.M.  $p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \hbar k$

$\therefore$  try  $\psi(x, t) = \int f(p_x) e^{i(xp_x - Et)/\hbar} dp_x$   
 $\hookrightarrow$  gives contribution of each  $p_x$  (or  $\lambda$ ) to packet

Now if we choose  $\psi_p$  as an eigenfunction (eigenstate) of momentum (operator  $\hat{p}$ ) then  $\psi$  should contain only a single  $p_x$  e.g.  $p_0$

$$\psi_p(x, t) = A e^{i(xp_0 - Et)/\hbar} \quad (\text{called free particle momentum eigenstate})$$

Thus Postulates I and II tell us:

$$\hat{p}\psi_p = \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) \psi_p = -i\hbar \left(\frac{ip_0}{\hbar}\right) \psi_p = p_0\psi_p$$

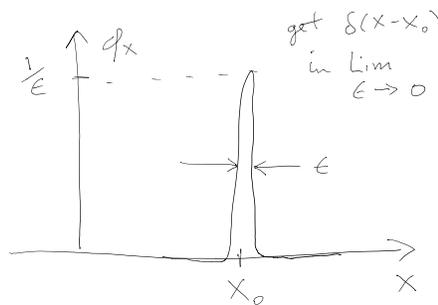
Many other operators exist:

e.g. position operator:  $\hat{x}$  ...

What about eigenstates of the position operator  $\hat{x}$ ?

$$\hat{x}\phi_x = x_0\phi_x; \quad \phi_x = \delta(x - x_0) \Rightarrow \text{see Chap 2 of text for info on } \delta(x)$$

What does it look like?



This is again the Dirac delta "function" (aka distribution for the Mathy people). Recall that it is defined via the following

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x') \delta(x' - x) dx' = f(x) \quad \text{such that, for } f(x) = 1 \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x' - x) dx' = 1$$

and

$$\delta(x - x_0) = 0 \text{ for } x \neq x_0$$

These states possess of form of orthonormality called "Dirac orthonormality" since

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta^*(x' - x_0) \delta(x' - x) dx' = \delta(x - x_0)$$

which is non-zero only if  $x = x_0$

Think about measurements of energy, momentum and position for both the infinite well and the free particle.

⇒ Postulates III and IV: *The Quantum Mechanical Wave Equation*

Why the Schrödinger Eq??

Let's try to make plausibility arguments for a QM wave equation

Recall first the wave equation of E&M in 1D for the electric field:

$$c^2 \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 E_x}{\partial t^2}$$

But we know that the QM wave equation must be 1st order in time. So we want to build a wave equation that can describe a free particle:

Let's start with a free particle in a momentum eigenstate

$$\psi_p = Ae^{i(xp_0 - Et)/\hbar}$$

with  $\hat{p}_x \psi_p = p_0 \psi_p$  and see if it is a soln to a different wave eq.

$$\text{How about: } \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = b \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{with } b \text{ a real constant?}$$

Can we get propagating waves with this equation?

Let's try:

$$\psi = Ae^{i(kx - Et/\hbar)} \quad (\text{with } p_x = \hbar k)$$

by substituting into the above Wave Equation. This gives:

$$-i(E/\hbar)\psi = -bk^2\psi$$

$$\Rightarrow k = \sqrt{\frac{iE}{\hbar b}}$$

Substituting for  $k$  gives:

$$\psi = Ae^{[i^{\frac{3}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{E}{\hbar b}} x - iEt/\hbar]}$$

but noting that

$$\begin{aligned} i^{\frac{3}{2}} &= (e^{\frac{i\pi}{2}})^{\frac{3}{2}} = e^{\frac{3\pi i}{4}} \quad \text{since } e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x \quad \text{and } e^{i\pi/2} = i \\ &= \cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

we find

$$\psi = Ae^{-\sqrt{\frac{E}{2\hbar b}} x} e^{i(\sqrt{\frac{E}{2\hbar b}} x - Et/\hbar)}$$

This state is an exponentially decaying travelling wave for  $x > 0$ .

But for  $x < 0$  it is exponentially increasing and is not normalizable since

$\int \psi^* \psi dV = \infty \rightarrow$  this cannot be a propagating wave

Note: Above equation

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = b \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$$

with  $b$  a real constant is actually a diffusion equation.

However if we let the equation be complex (real and imaginary parts) with  $b = \frac{i\hbar}{2m}$  we have the following free-particle wave equation (Schrödinger equation):

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$$

$\hookrightarrow$  1st order in time as required by Postulate III.

for which  $\psi_p$  is clearly a solution since

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi_p}{\partial t} = (i\hbar)(-iE/\hbar)\psi_p = E\psi_p$$

and

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi_p}{\partial x^2} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (-p_0^2/\hbar^2)\psi_p = \frac{p_0^2}{2m}\psi_p = \hat{T}\psi_p = E\psi_p$$

since, for free particle,  $E =$  kinetic energy  $T$

Obvious next step for Schrödinger Equation is to include Potential Energy:

$$\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V}$$

Which gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}\psi &= i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \\ \Rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V(\vec{r})\psi &= i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \end{aligned}$$

This is the full Schrödinger Equation

## Key Concepts

1. Wave Functions as Vectors in a Vector Space - Dirac Notation
2. Hermitian Operators
3. Commutators

## Dirac Notation:

Introduce convenient shorthand notation:

$$\langle \psi | \phi \rangle \equiv \int_{space} \psi^* \phi dV$$

where  $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle \Rightarrow$  is called a bracket, with  $\langle \psi | \Rightarrow$  called bra vector,  $|\phi \rangle \Rightarrow$  called ket vector

**Note (for  $\psi, \phi$  arbitrary functions):**

- a.  $\langle \psi | a\phi \rangle = a\langle \psi | \phi \rangle$ ;  $a = \text{const.}$
- b.  $\langle a\psi | \phi \rangle = a^*\langle \psi | \phi \rangle$ ;  $a = \text{const.}$
- c.  $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle^* = \langle \phi | \psi \rangle$
- d.  $\langle \psi + \phi | = \langle \psi | + \langle \phi |$
- e. if  $|\psi \rangle$  is normalized then  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$
- f.  $\langle \psi | \hat{T}\psi \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{T}\psi dV$  and  $\langle \hat{T}\psi | \psi \rangle = \int (\hat{T}\psi)^* \psi dV$

In Dirac notation the “state vector” is represented as  $|\psi \rangle$

**Note:** The concept of a state vector is more general than a 3-d spatial wavefunction  $\psi(x, y, z)$ . Some state vectors don't exist in 3-d space, e.g. “isospin” state vectors or a particle's intrinsic spin exist in other, abstract, spaces.

## Hermitian Operators:

$\hookrightarrow$  QM Postulate **I** says: “for each observable there corresponds an *Hermitian* operator...”

$\hat{T}$  is Hermitian if  $\langle \hat{T}\psi | \phi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{T}\phi \rangle$

$\hookrightarrow$  In coordinate space this means:  $\Rightarrow \int (\hat{T}\psi)^* \phi dV = \int \psi^* (\hat{T}\phi) dV$

Why consider Hermitian Operators?

## Properties of Hermitian Operators

1. Eigenvalues of Hermitian Operators are *real*  $\rightarrow$  Good News! since all physics observables are real #s.

Easy to show this by using the new Dirac notation ...

Consider eigenstates of  $\hat{Q}$  :  $\hat{Q}|\phi_n \rangle = q_n|\phi_n \rangle$  Then

- a.  $\langle \phi_n | \hat{Q} \phi_n \rangle = \langle \phi_n | q_n \phi_n \rangle = q_n \langle \phi_n | \phi_n \rangle = q_n$

b.  $\langle \hat{Q}\phi_n | \phi_n \rangle = \langle q_n \phi_n | \phi_n \rangle = q_n^* \langle \phi_n | \phi_n \rangle = q_n^*$

then if  $\hat{Q}$  is Hermitian  $\langle \phi_n | \hat{Q}\phi_n \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}\phi_n | \phi_n \rangle$  and  $q_n = q_n^*$  which implies that  $q_n$  is *real*

2. Eigenstates of Hermitian Operators are “orthogonal” as long as eigenvalues are different (aka non-degenerate). Can easily show this by noting:

a.  $\langle \phi_n | \hat{Q}\phi_m \rangle = \langle \phi_n | q_m \phi_m \rangle = q_m \langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle$

b.  $\langle \hat{Q}\phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \langle q_n \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = q_n \langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle$ , which results since eigenvalues are real from previous property

$\Rightarrow$  then if  $\hat{Q}$  is Hermitian  $\langle \phi_n | \hat{Q}\phi_m \rangle = \langle \hat{Q}\phi_n | \phi_m \rangle$ , and subtracting expression *b* from *a* gives  $(q_m - q_n)(\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle) = 0$  which requires

$\langle \phi_m | \phi_n \rangle = 0$  if  $n \neq m$  and  $\phi_n, \phi_m$  have different eigenvalues

3. Eigenstates of Hermitian Operators can form a *complete set*

$\hookrightarrow$  must define operator over some space

Example of eigenstates of Hermitian operator: Particle in box

Eigenstates of  $\hat{H}$  are  $\psi_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{a}\right)$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{H}\psi_n = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_n = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2ma^2}\right)}_{\text{real\#}} \psi_n$$

$\Rightarrow$  What about  $\langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle &= \int_0^a \left(\frac{2}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{a}\right) dx \\ &= 1 \text{ if } m = n \\ &= 0 \text{ if } m \neq n \\ &= \delta_{nm} \text{ called Kroneker delta defined via above} \end{aligned}$$

thus  $\{\psi_n^{Box}\}$  are orthogonal and normalized  $\rightarrow$  orthonormal set

Is  $\{\psi_n^{Box}\}$  a “complete set”?  $\Rightarrow$  within Fourier’s Theorem, *yes*

$\Rightarrow$  any reasonable function between  $x = 0$  to  $a$  that vanishes at the endpoints can be represented as a sum of  $\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{a}\right)$

## Commutators

To proceed further we introduce a new quantity called a ”commutator”.

We define the commutator of two operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  as

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$$

Where  $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$  is also an operator.

Thus we can evaluate commutators by operating on an arbitrary state:

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]\psi$$

For example, we can evaluate  $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x]$  by operating on an arbitrary state.

Recalling that  $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  we have

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x]\psi = -i\hbar \left\{ x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x\psi) \right\} = -i\hbar \left( x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} - \psi \right) = (i\hbar)\psi; \quad \therefore [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar$$

Thus  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}_x$  do not commute!  $\Rightarrow$  key part of HUP is that if two operators commute (that is  $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$ ) then one **can** make simultaneous ideal measurements of both observables. Otherwise (like  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}_x$ ) you will get a HUP and won't be able to make simultaneous ideal measurements of both observables.

Can evaluate more complicated commutators fairly easily, e.g.:

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x^2] = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - \hat{p}_x^2\hat{x} = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - \hat{p}_x\hat{p}_x\hat{x}$$

but since  $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x - \hat{p}_x\hat{x} = i\hbar$  we have

$$\hat{p}_x\hat{x} = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x - i\hbar \quad \text{and can substitute this into above giving}$$

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x^2] = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - \hat{p}_x(\hat{x}\hat{p}_x - i\hbar) = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - (\hat{p}_x\hat{x})\hat{p}_x + i\hbar\hat{p}_x$$

and we can again substitute in  $\hat{p}_x\hat{x} = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x - i\hbar$  giving

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x^2] = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - (\hat{x}\hat{p}_x - i\hbar)\hat{p}_x + i\hbar\hat{p}_x = \hat{x}\hat{p}_x^2 - \hat{x}\hat{p}_x\hat{p}_x + 2i\hbar\hat{p}_x = 2i\hbar\hat{p}_x$$

Using similar techniques we can also determine:

$$[\hat{p}_x, \hat{x}] = -i\hbar; \quad [\hat{x}^2, \hat{p}_x] = 2i\hbar\hat{x}; \quad [\hat{x}^2, \hat{p}_x^2] = 2i\hbar(\hat{x}\hat{p}_x + \hat{p}_x\hat{x})$$