

# Postulates of Quantum Theory

Quantum Theory can be formulated according to a few *postulates* (i.e., theoretical principles based on experimental observations). The goal of this section is to introduce such principles, together with some mathematical concepts that are necessary for that purpose. **R1(190)** To keep the notation as simple as possible, expressions are written for a 1-dimensional system. The generalization to many dimensions is usually straightforward.

**Postulate 1**: Any system can be described by a wave function  $\psi(t, x)$ , where  $t$  is a parameter representing the time and  $x$  represents the coordinates of the system. Function  $\psi(t, x)$  must be continuous, single valued and square integrable. **R1(57)**

**Note 1**: As a consequence of Postulate 4, we will see that  $P(t, x) = \psi^*(t, x)\psi(t, x)dx$  represents the probability of finding the system between  $x$  and  $x + dx$  at time  $t$ .

**Postulate 2**: Any observable (i.e., any measurable property of the system) can be described by an operator. The operator must be linear and hermitian.

What is an *operator* ? What is a *linear operator* ? What is a *hermitian operator* ?

**Definition 1**: An operator  $\hat{O}$  is a mathematical entity that transforms a function  $f(x)$  into another function  $g(x)$  as follows, **R4(96)**

$$\hat{O}f(x) = g(x),$$

where  $f$  and  $g$  are functions of  $x$ .

**Definition 2: R1(190)** An operator  $\hat{O}$  that represents an observable  $O$  is obtained by first writing the classical expression of such observable in Cartesian coordinates (e.g.,  $O = O(x, p)$ ) and then substituting the coordinate  $x$  in such expression by the *coordinate operator*  $\hat{x}$  as well as the momentum  $p$  by the *momentum operator*  $\hat{p} = -i\hbar\partial/\partial x$ .

**Definition 3**: An operator  $\hat{O}$  is *linear* if and only if (iff),

$$\hat{O}(af(x) + bg(x)) = a\hat{O}f(x) + b\hat{O}g(x),$$

where a and b are constants.

**Definition 4:** An operator  $\hat{O}$  is *hermitian* iff, **R1(164)**

$$\int dx \phi_n^*(x) \hat{O} \psi_m(x) = \left[ \int dx \psi_m^*(x) \hat{O} \phi_n(x) \right]^*,$$

where the asterisk represents the complex conjugate of the expression embraced by brackets.

**Definition 5:** A function  $\phi_n(x)$  is an *eigenfunction* of  $\hat{O}$  iff,

$$\hat{O} \phi_n(x) = O_n \phi_n(x),$$

where  $O_n$  is a number called *eigenvalue*.

**Property 1:** The eigenvalues of a hermitian operator are real. **R1(166)(167)**

Proof: Using Definition 4, we obtain

$$\int dx \phi_n^*(x) \hat{O} \phi_n(x) - \left[ \int dx \phi_n^*(x) \hat{O} \phi_n(x) \right]^* = 0,$$

therefore,

$$[O_n - O_n^*] \int dx \phi_n(x)^* \phi_n(x) = 0.$$

Since  $\phi_n(x)$  are square integrable functions, then,

$$O_n = O_n^*.$$

**Property 2:** Different eigenfunctions of a hermitian operator (i.e., eigenfunctions with different eigenvalues) are orthogonal (i.e., the *scalar product* of two different eigenfunctions is equal to zero).

Mathematically, if  $\hat{O} \phi_n = O_n \phi_n$ , and  $\hat{O} \phi_m = O_m \phi_m$ , with  $O_n \neq O_m$ , then

$$\int dx \phi_n^* \phi_m = 0.$$

Proof:

$$\int dx \phi_m^* \hat{O} \phi_n - \left[ \int dx \phi_n^* \hat{O} \phi_m \right]^* = 0,$$

and

$$[O_n - O_m] \int dx \phi_m^* \phi_n = 0.$$

Since  $O_n \neq O_m$ , then  $\int dx \phi_m^* \phi_n = 0$ .

**Postulate 3**: The only possible experimental results of a measurement of an observable are the eigenvalues of the operator that corresponds to such observable.

**Postulate 4**: The average value of many measurements of an observable  $O$ , when the system is described by function  $\psi(x)$ , is equal to the expectation value  $\bar{O}$ , which is defined as follows,

$$\bar{O} = \frac{\int dx \psi(x)^* \hat{O} \psi(x)}{\int dx \psi(x)^* \psi(x)}.$$

**Expansion Postulate**: R1(191), R5(15)), R4(97) [here](#)

The eigenfunctions of a linear and hermitian operator form a complete basis set. Therefore, any function  $\psi(x)$  that is continuous, single valued, and square integrable can be expanded as a linear combination of eigenfunctions  $\phi_n(x)$  of a linear and hermitian operator  $\hat{A}$  as follows,

$$\psi(x) = \sum_j C_j \phi_j(x),$$

where  $C_j$  are numbers (e.g., [complex numbers](#)) called *expansion coefficients*.

**Exercise 1**: Show that  $\bar{A} = \sum_j C_j C_j^* a_j$ , when  $\psi(x) = \sum_j C_j \phi_j(x)$ ,

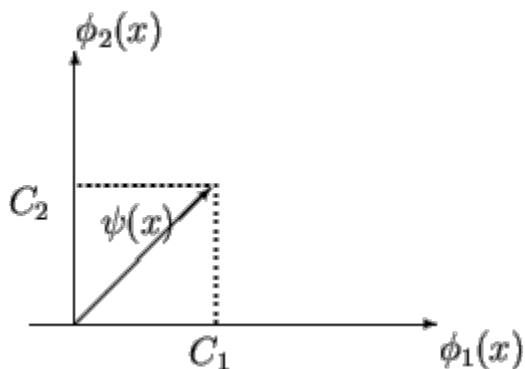
$$\hat{A}\phi_j(x) = a_j\phi_j(x), \quad \text{and} \quad \int dx\phi_j(x)^*\phi_k(x) = \delta_{jk}.$$

Note that (according to Postulate 3) eigenvalues  $a_j$  are the only possible experimental results of measurements of  $\hat{A}$ , and that (according to Postulate 4) the expectation value  $\bar{A}$  is the average value of many measurements of  $\hat{A}$  when the system is described by the expansion  $\psi(x) = \sum_j C_j\phi_j(x)$ . Therefore, the product  $C_jC_j^*$  can be interpreted as the probability weight associated with eigenvalue  $a_j$  (i.e., the probability that the outcome of an observation of  $\hat{A}$  will be  $a_j$ ).

### Hilbert-Space

According to the Expansion Postulate (together with Postulate 1), the state of a system described by the function  $\Psi(x)$  can be expanded as a linear combination of eigenfunctions  $\phi_j(x)$  of a linear and hermitian operator (e.g.,  $\Psi(x) = C_1\phi_1(x) + C_2\phi_2(x) + \dots$ ). Usually, the space defined by these eigenfunctions (i.e., functions that are continuous, single valued and square integrable) has an infinite number of dimensions. Such space is called *Hilbert-Space* in honor to the mathematician Hilbert who did pioneer work in spaces of infinite dimensionality. **R4(94)**

A representation of  $\Psi(x)$  in such space of functions corresponds to a vector-function,



where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are the projections of  $\Psi(x)$  along  $\phi_1(x)$  and  $\phi_2(x)$ , respectively. All other components are omitted from the representation because they are orthogonal to the "plane" defined by  $\phi_1(x)$  and  $\phi_2(x)$ .

### Continuous Representation

Certain operators have a continuous spectrum of eigenvalues. For example, the coordinate operator is one such operator since it satisfies the equation  $\hat{x} \delta(x_0 - x) = x_0 \delta(x_0 - x)$ , where the eigenvalues  $x_0$  define a *continuum*. Delta functions  $\delta(x_0 - x)$  define a continuum representation and, therefore, an expansion of  $\psi(x)$  in such representation becomes,

$$\psi(x) = \int dx_0 C_{x_0} \delta(x_0 - x),$$

where  $C_{x_0} = \psi(x_0)$ , since

$$\int dx \delta(x - \beta) \psi(x) = \int dx \int d\alpha C_\alpha \delta(x - \beta) \delta(\alpha - x) = \psi(\beta).$$

According to postulates 3 and 4 (see Exercise 1), the probability of observing the system with coordinate eigenvalues between  $x_0$  and  $x_0 + dx_0$  is

$$P(x_0) = C_{x_0} C_{x_0}^* dx_0 = \psi(x_0) \psi(x_0)^* dx_0 \text{ (see Note 1).}$$

In general, when the basis functions  $\phi(\alpha, x)$  are *not* necessarily delta functions but nonetheless define a continuum representation,

$$\psi(x) = \int d\alpha C_\alpha \phi(\alpha, x),$$

with  $C_\alpha = \int dx \phi(\alpha, x)^* \psi(x)$ .

**Note 2:** According to the Expansion Postulate, a function  $\psi(x)$  is uniquely and completely defined by the coefficients  $C_j$ , associated with its expansion in a complete set of eigenfunctions  $\phi_j(x)$ .

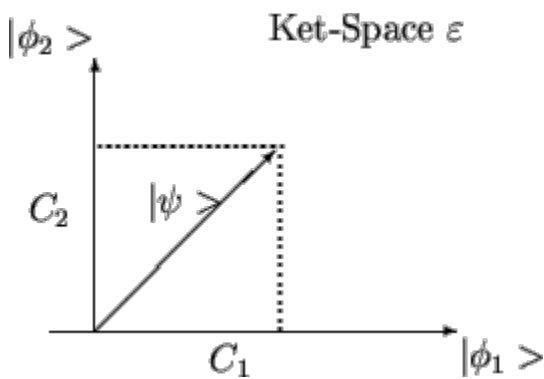
However, the coefficients of such expansion would be different if the same basis functions  $\phi_j$  depended on different coordinates (e.g.,  $\phi_j(x')$  with  $x' \neq x$ ). In order to eliminate such ambiguity in the description it is necessary to introduce the concept of *vector-ket* space. **R4(108)**

**Vector-Ket Space**  $\mathcal{E}$

The vector-ket space is introduced to represent states in a convenient space of *vectors*  $|\phi_j\rangle$ , instead of working in the space of *functions*  $\phi_j(x)$ . The main difference is that the coordinate dependence does not need to be specified when working in the vector-ket space. According to such representation, function  $\psi(x)$  is the *component* of vector  $|\psi\rangle$  associated with index  $x$  (*vide infra*). Therefore, for any function  $\psi(x) = \sum_j C_j \phi_j(x)$ , we can define a ket-vector  $|\psi\rangle$  such that,

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_j C_j |\phi_j\rangle.$$

The representation of  $|\psi\rangle$  in space  $\varepsilon$  is,



Note that the expansion coefficients  $C_j$  depend only on the kets  $|\psi_j\rangle$  and not on any specific vector component. Therefore, the ambiguity mentioned above is removed.

In order to learn how to operate with kets we need to introduce the *bra space* and the concept of *linear functional*. After doing so, this section will be concluded with the description of *Postulate 5*, and the *Continuity Equation*.

### Linear functionals

A functional  $\chi$  is a mathematical operation that transforms a function  $\psi(x)$  into a number. This concept is extended to the vector-ket space  $\varepsilon$ , as an operation that transforms a vector-ket into a number as follows,

$$\chi(\psi(x)) = n, \text{ or } \chi(|\psi\rangle) = n,$$

where  $n$  is a number. A *linear* functional satisfies the following equation,

$$\chi(a\psi(x) + bf(x)) = a\chi(\psi(x)) + b\chi(f(x)),$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants.

**Example:** The scalar product, **R4(110)**

$$n = \int dx \psi^*(x) \phi(x),$$

is an example of a linear functional, since such an operation transforms a function  $\phi(x)$  into a number  $n$ . In order to introduce the scalar product of kets, we need to introduce the *bra-space*.

**Bra Space**  $\varepsilon^*$

For every ket  $|\psi\rangle$  we define a linear functional  $\langle\psi|$ , called *bra-vector*, as follows:

$$\langle\psi|(|\phi\rangle) = \int dx \psi^*(x) \phi(x).$$

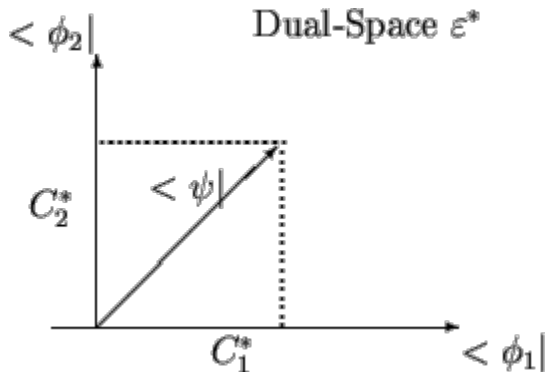
Note that functional  $\langle\psi|$  is linear because the scalar product is a linear functional. Therefore,

$$\langle\psi|(a|\phi\rangle + b|f\rangle) = a\langle\psi|(|\phi\rangle) + b\langle\psi|(|f\rangle).$$

**Note:** For convenience, we will omit parenthesis so that the notation  $\langle\psi|(|\phi\rangle)$  will be equivalent to  $\langle\psi||\phi\rangle$ . Furthermore, whenever we find two bars next to each other we can merge them into a single one without changing the meaning of the expression. Therefore,

$$\langle\psi||\phi\rangle = \langle\psi|\phi\rangle.$$

The space of bra-vectors is called dual space  $\varepsilon^*$  simply because given a ket  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_j C_j |\phi_j\rangle$ , the corresponding bra-vector is  $\langle\psi| = \sum_j C_j^* \langle\phi_j|$ . In analogy to the ket-space, a bra-vector  $\langle\psi|$  is represented in space  $\varepsilon^*$  according to the following diagram:



where  $C_j^*$  is the projection of  $\langle \psi |$  along  $\langle \phi_j |$ .

### Projection Operator and Closure Relation

Given a ket  $|\psi\rangle$  in a certain basis set  $|\phi_j\rangle$ ,

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_j C_j |\phi_j\rangle, \quad (1)$$

where  $\langle \phi_k | \phi_j \rangle = \delta_{kj}$ ,

$$C_j = \langle \phi_j | \psi \rangle. \quad (2)$$

Substituting Eq. (2) into Eq.(1), we obtain

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_j |\phi_j\rangle \langle \phi_j | \psi \rangle. \quad (3)$$

From Eq.(3), it is obvious that

$$\sum_j |\phi_j\rangle \langle \phi_j| = \hat{1}, \quad \text{Closure Relation}$$

where  $\hat{1}$  is the identity operator that transforms any ket, or function, into itself.



Note that  $\hat{P}_j = |\phi_j\rangle\langle\phi_j|$  is an operator that transforms any vector  $|\psi\rangle$  into a vector pointing in the direction of  $|\phi_j\rangle$  with magnitude  $\langle\phi_j|\psi\rangle$ . The operator  $\hat{P}_j$  is called the *Projection Operator*. It projects  $|\phi_j\rangle$  according to,

$$\hat{P}_j|\psi\rangle = \langle\phi_j|\psi\rangle |\phi_j\rangle.$$

Note that  $\hat{P}_j^2 = \hat{P}_j$ , where  $\hat{P}_j^2 = \hat{P}_j\hat{P}_j$ . This is true simply because  $\langle\phi_j|\phi_j\rangle = 1$ .

**Postulate 5**: The evolution of  $\psi(x, t)$  in time is described by the [time dependent Schrodinger equation](#):

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial\psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\psi(x, t),$$

where  $\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \hat{V}(x)$ , is the operator associated with the total energy of the system,

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x).$$

### Continuity Equation

**Exercise 2**: Prove that

$$\frac{\partial(\psi^*(x, t)\psi(x, t))}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial j(x, t)}{\partial x} = 0,$$

where

$$j(x, t) = \frac{\hbar}{2mi} \left( \psi^*(x, t) \frac{\partial\psi(x, t)}{\partial x} - \psi(x, t) \frac{\partial\psi^*(x, t)}{\partial x} \right).$$

In general, for higher dimensional problems, the change in time of probability density,  $\rho(\mathbf{x}, t) = \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t)\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$ , is equal to minus the divergence of the probability flux  $\mathbf{j}$ ,

$$\frac{\partial \rho(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j}.$$

This is the so-called [Continuity Equation](#).

**Note:** Remember that given a vector field  $\mathbf{j}$ , e.g.,

$\mathbf{j}(x, y, z) = j_1(x, y, z)\hat{i} + j_2(x, y, z)\hat{j} + j_3(x, y, z)\hat{k}$ , the divergence of  $\mathbf{j}$  is defined as the

dot product of the "del" operator  $\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)$  and vector  $\mathbf{j}$  as follows:

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = \frac{\partial j_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial j_2}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial j_3}{\partial z}.$$

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