

## Quantum Mechanics 3 2001/2002

## Solution set 4

(1) The given states are eigenstates with given energy. This means they must satisfy the eigen-equation

$$Hu_n(x) = E_n u_n(x),$$

where H is the Hamiltonian operator. This is just a short way of writing the time-independent Schrödinger equation. Sets of eigenstates are *complete*: this term means that we can expand any general wavefunction:

$$\psi(x) = \sum_{j} a_{j} u_{j}(x) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \psi(x)^{*} = \sum_{j} a_{j}^{*} u_{j}(x)^{*}.$$

The expectation value  $\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle$  means

$$\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle = \int \psi^* H \psi dV.$$

Using the expansion of  $\psi$ ,

$$H\psi = H\sum_{j} a_j u_j(x) = \sum_{j} a_j H u_j(x) = \sum_{j} a_j E_j u_j(x).$$

Now put the expansions for  $\psi$  and  $H\psi$  in the integral, using a different dummy index for each sum, to avoid confusion:

$$\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle = \int \left( \sum_{i} a_i^* u_i(x)^* \right) \left( \sum_{j} a_j E_j u_j(x) \right) dV = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_i^* a_j E_j \int u_i(x)^* u_j(x) dV.$$

Using orthonormality of the u's, the last integral is just  $\delta_{ij}$ , so that

$$\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle = \sum_{i} |a_{i}|^{2} E_{i}.$$

In other words, the expectation of H is just the sum of the eigenvalues, weighted by the probability of being in each state,  $|a_i|^2$ . Since  $E_i \geq E_0$ , by definition of the ground state as the state of lowest energy, we see that

$$\langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle \ge \sum_{i} |a_i|^2 E_0 = E_0,$$

where the last step follows because the probabilities add up to unity:  $\sum_{i} |a_{i}|^{2} = 1$ .

(2) The Fourier transform is a specific example of the expansion in eigenstates. The state  $u = \exp(ikx)$  is an eigenstate of momentum:

$$p_x u(x) = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} u(x) = \hbar k u(x),$$

and the momentum eigenvalue is  $\hbar k$ , as expected. Thus, when we write

$$\psi(x) \propto \int \tilde{\psi}(k) \exp(ikx) dk,$$

this is just like writing  $\psi = \sum_i a_i u_i(x)$ . The Fourier coefficients  $\tilde{\psi}(k)$  are analogous to  $a_i$ . Therefore, just as  $|a_i|^2$  is the probability of being in the *i*th state, so  $|\tilde{\psi}(k)|^2$  is proportional to the probability of getting momentum  $\hbar k$ .

The wavefunction is correctly normalized, so its Fourier transform is

$$\tilde{\psi} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi a}} \int_{-a}^{a} \exp(ikx) \, dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi a}} \frac{\sin ka}{ka}.$$

Putting  $p = \hbar k$  gives the probability distribution of momentum, which is proportional to  $|\tilde{\psi}|^2$ . The mean value of momentum is clearly zero, because the distribution is symmetric, but the variance is

$$\langle p^2 \rangle \propto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\sin pa/\hbar}{pa/\hbar} \right)^2 p^2 dp.$$

The integrand is thus just proportional to  $\sin^2(pa/\hbar)$ , which has an average value of 0.5. The integral diverges. The uncertainty principle is an inequality, and defines a minimum uncertainty for a Gaussian wavefunction. In general, the uncertainty will be larger than the minimal value, as in this example. If we take a different definition of the spread in momentum (e.g. the range enclosing 50% of the values), then something closer to  $\delta p \simeq \hbar/a$  will be found.

(3) Differentiate  $\langle O \rangle = \int \psi^* O \psi \, dV$  inside the integral to get two terms. Now use  $H\psi = i\hbar\dot{\psi}$  and the complex conjugate relation  $(H\psi)^* = -i\hbar\dot{\psi}^*$ , plus the Hermitian property of H ( $\int (H\psi)^*\phi \, dV = \int \psi^* H\phi \, dV$ , where  $\phi = O\psi$  in this case). Remember the meaning of the commutator symbol: [H,O] = HO - OH.

For the second part, use the general relation with O=x or  $O=p_x$ . This just requires the operator form of momentum and the ability to differentiate a product. For example,  $(d/dx)(x)\psi=(x)(d/dx)\psi+\psi$ , so  $(d^2/dx^2)(x)\psi=(x)(d^2/dx^2)\psi+(d/dx)\psi+(d/dx)\psi$ . Now use the fact that, in 1D,

$$H = \frac{p_x^2}{2m} + V(x) = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$$

so  $[H, x] = -(\hbar^2/m)(d/dx) = (\hbar/i)p_x/m$  (we have cancelled out a factor of  $\psi$  on either side, since this operator equation applies for any  $\psi$ ).

The reasoning for  $[H, p_x]$  is similar. Notice that it's only the terms involving derivatives that cause trouble: commutators like [V(x), x] always vanish.

The final Ehrenfest equations are very satisfying: classical mechanics is obeyed by the average properties of quantum particles – which explains why we can get sensible results on laboratory scales using classical laws.