

# POSTULATES AND THEOREMS OF QUANTUM MECHANICS:

## Postulate I:

(a). Any state of a dynamical system of N particles is described as fully as possible by a wavefunction,  $\Psi(x_1, y_1, z_1, x_2, y_2, z_2, x_3, y_3, z_3, \dots, t)$  which contains all information one can know about the system.

(b). The quantity  $|\Psi|^2 dx_1 dy_1 dz_1 dx_2 dy_2 dz_2 dx_3 dy_3 dz_3 \dots$  gives the probability that

particle 1 will be found within the small volume between  $x_1$  and  $x_1 + dx_1$ ,  
 $y_1$  and  $y_1 + dy_1$ ,  
 $z_1$  and  $z_1 + dz_1$ , while at the same time

particle 2 will be found within the small volume between  $x_2$  and  $x_2 + dx_2$ ,  
 $y_2$  and  $y_2 + dy_2$ ,  
 $z_2$  and  $z_2 + dz_2$ , while at the same time

particle 3 will be found within the small volume between  $x_3$  and  $x_3 + dx_3$ ,  
 $y_3$  and  $y_3 + dy_3$ ,  
 $z_3$  and  $z_3 + dz_3$ , etc.

## Postulate II:

The equation of motion for  $\Psi(x,t)$ , which determines governs the time development of a system, is given by the time-dependent Schrödinger equation:

$$\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi(x,t)}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\Psi(x,t),$$

where  $\hbar = h/2\pi = 1.0545887 \times 10^{-27}$  erg-sec =  $1.0545887 \times 10^{-27}$  g·cm<sup>2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>,  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ , m is the mass of the particle, and V(x) provides the potential energy as a function of the position coordinate, x. This equation must be suitably modified for a particle moving in more than one dimension, or for more than one particle.

## Postulate III:

For every observable property, A, of a system there exists a linear, Hermitian operator,  $\hat{A}$ . This operator is found by writing the corresponding classical mechanical operator in terms of coordinates and their conjugate momenta, and then converting to operators by replacing the coordinates x, y, and z with operators  $\hat{x}$ ,  $\hat{y}$ , and  $\hat{z}$  which are simply multiplication by the coordinate, and by replacing the conjugate momenta  $p_x$ ,  $p_y$ , and  $p_z$  by the differential operators  $\hat{p}_x = \hbar/i \partial/\partial x$ ,  $\hat{p}_y = \hbar/i \partial/\partial y$ , and  $\hat{p}_z = \hbar/i \partial/\partial z$ .

An operator,  $\hat{A}$ , is linear if  $\hat{A}(c_1f + c_2g) = c_1\hat{A}f + c_2\hat{A}g$  for all functions f and g which are acceptable candidates for wavefunctions. Here  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are arbitrary constants.

An operator,  $\hat{A}$ , is Hermitian if

$$\int f^* \hat{A} g d\tau = \int (\hat{A}f)^* g d\tau$$

for all functions f and g which are acceptable candidates for wavefunctions, and the integration is taken over all space.

### Postulate IV:

The only possible values that can result from measurements of the property A are the eigenvalues,  $a_i$ , of the equation

$$\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i.$$

Furthermore, if a system is in a state,  $\Psi$ , which can be written as a superposition of the eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$  as

$$\Psi = \sum_n c_n \phi_n ,$$

then the probability that a measurement of the property A will result in the observation of the value  $a_i$  is given by

$$P(a_i) = |c_n|^2 .$$

## Theorem I:

Eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator are real.

This simple statement insures that observable quantities such as position, momentum, kinetic energy, angular momentum, etc. are real, and that you can never ask a question like "Where is the particle?" and get an answer like "3.5i miles southwest of Seattle."

**PROOF:** Suppose  $\hat{A}$  has an eigenfunction  $\phi_i$  with eigenvalue  $a_i$ :

$$\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i$$

Multiply by  $\phi_i^*$  and integrate, obtaining 
$$\int \phi_i^* \hat{A}\phi_i d\tau = a_i \int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau$$

Since  $\hat{A}$  is Hermitian, however,  $\int f^* \hat{A}g d\tau = \int (\hat{A}f)^* g d\tau = \left[ \int g^* (\hat{A}f) d\tau \right]^*$ .

Letting  $f = g = \phi_i$ ,  $\int \phi_i^* \hat{A}\phi_i d\tau = \left[ \int \phi_i^* (\hat{A}\phi_i) d\tau \right]^*$ .

But from above we know  $\int \phi_i^* \hat{A}\phi_i d\tau = a_i$ , so  $\left[ \int \phi_i^* (\hat{A}\phi_i) d\tau \right]^* = a_i$ .

Therefore,  $\left[ \int \phi_i^* (a_i \phi_i) d\tau \right]^* = a_i$

and  $\left[ a_i \right]^* = a_i$ ,

or  $a_i^* = a_i$ , which can only be true if  $a_i$  is a real number.

## Theorem II:

The eigenfunctions of a linear Hermitian operator are, or in the case of a degeneracy can be chosen to be, orthonormal.

### PROOF:

(1). Normality

Given a set of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$  which are not normalized,  $\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i$  and  $\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau \neq 1$ , we can always define new functions,  $\phi_i' \equiv c_i \phi_i$  such that the new functions  $\phi_i'$  are normalized. This is done simply by choosing

$$c_i = 1/[\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau]^{1/2}$$

Proof that this new  $\phi_i'$  is normalized: Do the integral!

$$\begin{aligned} \int \phi_i'^* \phi_i' d\tau &= \int (c_i \phi_i)^* (c_i \phi_i) d\tau = (c_i^* c_i) \int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau \\ &= [1/[\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau]^{1/2}] \times [1/[\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau]^{1/2}] \times \int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau = [\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau] / [\int \phi_i^* \phi_i d\tau] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

(2). Orthogonality

A. Let  $\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i$  and  $\hat{A}\phi_j = a_j \phi_j$ , where  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are different eigenvalues.

Then, multiplying by  $\phi_i^*$  and integrating we get:

$$\int \phi_i^* \hat{A}\phi_j d\tau = \int \phi_i^* a_j \phi_j d\tau = a_j \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau$$

$$\text{But } \hat{A} \text{ is Hermitian, so } \int \phi_i^* \hat{A}\phi_j d\tau = \int (\hat{A}\phi_i)^* \phi_j d\tau = \int (a_i \phi_i)^* \phi_j d\tau = a_i^* \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau$$

Following the equalities around we see that  $a_j \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau = a_i^* \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau$ , or

$$(a_j - a_i^*) \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau = 0.$$

Furthermore, since  $a_i$  is real,  $a_i = a_i^*$ , and  $(a_j - a_i) \int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau = 0$ .

This can be true if either  $(a_j - a_i) = 0$  or  $\int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau = 0$ .

For different eigenvalues ( $a_j \neq a_i$ ),  $\int \phi_i^* \phi_j d\tau$  must be 0, and the eigenfunctions are orthogonal.

B. If  $\hat{A}\phi_i = a \phi_i$  and  $\hat{A}\phi_j = a \phi_j$ , we have a degenerate situation and the proof given above does not apply. However, in this case we may choose any linear combination of  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$ , and it will still be an eigenfunction of  $\hat{A}$ . This is because  $\hat{A}$  is a linear operator such that

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A}(c_i \phi_i + c_j \phi_j) &= c_i \hat{A}\phi_i + c_j \hat{A}\phi_j \\ &= c_i a \phi_i + c_j a \phi_j \\ &= a (c_i \phi_i + c_j \phi_j) \end{aligned}$$

Choose our new linear combination of  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$  as:

$\phi_1 = \phi_i$  and  $\phi_2 = \phi_j + c \phi_i$ , and choose  $c$  so that  $\phi_2$  is orthogonal to  $\phi_1$ .

$$0 = \int \phi_1^* \phi_2 \, d\tau = \int \phi_1^* (\phi_j + c \phi_i) \, d\tau = \int \phi_1^* \phi_j \, d\tau + c \int \phi_1^* \phi_i \, d\tau.$$

Solving for  $c$ , one obtains:

$c = - \int \phi_1^* \phi_j \, d\tau / \int \phi_1^* \phi_i \, d\tau$ . This ratio of integrals must take on a defined value unless the denominator is zero, but the denominator cannot be zero if  $\phi_i$  is any function other than 0. Thus, the two functions  $\phi_i$  and  $\phi_j$  can always be combined so that a new pair of functions,  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$ , are found which are orthogonal.

If a set of three degenerate eigenfunctions  $\{\phi_i, \phi_j, \text{ and } \phi_k\}$  exist, one simply defines new functions

$$\phi_1 \equiv \phi_i,$$

$$\phi_2 = \phi_j + c \phi_i,$$

and  $\phi_3 = \phi_k + d \phi_i + e \phi_j$

and imposes the requirements  $\int \phi_1^* \phi_2 \, d\tau = 0$ ,  $\int \phi_1^* \phi_3 \, d\tau = 0$ , and  $\int \phi_2^* \phi_3 \, d\tau = 0$ , leading to three equations in the three unknown coefficients  $c$ ,  $d$ , and  $e$ .

This process may be generalized to an arbitrarily large set of degenerate eigenfunctions, and is called the Schmidt orthogonalization procedure.

### Theorem III:

Any arbitrary, well-behaved function,  $f$ , which satisfies the same boundary conditions as the eigenfunctions of a linear Hermitian operator,  $\hat{A}$ , can be expanded in terms of the complete set of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$  as:

$$f = \sum_i c_i \phi_i$$

where  $c_i = \int \phi_i^* f d\tau$ .

**PROOF:** We will not prove that the set of eigenfunctions  $\phi_i$  form a complete set — that is for the mathematicians to do. Instead we will solve for the coefficients,  $c_i$ . Begin with the assumption:

$$f = \sum_i c_i \phi_i$$

Multiply by  $\phi_j^*$  and integrate over all space, to obtain

$$\int \phi_j^* f d\tau = \sum_i \int \phi_j^* c_i \phi_i d\tau = \sum_i c_i \int \phi_j^* \phi_i d\tau = \sum_i c_i \delta_{ji} = c_j$$

Thus,  $c_j = \int \phi_j^* f d\tau$ , or  $c_i = \int \phi_i^* f d\tau$ , and

$$f = \sum_i \left[ \int \phi_j^* f d\tau \right] \phi_i.$$

### Theorem IV:

If there exists a common, complete set of eigenfunctions for two linear Hermitian operators,  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ , then these two operators commute such that

$$\hat{A}(\hat{B}f) = \hat{B}(\hat{A}f)$$

for any function,  $f$ .

NOTE: In general, operators do not commute. Thus, for example, the operators for position,  $\hat{x}$ , and momentum,  $\hat{p}_x = \hbar/i \partial/\partial x$ , do not commute:

$$\hat{x} \hat{p}_x f = x \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{\hbar}{i} x \frac{df}{dx}$$

but

$$\hat{p}_x \hat{x} f = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d(xf)}{dx} = \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[ \frac{dx}{dx} f + x \frac{df}{dx} \right] = \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[ f + x \frac{df}{dx} \right].$$

From this we see that

$$(\hat{p}_x \hat{x} - \hat{x} \hat{p}_x) f = \frac{\hbar}{i} \left[ f + x \frac{df}{dx} \right] - \frac{\hbar}{i} x \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{\hbar}{i} f.$$

This may be nicely summarized by

$$(\hat{p}_x \hat{x} - \hat{x} \hat{p}_x) f = \frac{\hbar}{i} f.$$

**PROOF:** By hypothesis, there is a common set of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ , which we may call  $\{\phi_i\}$ . Letting the eigenvalues be designated by  $a_i$  and  $b_i$ , we have

$$\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{B}\phi_i = b_i \phi_i$$

We want to prove that  $(\hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A})\psi = 0$  for any  $\psi$ .

First, expand  $\psi$  in terms of the eigenfunctions  $\phi_i$ :

$$\psi = \sum_i c_i \phi_i,$$
 where the coefficients  $c_i$  are given as  $c_i = \int \phi_i^* \psi d\tau$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A})\psi &= (\hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}) \sum_i c_i \phi_i \\ &= \sum_i (\hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}) c_i \phi_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_i c_i (\hat{A} \hat{B} - \hat{B} \hat{A}) \phi_i \\
&= \sum_i c_i (\hat{A} \hat{B} \phi_i - \hat{B} \hat{A} \phi_i) \\
&= \sum_i c_i (\hat{A} b_i \phi_i - \hat{B} a_i \phi_i) \\
&= \sum_i c_i (b_i \hat{A} \phi_i - a_i \hat{B} \phi_i) \\
&= \sum_i c_i (b_i a_i \phi_i - a_i b_i \phi_i) \\
&= \sum_i c_i (b_i a_i - a_i b_i) \phi_i \\
&= \sum_i c_i (b_i a_i - b_i a_i) \phi_i \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

This is true for any  $\psi$  which is an acceptable wavefunction, so the operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  commute.

NOTE: For this theorem to hold, the operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  must share a complete set of eigenfunctions, not just a few.

### Theorem V:

If  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  commute, then there exists a common, complete set of eigenfunctions for them.

NOTE: This does not mean that every eigenfunction of  $\hat{A}$  must be an eigenfunction of  $\hat{B}$ . In the case of degeneracy, the right linear combination of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$  must be found for them to also be eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$ .

**PROOF:** Let  $\hat{B}\phi_i = b_i \phi_i$ .  
Then,  $\hat{A}\hat{B}\phi_i = \hat{A}b_i \phi_i = b_i \hat{A}\phi_i$ .  
But if  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  commute, then  $\hat{A}\hat{B}\phi_i = \hat{B}\hat{A}\phi_i$ ,  
so  $\hat{B}\hat{A}\phi_i = b_i \hat{A}\phi_i$   
or  $\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i)$ .

So both  $\phi_i$  and  $(\hat{A}\phi_i)$  are eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$  with the same eigenvalue,  $b_i$ .

CASE A: The eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$  are nondegenerate. This means that only one eigenfunction exists which has the eigenvalue  $b_i$ . Of course, multiples of this eigenfunction are also eigenfunctions with the same eigenvalue, but are just not properly normalized.

Because no other eigenfunctions exist which give the same eigenvalue, our eigenfunction  $(\hat{A}\phi_i)$  must be a multiple of  $\phi_i$ , which could be written as  $a_i \phi_i$ . Thus we have  $\hat{A}\phi_i = a_i \phi_i$ , and our function  $\phi_i$  is simultaneously both an eigenfunction of  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ .

CASE B: The eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$  are degenerate. This means that there are a set of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$  which all have the same eigenvalue,  $b_i$ . We can designate these different eigenfunctions with the same eigenvalue as  $\phi_i^{(1)}, \phi_i^{(2)}, \phi_i^{(3)}, \phi_i^{(4)}, \dots$ . Our result above,  $\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i)$ , is true for any one of these  $\phi_i^{(k)}$ , giving a corresponding equation for each of the degenerate eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$ ,  $\phi_i^{(k)}$ :

$$\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)}) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)})$$

$$\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)}) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)})$$

$$\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i^{(3)}) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i^{(3)})$$

$$\hat{B}(\hat{A}\phi_i^{(4)}) = b_i (\hat{A}\phi_i^{(4)})$$

etc.

Thus, both the set  $\{\phi_i^{(1)}, \phi_i^{(2)}, \phi_i^{(3)}, \phi_i^{(4)}, \dots\}$  and the set  $\{\hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(3)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(4)}, \dots\}$  provide a set of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$ . Since there are only  $N$  linearly independent eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$ , we must assume that our set  $\{\hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(3)}, \hat{A}\phi_i^{(4)}, \dots\}$  consists of linear combinations of the set of functions  $\{\phi_i^{(1)}, \phi_i^{(2)}, \phi_i^{(3)}, \phi_i^{(4)}, \dots\}$ . Thus we may write:

$$\hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)} = A_{11}\phi_i^{(1)} + A_{12}\phi_i^{(2)} + A_{13}\phi_i^{(3)} + \dots$$

$$\hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)} = A_{21}\phi_i^{(1)} + A_{22}\phi_i^{(2)} + A_{23}\phi_i^{(3)} + \dots$$

$$\hat{A}\phi_i^{(3)} = A_{31}\phi_i^{(1)} + A_{32}\phi_i^{(2)} + A_{33}\phi_i^{(3)} + \dots$$

$$\hat{A}\phi_i^{(4)} = A_{41}\phi_i^{(1)} + A_{42}\phi_i^{(2)} + A_{43}\phi_i^{(3)} + \dots$$

etc.

This may also be written in the matrix form:

$$\hat{A} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_i^{(1)} \\ \phi_i^{(2)} \\ \phi_i^{(3)} \\ \phi_i^{(4)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} & A_{14} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} & A_{24} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} & A_{34} \\ A_{41} & A_{42} & A_{43} & A_{44} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_i^{(1)} \\ \phi_i^{(2)} \\ \phi_i^{(3)} \\ \phi_i^{(4)} \end{pmatrix}$$

If the theorem we wish to prove is true, then we should be able to find some linear combination of the degenerate eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$ ,  $\{\phi_i^{(1)}, \phi_i^{(2)}, \phi_i^{(3)}, \phi_i^{(4)}, \dots\}$ , which is also an eigenfunction of  $\hat{A}$ . Calling the new eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$   $\chi_j$ , with eigenvalues  $a_j$ , we then obtain:

$$\hat{A}\chi_j = a_j \chi_j, \text{ or writing } \chi_j \text{ out in full as a linear combination of the } \phi_i^{(k)},$$

$$\hat{A}[C_{j1} \phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \phi_i^{(2)} + C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots] = a_j [C_{j1} \phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \phi_i^{(2)} + C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots].$$

However, we know the action of  $\hat{A}$  on each  $\phi_i^{(k)}$  gives a linear combination of these functions, as

$$\hat{A}\phi_i^{(k)} = A_{k1} \phi_i^{(1)} + A_{k2} \phi_i^{(2)} + A_{k3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots,$$

so we seek the linear combination,  $C_{j1} \phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \phi_i^{(2)} + C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots$ , which gives:

$$[C_{j1} \hat{A}\phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \hat{A}\phi_i^{(2)} + \hat{A}C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots] = a_j [C_{j1} \phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \phi_i^{(2)} + C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots]$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} & [C_{j1} (A_{11} \phi_i^{(1)} + A_{12} \phi_i^{(2)} + A_{13} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots) \\ & + C_{j2} (A_{21} \phi_i^{(1)} + A_{22} \phi_i^{(2)} + A_{23} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots) \\ & + C_{j3} (A_{31} \phi_i^{(1)} + A_{32} \phi_i^{(2)} + A_{33} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots) + \dots] = a_j [C_{j1} \phi_i^{(1)} + C_{j2} \phi_i^{(2)} + C_{j3} \phi_i^{(3)} + \dots] \end{aligned}$$

Since the  $\phi_i^{(k)}$  functions are orthonormal and everything else in this expression is a constant, we can simplify things by multiplying by  $\phi_i^{(k)*}$  and integrating over all space to obtain:

$$[C_{j1} A_{1k} + C_{j2} A_{2k} + C_{j3} A_{3k} + \dots] = a_j [C_{jk}], \text{ one equation for each value of } k.$$

Writing out several of these equations, for  $k=1, 2, 3, \dots$  we get:

$$\begin{aligned} C_{j1} (A_{11} - a_j) + C_{j2} A_{21} + C_{j3} A_{31} + \dots &= 0 \\ C_{j1} A_{12} + C_{j2} (A_{22} - a_j) + C_{j3} A_{32} + \dots &= 0 \\ C_{j1} A_{13} + C_{j2} A_{23} + C_{j3} (A_{33} - a_j) + \dots &= 0 \\ \text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

These equations may be written in matrix form, as

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11}-a_j & A_{21} & A_{31} & A_{41} \\ A_{12} & A_{22}-a_j & A_{32} & A_{42} \\ A_{13} & A_{23} & A_{33}-a_j & A_{43} \\ A_{14} & A_{24} & A_{34} & A_{44}-a_j \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C_{j1} \\ C_{j2} \\ C_{j3} \\ C_{j4} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

or more compactly, as  $(\underline{\underline{A}}^t - a_j \underline{\underline{I}}) \underline{\underline{C}}_j = \underline{\underline{0}}$ , where  $\underline{\underline{A}}^t$  is the transpose of the  $\underline{\underline{A}}$  matrix. Thus, by finding the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the  $\underline{\underline{A}}^t$  matrix, the degenerate eigenfunctions of  $\hat{B}$  can be formed into linear combinations which are also eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$ . This proves our theorem.

## Theorem VI: The Variational Theorem

If  $\psi_0$  is the true ground state wavefunction corresponding to a mechanical system specified by the Hamiltonian,  $\hat{H}$ , with exact ground state energy  $E_0$ , and if  $\phi$  is a trial wavefunction which obeys the same boundary conditions as  $\psi_0$ , then the variational integral,  $W$ , obeys the following inequality:

$$W \equiv \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi \, d\tau}{\int \phi^* \phi \, d\tau} \geq E_0 .$$

**PROOF:** By theorem III,  $\phi$  can be expanded (in principle) in terms of the complete set of solutions to the true Hamiltonian (even though we do not know these wavefunctions). Denoting the exact solutions to  $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$  by  $\psi_n$ , with energies  $E_n$ , this gives

$$\phi = \sum c_n \psi_n , \text{ where } \hat{H}\psi_n = E_n \psi_n .$$

Then, evaluating  $\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi \, d\tau$  we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi \, d\tau &= \int [\sum c_n \psi_n]^* \hat{H} [\sum c_m \psi_m] \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m \int \psi_n^* \hat{H} \psi_m \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m \int \psi_n^* E_m \psi_m \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m E_m \int \psi_n^* \psi_m \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m E_m \delta_{n,m} \\ &= \sum c_n^* c_n E_n \\ &= \sum |c_n|^2 E_n \end{aligned}$$

But we may also evaluate  $\int \phi^* \phi \, d\tau$  in this way,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \phi^* \phi \, d\tau &= \int [\sum c_n \psi_n]^* [\sum c_m \psi_m] \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m \int \psi_n^* \psi_m \, d\tau \\ &= \sum \sum c_n^* c_m \delta_{n,m} \\ &= \sum c_n^* c_n = \sum |c_n|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Now, let's write out  $\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi \, d\tau$  in detail:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi \, d\tau &= \sum |c_n|^2 E_n \\ &= |c_0|^2 E_0 + |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_2 + |c_3|^2 E_3 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

If we choose the labels of the levels such that  $E_0$  is the ground state energy,  $E_1$  is the first excited state energy, *etc.*, then we can be sure that

$$E_0 \leq E_1 \leq E_2 \leq E_3 \dots$$

This implies that  $E_1 \geq E_0$ ,  $E_2 \geq E_0$ ,  $E_3 \geq E_0$ , *etc.*

Because the energies are ordered in this way, we can be sure that

$$\begin{aligned} \int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi \, d\tau &= \sum |c_n|^2 E_n = |c_0|^2 E_0 + |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_2 + |c_3|^2 E_3 + \dots \\ &\geq |c_0|^2 E_0 + |c_1|^2 E_0 + |c_2|^2 E_0 + |c_3|^2 E_0 + \dots \\ &\geq E_0 (|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 + \dots) \\ &\geq E_0 \sum |c_n|^2, \text{ or} \end{aligned}$$

$\int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi \, d\tau \geq E_0 \int \Phi^* \Phi \, d\tau$ , which after division by  $\int \Phi^* \Phi \, d\tau$  gives:

$$W \equiv \frac{\int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi \, d\tau}{\int \Phi^* \Phi \, d\tau} \geq E_0 .$$

**COROLLARY:** If the trial wavefunction  $\phi$  is chosen to be orthogonal to the exact ground state wavefunction,  $\psi_0$ , then

$$W \equiv \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi d\tau}{\int \phi^* \phi d\tau} \geq E_1 .$$

**PROOF:** All follows as before, up to the point

$$\int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi d\tau = |c_0|^2 E_0 + |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_2 + |c_3|^2 E_3 + \dots$$

and 
$$\int \Phi^* \Phi d\tau = |c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 + \dots$$

However, since the coefficients,  $c_n$  are given from Theorem III as  $c_n = \int \psi_n^* \phi d\tau$ , our assumption that  $\phi$  is orthogonal to the true ground state wavefunction,  $\psi_0$ , then makes  $c_0 = 0$ , giving

$$\int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi d\tau = |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_2 + |c_3|^2 E_3 + \dots$$

and 
$$\int \Phi^* \Phi d\tau = |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 + \dots$$

Using the inequalities  $E_1 \geq E_0$ ,  $E_2 \geq E_0$ ,  $E_3 \geq E_0$ , *etc.*, we can now write

$$\int \Phi^* \hat{H} \Phi d\tau = |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_2 + |c_3|^2 E_3 + \dots$$

$$\geq |c_1|^2 E_1 + |c_2|^2 E_1 + |c_3|^2 E_1 + \dots$$

$$\geq E_1 (|c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 + \dots)$$

$$\geq E_1 (|c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2 + \dots)$$

$$\geq E_1 \sum |c_n|^2, \text{ or}$$

$$W \equiv \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi d\tau}{\int \phi^* \phi d\tau} \geq E_1 .$$

By extension, if one chooses a trial wavefunction which is orthogonal to  $\psi_0$  and  $\psi_1$ , one obtains

$$W \equiv \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi d\tau}{\int \phi^* \phi d\tau} \geq E_2, \text{ etc.}$$

## Theorem VII: The Uncertainty Principle

For a system described by the wavefunction  $\psi$ , the uncertainties in the properties described by the linear, Hermitian operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  obey the relationship

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} \left| \int \psi^* [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \psi d\tau \right|.$$

**PROOF:** First, define the operators  $\delta\hat{A}$  and  $\delta\hat{B}$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta\hat{A} &\equiv \hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle \\ \delta\hat{B} &\equiv \hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Next, consider the integral

$$I = \int_{\text{all space}} |(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi|^2 d\tau,$$

where  $\alpha$  is an arbitrary real number. This integral is clearly greater than or equal to zero, since the integrand is never negative. Expanding this integral, we obtain

$$\int_{\text{all space}} \{(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\}^* \{(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\} d\tau \geq 0.$$

Separating the first factor in the integrand out into pieces, we obtain

$$\alpha \int_{\text{all space}} \{(\delta\hat{A})\psi\}^* \{(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\} d\tau + i \int_{\text{all space}} \{(\delta\hat{B})\psi\}^* \{(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\} d\tau \geq 0.$$

Next, we can make use of the fact that  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  are Hermitian (and as a consequence,  $\delta\hat{A}$  and  $\delta\hat{B}$  are also Hermitian) to give

$$\int_{\text{all space}} \psi^* \{\alpha \delta\hat{A}(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\} d\tau + \int_{\text{all space}} \psi^* \{i(\delta\hat{B})(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi\} d\tau \geq 0.$$

The two integrals may now be recombined to give

$$\int_{\text{all space}} \psi^* (\alpha \delta\hat{A} + i\delta\hat{B})(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B})\psi d\tau \geq 0,$$

which may be recognized as an expectation value and written as

$$\langle (\alpha \delta\hat{A} + i\delta\hat{B})(\alpha \delta\hat{A} - i\delta\hat{B}) \rangle \geq 0.$$

Multiplying out the operators, separating the result into terms, and factoring out the constants then gives

$$\alpha^2 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle - i\alpha \langle \delta \hat{A} \delta \hat{B} \rangle + i\alpha \langle \delta \hat{B} \delta \hat{A} \rangle + \langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle \geq 0.$$

The two terms involving  $\langle \delta \hat{A} \delta \hat{B} \rangle$  and  $\langle \delta \hat{B} \delta \hat{A} \rangle$  may be combined to give

$$\alpha^2 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle - i\alpha \langle \delta \hat{A} \delta \hat{B} - \delta \hat{B} \delta \hat{A} \rangle + \langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle \geq 0.$$

Defining  $\hat{C} \equiv -i [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$ , it is easy to show that  $\hat{C} = -i [\delta \hat{A}, \delta \hat{B}]$ . (This is obvious because the constants  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle$  and  $\langle \hat{B} \rangle$  commute with anything. Then the expression obtained above becomes

$$\alpha^2 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle + \alpha \langle \hat{C} \rangle + \langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle \geq 0.$$

Now, we can rewrite this expression in another form by completing the square, to give

$$\langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle \left( \alpha + \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle}{2 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle} \right)^2 + \langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle - \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{4 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle} \geq 0.$$

This inequality must hold true for all real values of  $\alpha$ . Setting

$$\alpha = - \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle}{2 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle},$$

we obtain the inequality

$$\langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle \geq \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{4 \langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle},$$

which rearranges to

$$\langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle \langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle \geq \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{4}.$$

Recognizing that  $\langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle = \langle (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{A}^2 - 2 \hat{A} \langle \hat{A} \rangle + \langle \hat{A} \rangle^2 \rangle$ , and noting that  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle$  and  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle^2$  are constants, which may be pulled out of the integral, we obtain

$$\langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{A} \rangle^2.$$

Likewise,

$$\langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{B} \rangle^2.$$

Thus,

$$\langle (\delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle = (\Delta A)^2$$

and

$$\langle (\delta \hat{B})^2 \rangle = (\Delta B)^2.$$

Our previous equation then becomes

$$(\Delta A)^2(\Delta B)^2 \geq \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{4} .$$

Taking the square root and substituting  $\hat{C} = -i [\delta\hat{A}, \delta\hat{B}]$ , we obtain:

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle [\delta\hat{A}, \delta\hat{B}] \rangle| .$$

If we now expand out the commutator, using  $\delta\hat{A} = \hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle$  and  $\delta\hat{B} = \hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle$ , and noting that the expectation values  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle$  and  $\langle \hat{B} \rangle$  are constants and commute with everything, we then obtain

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \rangle| .$$

This is the uncertainty principle in its most general form, which is valid for any two linear Hermitian operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ . For the specific case of position,  $\hat{x}$ , and momentum,  $\hat{p}$ , we may use the fact that these operators commute to give the constant  $i\hbar$ , which may be pulled out of the expectation value to give

$$\Delta x \Delta p_x \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} .$$

This is the classic form of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, relating position and momentum.