

1) 158(1). Some Remarks Concerning the Heisenberg Method
 The Heisenberg "uncertainty principle" is inherent in
 the theory of superposition of waves in one dimension, (J.D.
 Jackson, "Classical Electrodynamics", 3rd ed., pp. 522 ff.)
 eq. (7.82)). If the wave spectrum propagates in Z ,
 and the wavenumber is k , then:

$$\Delta Z \Delta k > \frac{1}{2} - (1)$$

where ΔZ and Δk are root mean square deviations. This
 is a property of waves, including matter waves of de
 Broglie. The latter proposed that:

$$\Delta Z \Delta p > \frac{1}{2} - (2)$$

$$\text{from eq. (1) or eq. (2)}: \Delta Z \Delta p > \frac{1}{2} - (3)$$

This is elevated to the "Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle"
 in the Copenhagen interpretation of quantum mechanics. In
 the interpretation of the causal realist school, eq.
 (3) has no more information than eq. (1), which
 is a property of waves.

The wave property can be illustrated as in
 P.W. Atkins, "Molecular Quantum Mechanics" (Oxford
 Univ. Press, 2nd ed., 1983), page 95. Consider a
 wavefunction of the Gaussian type:

$$2) \quad \psi(x) = N \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\Gamma}\right) \quad (4)$$

In this case $\langle x^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle p^2 \rangle^{1/2} - (5)$

$$\Delta x \Delta p = \langle x^2 \rangle^{1/2} \langle p^2 \rangle^{1/2} - (5)$$

where

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = N^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\Gamma}\right) dx = \frac{\Gamma}{2} - (6)$$

$$\langle p^2 \rangle = N^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\Gamma}\right) \left(-\hbar^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\Gamma}\right) dx - (7)$$

$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{2\Gamma} - (8)$$

We have

$$\langle x \rangle = 0, \quad \langle p \rangle = 0.$$

$$\text{So } \Delta x \Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{2} - (9)$$

These equations come from the definition:

$$\langle x \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{x} \psi d\tau - (10)$$

$$\langle p \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{p} \psi d\tau - (11)$$

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{x}^2 \psi d\tau - (12)$$

$$\langle p^2 \rangle = \int \psi^* \hat{p}^2 \psi d\tau - (13)$$

of expectation values. The operators are defined as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 3) \quad & \hat{x} \psi = x \psi - (14) \\
 & \hat{p} \psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi - (15) \\
 & \hat{x}^2 \psi = x^2 \psi - (16) \\
 & \hat{x}^2 \psi = -\frac{i\hbar^2}{m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi - (17)
 \end{aligned}$$

The causal realist school asserts that "classical equations have nothing but 'unshowable'". The Copenhagen school asserts that the system contains "determinacy". The latter is intended to mean "it determines what happens precisely".

$$\text{But if } x \text{ and } p \text{ are simple multiples of } \psi. \quad (18)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{commute:} \quad & [x, p] \psi = 0 \\
 & = (xp - px) \psi
 \end{aligned}$$

in which case x and p are simple multiples of ψ .

However, in quantum mechanics:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p^\mu &= i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x^\mu} - (19) \\
 \text{where} \quad & p^\mu = \left(\frac{E}{c}, \underline{p} \right) - (20) \\
 & \underline{p}^\mu = \left(\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, -\nabla \right) - (21)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$so \quad \hat{E} \psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi - (22)$$

$$\hat{p} \psi = -i\hbar \nabla \psi - (23)$$

4) It follows that if classical:

$$T = \frac{p^2}{2m} \quad (24)$$

becomes

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \psi = T \psi \quad (25)$$

$$\hat{H} \psi - T \psi \quad (26)$$

i.e. if kinetic energy is considered,

In this case, only $T = E$. $\quad (27)$

so $\hat{H} = T = E$. usual Schrödinger equation:

This gives $\hat{H} \psi = E \psi$. $\quad (28)$

It is also possible to write:

$$-i\hbar \frac{d\psi}{dx} = p \psi \quad (29)$$

$$\text{and } -i\hbar \psi^* \frac{dp}{dx} = \psi^* p \quad (30)$$

A solution of eqns. (29) and (30) is:

$$p = \hbar k, \quad \psi = \exp(i k x) \quad (31)$$

This is also a solution of eq. (25). It is seen

that the de Broglie postulate:

$$p = \hbar k \quad (32)$$

is equivalent to

$$p = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \quad (33)$$

Essentially, the Schrödinger equation is:

$$\hat{x}\psi = x\psi, \quad - (34)$$

$$\hat{p}\psi = -i\hbar \frac{d\psi}{dx}, \quad - (35)$$

$$E\psi = i\hbar \frac{d\psi}{dt} \quad - (36)$$

The Heisenberg equation is:

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}]\psi = i\hbar \psi \quad - (37)$$

and contains no more information than the Schrödinger equation. Eq. (37) is:

$$\hat{x}(\hat{p}\psi) - \hat{p}(\hat{x}\psi)$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[x \frac{d\psi}{dx} + i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} (x\psi) \right]$$

$$= -i\hbar x \frac{d\psi}{dx} + i\hbar x \frac{d\psi}{dx} + i\hbar \psi$$

$$- (38)$$

Q. E. D.

If it were possible to solve the Schrödinger equation there would be no need of the Heisenberg equation.

As described by J. R. Cruce in "Toward a Non-local Quantum Physics" (WS 2001), pp. 94 ff.

b) Eq.(37) is simply a consequence of
 $\hat{P}^n = i\hbar \partial^n$ — (39)

and from deeper meaning, the principle of uncertainty and the principle of the conservation of energy are the same principle. The principle of uncertainty is shown to be correct by nine orders of magnitude.

For the wavenumber to be correctly normalized to a value of unity, it must be:

$$\psi = \frac{1}{L^{1/2}} e^{-ikx} — (40)$$

$$\int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \psi^* \psi dx = 1. — (41)$$

and

$$\text{Then: } \langle \hat{x} \rangle = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \psi^* x \psi dx = \frac{1}{L} \left. \frac{x^2}{2} \right|_{-L/2}^{L/2} — (42)$$

$$= 0 — (42)$$

$$\langle \hat{p} \rangle = -i\hbar \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} e^{-ikx} \frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} dx$$

$$= -\hbar k — (43)$$

$$\langle \hat{x}^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} \psi^* x^2 \psi dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{L} \left. \frac{x^3}{3} \right|_{-L/2}^{L/2} = \frac{L^3}{12} — (44)$$

$$\langle \hat{p}^2 \rangle = -\frac{\hbar^2}{L} \int_{-L/2}^{L/2} e^{-ikx} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} e^{ikx} dx = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{L} — (45)$$

So:

$$\langle \hat{x} \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \hat{x}^2 \rangle = \frac{L^2}{12}, \quad \langle \hat{p} \rangle = \hbar \kappa, \quad \langle \hat{p}^2 \rangle = \hbar^2 \kappa^2. \quad (46)$$

if $\psi = \frac{1}{L^{1/2}} e^{-ikx}$

Therefore:

$$\delta \hat{x} = \left(\langle \hat{x}^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{x} \rangle^2 \right)^{1/2} = \frac{L}{\sqrt{12}}. \quad (47)$$

and

$$\delta \hat{p} = 0$$

$$\boxed{\delta \hat{x} \delta \hat{p} = 0} \quad (48)$$

The Heisenberg uncertainty principle is:

$$\delta \hat{x} \delta \hat{p} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}. \quad (49)$$

Oppenheimer Interpretation

This asserts (incorrectly) that eq. (49) must be true. This is possible if and only if L becomes infinite. Oppenheimer asserts that:

$$\delta \hat{p} = 0, \quad \delta \hat{x} = \infty \quad (50)$$

and that x is "unknowable". All bits of

8) complications arise from the fact that:
 $L \rightarrow \infty$ - (S1) that the
 The root cause of the situation (S1) is
 Born normalization is asserted to extend from $-\infty$
 to ∞ along x .

Causal and Local Paradox of de Broglie

A quantum particle is described by a pilot wave which moves with the particle. The solution of the Schrödinger equation are real waves, not probability waves. So in the causal interpretation the Born probability interpretation and normalization does not apply. The real quantum particle is described by a finite, localized wavelet.

In an experiment on pp. 112 of his book, Croca shows that:

$$\Delta x \Delta p = 10^{-9} \frac{\text{fm}}{2} \quad \text{experimentally}$$

- (S2)

This violates eq. (49).

Caveat: If Δx is finite in the Born interpretation, then

$$\Delta x \Delta p = 0 \quad - (S3)$$

and experiments indicate $\Delta x \Delta p \approx 0$ - (S4)