

## 14 The Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle

Now we are ready to find out what the Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle really is, in all its glory. There are two slightly different ways to derive this and we will study both ways. The first approach is rigorous and that's useful. The second is more elegant and leads to fun things such as coherent states. (Incidentally Glauber got the Nobel prize for physics in 2005, for his work on coherent states.)

Let  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  be two Hermitian operators. Let's define the commutator of these operators as:

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = i\hat{C} \quad (14.1)$$

where  $\hat{C}$  is another operator.

**Homework:** Prove that  $\hat{C}$  is a Hermitian operator. (To prove this you will need to know that  $[\hat{A}\hat{B}]^\dagger = \hat{B}^\dagger\hat{A}^\dagger$ .)

Now let's define an operator  $\hat{D}$  that is a complex linear combination of  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ :

$$\hat{D} = \hat{A} + (\alpha + i\beta)\hat{B} \quad (14.2)$$

$\hat{D}$  is a complex linear combination of  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$ . Note that  $\alpha + i\beta$  is a complex number.

Now  $\hat{D}$  is an operator and hence we can say:

$$\hat{D}|S\rangle = |Q\rangle \quad (14.3)$$

That is the operator  $\hat{D}$  contains a recipe that converts the ket vector  $|S\rangle$  to the ket vector  $|Q\rangle$

Now, the “dot” product of  $|Q\rangle$  with itself, that is the quantity  $\langle Q|Q\rangle \geq 0$ . (Why? The dot product of any two vectors is always greater than or equal to zero. Remind yourself that this is indeed true by going back to Section 4.3.1 and the appendix.)

This means:

$$\langle Q|Q\rangle = \langle S|\hat{D}^\dagger\hat{D}|S\rangle \geq 0 \quad (14.4)$$

Note, we have used:  $\langle S|\hat{D}^\dagger \equiv \langle Q|$ .

If we use Eq. (14.2) in Eq. (14.4):

$$\langle S|\{\hat{A} + \alpha\hat{B} + i\beta\hat{B}\}^\dagger\{\hat{A} + \alpha\hat{B} + i\beta\hat{B}\}|S\rangle \geq 0 \quad (14.5)$$

Since  $\hat{A}^\dagger = \hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}^\dagger = \hat{B}$  since they are Hermitian, this implies

$$\langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle + (\alpha^2 + \beta^2) \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle + \alpha \langle \hat{C}' \rangle - \beta \langle \hat{C} \rangle \geq 0 \quad (14.6)$$

where  $\hat{C}' = [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]_+$ . Now we can rewrite the left side in the above equation in the following fashion:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle + \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle \left( \alpha + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\langle \hat{C}' \rangle}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} \right)^2 + \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle \left( \beta - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} \right)^2 \\ - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} \geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (14.7)$$

Since the above expression holds for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  we are certainly free to choose the value of these variables as per our convenience. In particular we choose these variables to simplify our algebra. We choose  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that the bracketed terms become zero, leading to:

$$\langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{\langle \hat{C} \rangle^2}{\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle} \geq 0 \quad (14.8)$$

Multiplying by  $\langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle$ , we obtain:

$$\langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle - \frac{1}{4} \left( \langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2 + \langle \hat{C} \rangle^2 \right) \geq 0 \quad (14.9)$$

That is,

$$\langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle \geq \frac{1}{4} \left( \langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2 + \langle \hat{C} \rangle^2 \right) \geq \frac{1}{4} \langle \hat{C} \rangle^2 \quad (14.10)$$

Note, we have used the fact that  $\langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2 \geq 0$ , the expectation value of a Hermitian operator is always greater than zero.

**Homework: Prove the  $\hat{C}'$  is Hermitian operator. Also show that  $\langle \hat{C}' \rangle^2 \geq 0$ .**

Now the uncertainty in the observable  $A$  is defined as:

$$\Delta A = \hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle \quad (14.11)$$

Does it make sense that this is the uncertainty in  $A$ ? The second term on the right side is the average measured value or expectation value. The action of the first term on a ket yields a eigenstate of  $A$  which could in general be different from the expectation value. (Remember the SG example from the discussion expectation values.)

This implies the average uncertainty is given by

$$\langle (\Delta A)^2 \rangle \equiv (\Delta A)^2 = \langle (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{A}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{A} \rangle^2 \quad (14.12)$$

And similarly for the operator  $\hat{B}$  we have:

$$\langle (\Delta B)^2 \rangle \equiv (\Delta B)^2 = \langle (\hat{B} - \langle \hat{B} \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{B}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{B} \rangle^2 \quad (14.13)$$

If we assume the average expectation values  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle = \langle \hat{B} \rangle = 0$ ,

$$(\Delta A)^2 (\Delta B)^2 \geq \frac{1}{4} \langle \hat{C} \rangle^2 \quad (14.14)$$

or

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{C} \rangle| \quad (14.15)$$

Equation (14.15) is called the Heisenberg uncertainty principle.

**This equation suggests that one cannot specify, simultaneously, exact values (eigenvalues) of a pair of non-commuting observables (e.g., position and momentum as we will see further down below) and places quantitative restrictions on their relative variances.**

Now,  $\Delta A$  and  $\Delta B$  uncertainties in a measurement of  $A$  and  $B$ . The equation above implies that if the operators do not commute they cannot be simultaneously measured with infinite certainty. *Remember we learnt earlier that commuting operators simultaneous eigenstates. When they do not commute, their eigenstates may be different leading to the fact that they cannot be simultaneously observed and hence the uncertainty principle above.*

The essential origin of this principle is that quantum mechanics possesses the mathematical structure of a linear vector space (viz., a Hilbert space). *Note we have implicitly used nothing but vector spaces to derive uncertainty. Why? All we assumed is operators act on kets, and yield new kets.*

1. **Uncertainty of position and momentum.** You may recall based on your homework that:

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = \left[ \hat{x}, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right] = i\hbar \quad (14.16)$$

Thus using this in Eq. (14.15) we obtain:

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{1}{2} \hbar \quad (14.17)$$

Thus one cannot specify, simultaneously, the position and momentum of a system. As stated earlier this entirely due to the mathematical structure of a linear vector space that we have been forced to introduce on account of the Stern-Gerlach experiments!! The transformation between the position representation of the vector space and the momentum representation is the Fourier transform as we have seen earlier, in Eq. (6.4), the collection of waves or wave-packet. ( $\exp [ikx]$  is the momentum eigenstate.)

## 2. The Minimum Uncertainty Wavepackets and Coherent States

There is another way to derive the Heisenberg's uncertainty principle. We will consider that here briefly to expose a very important concept. You may wonder Eqs. (14.15) and (14.17) are inequalities. Are there conditions when the equality is valid? That is to put the question a different way, what are the functions, or states, that have the *minimum uncertainty product*  $\Delta x \Delta p = \frac{1}{2}\hbar$ . We will see here that these functions are basically a "Gaussian multiplied by a plane-wave" (or moving gaussians since the plane wave being an eigenstate of momentum simply translates the gaussian) and are called as the *minimum uncertainty wavepackets* or "*coherent states*" more commonly.

Reconsider Eq. (14.12) in the following form:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle (\Delta \hat{A})^2 \rangle &\equiv \langle (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle f_1 | (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^\dagger (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle) | f_1 \rangle \\
 &= \langle g_1 | g_1 \rangle \\
 &= \int dx g_1^*(x) g_1(x) \\
 &= \int dx |g_1(x)|^2 \qquad (14.18)
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $|g_1\rangle = (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle) |f_1\rangle$  and hence  $\langle g_1| = \langle f_1| (\hat{A} - \langle \hat{A} \rangle)^\dagger$ . In the last part of Eq. (14.18) we have resolved the identity using the coordinate representation. (Remember what that means? Resolution of the identity, that is 1, is inserted in the middle in  $\langle g_1| g_1 \rangle$ .)

Now, we will invoke a useful mathematical tool called the Schwartz inequality which says that for any two functions  $g_1$  and  $g_2$ :

$$\left(\int dx |g_1(x)|^2\right) \left(\int dx |g_2(x)|^2\right) \geq \left|\int dx g_1(x) * g_2(x)\right|^2 \quad (14.19)$$

So as not to lose the flow we will accept this identity for now, but you can rationalize this identity by considering the fact that the two terms on the left are “dot” products of  $g_1$  with itself, and  $g_2$  with itself. The equality in Eq. (14.19) only holds when  $g_2 \propto g_1$ .

Since a similar equality like Eq. (14.18) holds for operator  $\hat{B}$  (that is replace  $\hat{A}$  with  $\hat{B}$  in Eq. (14.18) and using the function  $|g_2\rangle = (\hat{B} - \langle\hat{B}\rangle) |f_1\rangle$ ), we can say:

$$\langle(\Delta\hat{A})^2\rangle \langle(\Delta\hat{B})^2\rangle \geq \left\{ \langle f_1 | (\hat{A} - \langle\hat{A}\rangle)^\dagger (\hat{B} - \langle\hat{B}\rangle) | f_1 \rangle \right\}^2 \quad (14.20)$$

where the equality holds only when

$$\begin{aligned} g_2 &\propto g_1 \\ g_2 &= cg_1 \\ (\hat{B} - \langle\hat{B}\rangle) |f_1\rangle &= c(\hat{A} - \langle\hat{A}\rangle) |f_1\rangle \end{aligned} \quad (14.21)$$

If we now use  $\hat{x}$  and  $\hat{p}$  for the operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  then

$$(\hat{x} - \langle\hat{x}\rangle) |f_1\rangle = c(\hat{p} - \langle\hat{p}\rangle) |f_1\rangle \quad (14.22)$$

or

$$(x - \langle\hat{x}\rangle) f_1(x) = c \left( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \langle\hat{p}\rangle \right) f_1(x) \quad (14.23)$$

3. Equation (14.23) is actually very fundamental. If choose  $\langle \hat{x} \rangle = \langle \hat{p} \rangle = 0$  and  $c = 1/(i\hbar)$ , we get the equation

$$\left(x + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f_1(x) = \left(\langle \hat{x} \rangle + \frac{i \langle \hat{p} \rangle}{\hbar}\right) f_1(x) = 0 \quad (14.24)$$

You can see that if you pick:

$$f_1(x) = c_1 \exp\left\{-\frac{(x - \langle \hat{x} \rangle)^2}{4 \{\Delta x\}^2}\right\} \exp\left\{\frac{i \langle \hat{p} \rangle x}{\hbar}\right\} \quad (14.25)$$

that would satisfy Eq. (14.24). (Show this for **homework** Comment on what  $\Delta x$  must be for this to be true. Remember we have picked  $\langle \hat{x} \rangle = \langle \hat{p} \rangle = 0$ . Eq. (14.25) is a gaussian multiplied by a plane wave and is called a *coherent state*. The operator on the left hand side of Eq. (14.24),  $\left(x + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$  is called the annihilation operator which we will come across when we do the Harmonic oscillator problem. It *annihilates* the state  $f_1(x)$  and the result is zero.

4. *Hence the coherent state is fundamental. It has the minimum uncertainty product. And hence is the most classical-like function in quantum mechanics!! (Note in classical mechanics there is no uncertainty and hence a function that has the minimum value is closest to classical mechanics.) In addition the coherent state is also the eigenstate of the annihilation operator (which we have not discussed yet).*