

## V IV. Foundations of Quantum Mechanics

### V.1 IV.1 Axioms Revisited

\* We note that the wave mechanics developed in chapter I satisfies (Q1-Q4)

the axioms first proposed in I.1. In particular, wave functions

$\psi$  = vectors in a concrete Hilbert space (like  $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ ).

\* However, mathematically it is not necessary for states to be wave fcts.

Many results in quantum mechanics can be derived w/o referring to wave fcts.

In fact there are systems (e.g. spin of pointlike particles) that

are described by states in a Hilbert space w/o a wave fct. interpretation

being available.

\* Thus it is better to introduce an "abstract" Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  with

"abstract" vectors  $|\psi\rangle$  denoting states. From here on we will use the "ket" <sup>(\*)</sup>

notation for states:  $|\psi\rangle$

<sup>(\*)</sup> More on the motivation later.

#### IV.1.1 Bras and Kets

\* Riesz Representation Theorem:

Let  $F: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a linear <sup>complex-valued</sup> function (or 1-form) on  $\mathcal{H}$ .

Then there exists exactly one  $|q_F\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  such that  $F(|\psi\rangle) = \underbrace{\langle q_F | \psi \rangle}_{\text{scalar product}}$   
for all  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ .

I.e. 1 forms = scalar products with a certain vector.

\* Conclusion: If  $F$  corresponds to the scalar product with a vector (or state)

$|\psi\rangle$  we denote  $F = \langle \psi |$  ("bra notation")

Formally "bras" are dual vectors to kets. Finite-dimensional example:

kets = column vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$

bras = row vectors  $(a_1, a_2, a_3)$

$\langle \text{bra} | \text{ket} \rangle = (\dots)(\dots) = \text{scalar product}$

The bra-ket notation is consistent with and in fact motivated by  
the notation for the scalar product.

## IV. 1.2. Representations

- \* Eigenstates of Hermitian operators play a particular role as bases.

We will often use the eigenvalue of an eigenstate, or, if necessary, a complete set of eigenvalues of commuting operators, to uniquely label a state.

Complete here means: we add commuting operators (i.e. with common eigenfunctions) until all degeneracies of eigenvalues are lifted.

This is always possible, otherwise degenerate eigenfcts. would not be distinguishable by measurements.

- \* Examples:

$|n\rangle$  =  $n^{\text{th}}$  eigenstate of harmonic osc.

$|n_1, n_2, n_3\rangle$  for eigenstates of the 3-D infinite square well

$|\vec{p}\rangle = |p_x, p_y, p_z\rangle$  for free (planar wave) eigenstates

↑  
be eigenvalues of 3 operators  $p_x, p_y, p_z$ . Energy, e.g. alone would not be sufficient for labelling.

(10)

- \* Let  $|a_i\rangle$ ,  $i=1,..,N$   $N \in \mathbb{N}$  or  $N = \infty$  be an basis labelled by eigenvalues  $a_i$  (or sets thereof) orthonormal

The amplitudes  $\langle a_i|\psi\rangle$ ,  $i=1,..,N$  define a Hilbert space

which is isomorphic to the original space  $\mathcal{H}$ .  $\langle a_i|\psi\rangle$  is called a representation of  $|\psi\rangle$

The scalar product in the representation is  $\langle\psi'|\psi\rangle \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^N \langle\psi'|a_i\rangle \langle a_i|\psi\rangle$

The value of the scalar product in the abstract space and the representation are the same since  $\sum_{i=1}^N |a_i\rangle \langle a_i| = \mathbb{1}$  (closure relation)  
(unity operator on  $\mathcal{H}$ )

Why? Follows from properties of bases.

- \* For basis labeled by continuous eigenvalue(s)  $|c\rangle$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  or a subset thereof:

$$\langle\psi'|\psi\rangle = \int dc \langle\psi'|c\rangle \langle c|\psi\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \int dc |c\rangle \langle c| = \mathbb{1}$$

- \* Examples:

$\langle \vec{p}|\psi\rangle$  = amplitude for particle in state  $\psi$  to have momentum  $\vec{p}$

= momentum-space wave fn.  $\psi(\vec{p})$

analogous:

$\langle \vec{r}|\psi\rangle = \psi(\vec{r})$  coordinate space wave fn.

and for two states

$$\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \langle\psi|\vec{r}\rangle \langle\vec{r}|\psi\rangle d^3r = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \psi^*(\vec{r}) \psi(\vec{r}) d^3r$$

consistent with wave mechanics formalism.

- \* Recall (properties of complex scalar products):

$$\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle^*$$

#### IV. 1.3 Operators and Matrix Elements

- \* We will often write  $\langle \psi' | A | \psi \rangle$  in bra-ket notation instead of  $\underbrace{\langle \psi' | A \psi \rangle}_{\text{scalar product}}$  and interpret it as a matrix element of a matrix representation of the operator  $A$ .

- \* Generally, if the  $|\psi_i\rangle$  are an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}$  we call the

$$A_{ij} = \langle \psi_i | A | \psi_j \rangle \quad i, j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$$

the matrix representation of  $A$ . This matrix encodes the full information about the operator  $A$ :

$$A |\psi_i\rangle = \sum_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i | A | \psi_i \rangle = \sum_i A_{ii} |\psi_i\rangle$$

for any basis vector  $|\psi_i\rangle$

- \* Quantum mechanics can be completely cast in the form of these matrix elements.

E.g. let  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i a_i |\psi_i\rangle$ ,  $|\phi\rangle = \sum_i b_i |\psi_i\rangle$

$$\text{Then } \langle \phi' | A | \phi \rangle = \sum_{ij} \underbrace{\langle \phi' | \psi_i \rangle}_{b_i^*} \underbrace{\langle \psi_i | A | \psi_j \rangle}_{A_{ij}} \underbrace{\langle \psi_j | \phi \rangle}_{a_j}$$

$$= (b_1, \dots, b_N)^* \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{N1} & \dots & A_{NN} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{pmatrix}$$

- \* If the basis  $|\psi_i\rangle$  are eigenstates of the operator  $B$  then its matrix  $B_{ij} = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}$  is diagonal and the  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues.
- \* The operator  $P_i = |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$  is called the projection operator onto the basis state  $|\psi_i\rangle$ .

Check:  $P_i |\psi_i\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle$ ;  $P_i |\psi_j\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle \underbrace{\langle \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle}_\text{=0 for all } j \neq i = 0$  for all  $j \neq i$

Basic properties:  $\sum_{i=1}^N P_i = \sum_{i=1}^N |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| = \mathbb{1}$  (closure)

$$P_i^2 = P_i \quad (\text{check!})$$

- \* The matrix representation of the adjoint operator is the adjoint matrix.

$$(A^*)_{ij} = A_{ji}^*$$

Why?  $\langle \psi_i | A^+ | \psi_j \rangle = \langle A \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle = \langle \psi_j | A \psi_i \rangle^* = A_{ji}^*$

- \* We can formally define  $|\psi\rangle^+ = \langle \psi|$  and obtain a consistent rule for the  $^+$  operation:

$$(A|\psi\rangle)^+ = \langle \psi | A^+ \quad \text{on the other hand } (A|\psi\rangle)^+ = (A\psi)^+ = \langle A\psi |$$

Prove they are equal by applying on arbitrary state  $|\phi\rangle$ :

$$\langle \psi | A^+ | \phi \rangle = \langle A\psi | \phi \rangle.$$

\* The expectation value of A in a state  $|q\rangle$  can now be

written as a diagonal matrix element:

$$\langle A \rangle = \langle q | A | q \rangle.$$

\* How can we get the operator A back from its matrix  $A_{ij}$ ,  $i,j=1,\dots,N$ ?

$$A = \sum_{i,j=1}^N |q_i\rangle A_{ij} \langle q_j|$$

$$\text{Why? } \sum_{i,j} |q_i\rangle A_{ij} \langle q_j| = \sum_i |q_i\rangle \langle q_i| A |q_i\rangle \langle q_i| = A$$

\* All statements in this chapter hold for uncountable Hilbert spaces with the usual replacement  $\sum_i \rightarrow \int dk$

#### IV.1.4 Matrix Calculus Example: Plane Waves

\* As an example we (re-)derive some basic results for coordinate space representation (for simplicity in 1 dimension).

We use  $\langle x' | x \rangle = \delta(x' - x)$  and  $\mathbb{1} = \int dx$

\* For any analytic f(x):  $\langle x'' | f(x) | x' \rangle = f(x') \delta(x'' - x')$

Why? Clear.

I.e. the matrix representing  $f(x)$  is diagonal ( $x'' = x'$ ) with eigenvalues  $f(x')$ , since the  $|x'\rangle$  are eigenvectors of operator  $X$ .

$$* \langle x'' | p | x' \rangle = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x''} \delta(x'' - x') \quad \text{where } p \text{ momentum operator.}$$

Why? Recall that  $p = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  in coordinate space but we won't use this.

We use the commutator  $[x, p] = i\hbar$  as an algebraic postulate for these operators.

$$\langle x'' | [x, p] | x' \rangle = i\hbar \delta(x'' - x'), \text{ on the other hand}$$

$$\langle x'' | x p - px | x' \rangle = (x'' - x') \langle x'' | p | x' \rangle$$

Recall  $x \delta'(x) = -\delta(x)$  (prove by integrating with a test fn.)

$$\Rightarrow \langle x'' | p | x' \rangle = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x''} \delta(x'' - x')$$

\* For momentum eigenstates in  $\vec{r}$ -representation

$$\langle x'' | p' \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p' x''}$$

Why?

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x'' | p | p' \rangle &= \int dx' \langle x'' | p | x' \rangle \langle x' | p' \rangle = \int dx' (-i\hbar) \frac{\partial}{\partial x''} \delta(x'' - x') \langle x' | p' \rangle \\ &= -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x''} \langle x'' | p' \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{but also } \langle x'' | p | p' \rangle = p' \langle x'' | p \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x''} \langle x'' | p' \rangle = \frac{i}{\hbar} p' \langle x'' | p \rangle \Rightarrow \langle x'' | p' \rangle = C e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p' x''}$$

$$\text{Normalization: } \int \langle x'' | p' \rangle \langle p' | x' \rangle dp' = |C|^2 \int dp' e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} p' (x'' - x')} = |C|^2 \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar} \delta(x'' - x')$$

$$\text{If but also } \langle x'' | x' \rangle = \delta(x'' - x') \Rightarrow |C|^2 = \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar}$$

Note: we derived plane waves from purely algebraic considerations

(in particular  $[x, p] = i\hbar$ ) w/o using the Schrödinger equation at all.

## V.2 IV.2 The Harmonic Oscillator Algebraically

\* Without using the already known solutions we revisit the harm. osc.

only using  $H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2x^2$  as the Hamiltonian and  $[x, p] = i\hbar$ .

\* It turns out that the algebraic solution is better discussed in terms of

two new operators:

$$a = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}} (x + i \frac{p}{m\omega})$$

$$a^\dagger = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}} (x - i \frac{p}{m\omega}) \quad (\text{adjoint of } a)$$

Then  $\boxed{H = \hbar\omega(a^\dagger a + \frac{1}{2})}$  (check)

and  $\boxed{[a, a^\dagger] = 1}$  (i.e.  $a$  not Hermitian!)

Why?  $[a, a^\dagger] = \frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} \frac{p^2}{m\omega} (\underbrace{\exp + px - x p + px}_{-2i\hbar}) = 1$

\*  $a$  is called a lowering (annihilation) operator

$a^\dagger$  is a raising (creation) operator

$a^\dagger a$  is called a number operator; it is Hermitian and commutes with  $H$ .

Label the common eigenstates of  $H$  and  $a^\dagger a$  as  $|q_n\rangle \equiv n$  with

eigenvalues  $\lambda_n$  w.r.t.  $a^\dagger a$ :  $a^\dagger a |n\rangle = \lambda_n |n\rangle$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

of  $a^\dagger a$

$a^\dagger |n\rangle$  is again an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda_{n+1}$

Why?  $a^\dagger a (a^\dagger |n\rangle) = a^\dagger (a^\dagger a + 1) |n\rangle = (\lambda_{n+1}) a^\dagger |n\rangle$

Similarly:  $a |n\rangle$  is an eigenstate of  $a^\dagger a$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda_{n-1}$

$$\Rightarrow a^\dagger |n\rangle = c_n |n+1\rangle \quad (1) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ a|n\rangle = d_n |n-1\rangle \quad (2) \end{array} \right\} \text{if there is no degeneracy}$$

(n \geq 1), see below

This justifies the "lowering", "raising" nomenclature

- \* The spectrum is bound from below by  $\lambda_n \geq 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0$

Why?  $\langle n | a^\dagger a | n \rangle = \lambda_n \underbrace{\langle n | n \rangle}_{>0} \text{ and } \langle n | a^\dagger a | n \rangle = \underbrace{\langle a n | a n \rangle}_{>0}$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_n \geq 0.$$

I.e. we have to modify (2) to be true only if  $n \geq 1$ .

Let us denote the ground state as  $|0\rangle$  ( $\text{not } |0\rangle \neq 0$ )

Then  $a^\dagger a |0\rangle = \lambda_0 |0\rangle$  with  $0 \leq \lambda_0 < 1$  But also  $a|0\rangle = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_0 = 0$$

- \* Hence the eigenvalue spectrum of  $a^\dagger a$  is  $0, 1, 2, \dots = \mathbb{N}$

with eigenstates  $|n\rangle = N_n (a^\dagger)^n |0\rangle \quad n \in \mathbb{N}; N_n = \text{normalization}$

$\Rightarrow$  Stationary (energy eigenvalue) states are the same  $|n\rangle, n \in \mathbb{N}$

and  $E_n = \hbar \omega (n + \frac{1}{2})$

- \* This is a precursor to "second quantization" where "field quanta" are introduced. The quantum of the harmonic osc. that is created, annihilated or counted by  $a^\dagger, a, a^\dagger a$ , resp., is called a phonon.

- \* It is possible to reproduce the coordinate wave fcts. of the harmonic oscillator from this algebraic approach:  $\langle \vec{r}, n \rangle = \psi_n(\vec{r})$   
(maybe HW II)

### V.3 IV.3 Simultaneous Measurement and Uncertainty

- \* Two observables represented by two operators  $A, B$  are called compatible, or simultaneously measurable, if they possess a common set of eigenstates with simultaneous eigenvalues  $(a_i, b_j)$ ,  $i=1, \dots, n$  ( $n, m$  could be  $\infty$ )

The complete set of eigenstates can be labelled  $|a_i, b_j\rangle$ ,

$$A|a_i, b_j\rangle = a_i |a_i, b_j\rangle ; \quad B|a_i, b_j\rangle = b_j |a_i, b_j\rangle$$

(There might be degeneracies, as  $A, B$  might not be a complete set of operators.)

- \* Theorem:

$A, B$  simultaneously measurable

$$\Leftrightarrow [A, B] = 0$$

Why?

$$\Rightarrow A, B \text{ sim. measurable} \Rightarrow AB|a_i b_j\rangle = a_i b_j |a_i b_j\rangle = BA|a_i b_j\rangle$$

$$\text{for a complete basis } |a_i b_j\rangle \Rightarrow AB = BA$$

" $\Leftarrow$ " see Herzbauder, p. 215 ff

\* Hence, conversely, if  $A, B$  do not commute, i.e.

$$[A, B] = iC \quad \text{where } C = 0 \text{ is an Hermitian (check!) operator,}$$

then  $A, B$  can usually not be measured simultaneously with

arbitrary precision. This can be quantified by an uncertainty

$$\text{relation between the variances } (\Delta A)^2 = \langle (A - \langle A \rangle)^2 \rangle, \quad (\Delta B)^2 = \langle (B - \langle B \rangle)^2 \rangle$$

around the expectation values, similar to the one we already

have for operators  $x$  and  $p$ .

\* Theorem (Uncertainty Relation)

If  $[A, B] = iC$  for Hermitian operators  $A, B, C$  then

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle C \rangle|$$

Why? Let  $|\psi\rangle$  be the state in which the expectation values are evaluated.

$$(\Delta A)^2 = \langle \psi | (A - \langle A \rangle)^2 | \psi \rangle = \langle (A - \langle A \rangle) \psi | (A - \langle A \rangle) \psi \rangle = \| (A - \langle A \rangle) \psi \|_2^2$$

$$(\Delta B)^2 = \langle (B - \langle B \rangle) \psi | (B - \langle B \rangle) \psi \rangle = \| (B - \langle B \rangle) \psi \|_2^2$$

Recall Schwarz's inequality in Hilbert spaces:  $\| \psi_a \|_2^2 \| \psi_b \|_2^2 \geq | \langle \psi_a | \psi_b \rangle |^2$

$$\Rightarrow (\Delta A)^2 (\Delta B)^2 \geq | \langle (A - \langle A \rangle) \psi | (B - \langle B \rangle) \psi \rangle |^2 = | \langle \psi | (A - \langle A \rangle)(B - \langle B \rangle) \psi \rangle |^2$$

We can write the operator on the right hand side as

$$(A - \langle A \rangle)(B - \langle B \rangle) = \frac{1}{2} [(A - \langle A \rangle)(B - \langle B \rangle) + (B - \langle B \rangle)(A - \langle A \rangle)] + \frac{1}{2}(AB - BA)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} D + \frac{i}{2} C$$

Check:  $D$  Hermitian  $\Rightarrow \langle D \rangle = \langle \psi | D | \psi \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$  real

and  $\langle iC \rangle = i \langle \psi | C | \psi \rangle$  purely imaginary

$$\Rightarrow (\Delta A)^2 (\Delta B)^2 \geq \left| \frac{1}{2} \langle D \rangle + \frac{i}{2} \langle C \rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{4} (\langle D \rangle^2 + \langle C \rangle^2) \geq \frac{1}{4} \langle C \rangle^2$$

q.e.d.

\* Example:  $[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}] = i\hbar \mathbf{1} \Rightarrow C = \frac{\hbar}{2} \mathbf{1}$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \frac{\hbar}{2} \mathbf{1} \rangle| = \frac{\hbar}{2} \quad \text{same as already derived from wave mechanics in I.4}$$

