

# Phys 454: Quantum Theory

Yixing Gu

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## 1 Introductions

### 1.1 Hamiltonian

**Definition 1.** Hamiltonian equation is some  $H(x, p, t)$  that shows the energy of some particle moving with certain momentum  $p$  at a certain place  $x$  and time  $t$ .

*Remark.* Differential Equations of Motion may be derived by Hamiltonian.

### 1.2 Poisson algebra

**Definition 2.** A vector space  $V$  over  $\mathbb{F}$  has two operations  $+, \cdot$  that follows the axioms:

$$\begin{aligned}\forall x, y, z \in V, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{F} \\ (x + y) + z &= x + (y + z) \\ x + y &= y + x \\ \exists \mathbf{0} \in V, \forall x \in V, x + \mathbf{0} &= x \\ \exists -x \in M, x + (-x) &= \mathbf{0} \\ (ab) \cdot x &= a \cdot (b \cdot x) \\ 1 \in \mathbb{F}, 1 \cdot x &= x \\ (a + b) \cdot x &= a \cdot x + b \cdot x \\ a \cdot (x + y) &= a \cdot x + a \cdot y\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 3.** The Poisson bracket follows the following axioms (Lie Algebra) on a vector space  $V$  over  $\mathbb{F}$ , s.t.  $\forall x, y, z \in V, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{F}$

$$\begin{aligned}\{x, y\} &= -\{y, x\} \\ \{a \cdot x + b \cdot y, z\} &= a \cdot \{x, z\} + b \cdot \{y, z\} \\ \{x, \{y, z\}\} + \{z, \{x, y\}\} + \{y, \{z, x\}\} &= 0\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 4.** Associative Algebra is a ring  $M$  as an  $R$ -module for a commutative ring  $R$ , with three

operations  $+, \cdot, *$  (addition, scalar multiplication, multiplication), and  $\forall a, b \in R, x, y, z \in M$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
a \cdot (x * y) &= (a \cdot x) * y = x * (a \cdot y) && \text{as a ring} \\
(x + y) + z &= x + (y + z) && \text{as a ring} \\
x + y &= y + x && \text{as a ring} \\
\exists \mathbf{0} \in M, x + \mathbf{0} &= x && \text{as a ring} \\
\exists -x \in M, x + (-x) &= \mathbf{0} && \text{as a ring} \\
(x * y) * z &= x * (y * z) && \text{as a ring} \\
\exists \mathbf{1} \in M, x * \mathbf{1} &= \mathbf{1} * x = x && \text{as a ring} \\
x * (y + z) &= x * y + x * z && \text{as a ring} \\
(y + z) * x &= y * x + z * x && \text{as a ring} \\
(ab) \cdot x &= a \cdot (b \cdot x) && \text{as an R-module} \\
(a + b) \cdot x &= a \cdot x + b \cdot x && \text{as an R-module} \\
a \cdot (x + y) &= a \cdot x + a \cdot y && \text{as an R-module}
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 5.** Poisson Algebra has axioms of

- Lie Algebra (Poisson brackets)
- Associative Algebra
- $\{f, g * h\} = g * \{f, h\} + \{f, g\} * h$

*Remark.* Neither Lie nor Associative Algebra have  $x * y = y * x$ .

*Remark.*  $\cdot, *$  are different operations.

**Theorem 1.1.** A Poisson bracket for equation of motion should satisfy

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{dt} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) &= \{f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t), H(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t)\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}, t) \\
\{x_i, p_j\} &= \delta_{ij} \\
\{x_i, x_j\} &= 0 \\
\{p_i, p_j\} &= 0
\end{aligned}$$

**Example 1.2.1.**  $\frac{d}{dt} x_3 = \{x_3, H\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} x_3 \overset{0}{\rightarrow}$

**Example 1.2.2.** Let  $f(x, p, t) = x_2 p_3 - \cos(\omega t) x_1$ ,  
 $\frac{d}{dt} f = \{x_2 p_3 - \cos(\omega t) x_1, H\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (x_2 p_3 - \cos(\omega t) x_1) = \{x_2 p_3 - \cos(\omega t) x_1, H\} + \omega \sin(\omega t) x_1$

**Example 1.2.3.** Conservation laws

1. Want to know if  $p$  is conserved for  $H = \frac{p^2}{2m}$ ?

$$\frac{d}{dt} p = \{p, \frac{p^2}{2m}\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} p \overset{0}{\rightarrow} = \frac{1}{2m} \{p, p * p\} = \frac{1}{2m} (p \{p, p\} + \{p, p\} p) \overset{0}{\rightarrow} = 0$$

2. Conservation of energy (H)

$$\frac{d}{dt} H = \{H, H\} + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \frac{p^2}{2m} \overset{0}{\rightarrow} = 0$$

3. For any  $f(x, p)$  s.t.  $\{f, H\} = 0$ , then we have  $\frac{d}{dt} f = 0$ , namely,  $f$  is conserved.

**Theorem 1.2.**  $\{f(x_1, \dots, x_N, p_1, \dots, p_N), g(x_1, \dots, x_N, p_1, \dots, p_N)\} := \sum_{i=1}^N \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} g - \frac{\partial}{\partial p_i} f \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} g \right)$  is a Poisson bracket given that  $x_i(t), p_i(t) \in \mathbb{R}, f * g = g * f$

**Example 1.2.4.**  $\{x, e^p\} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x \frac{\partial}{\partial p} e^p - \frac{\partial}{\partial p} x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^p \overset{0}{\rightarrow} = e^p$

### 1.3 Quantum Poisson algebra

**Definition 6.** The ring multiplication is not commutative. Instead, for  $k = i\hbar = i\frac{h}{2\pi}$ ,

$$f * g - g * f = k \cdot \{f, g\}$$

**Proposition 1.3.** *Canonical commutation relation*

$$x_i * x_j - x_j * x_i = k \cdot \{x_i, x_j\} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$p_i * p_j - p_j * p_i = k \cdot \{p_i, p_j\} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$x_i * p_j - p_j * x_i = k \cdot \{x_i, p_j\} = i\hbar \delta_{ij} * \mathbf{1}$$

**Definition 7.**  $[A, B] = A * B - B * A$

**Definition 8.** Represent  $x$  by  $\hat{x}$ ,  $p$  by  $\hat{p}$ .

**Theorem 1.4.** *Weinberg*

$\hat{x}, \hat{p}$  cannot be non-linear.

**Theorem 1.5.** *Stone*

All linear representations of  $\hat{x}, \hat{p}$  are the same up to the change of basis.

**Proposition 1.6.**  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^n\} = n \cdot \hat{p}^{n-1}$ ,  $\{\hat{p}, \hat{x}^n\} = n \cdot \hat{x}^{n-1}$ .

*Proof.* Done by induction on  $n$ .

Base case is when  $n = 1$ , then  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{p}\} = \mathbf{1} = 1 \cdot \hat{p}^0$ .

Now assume for induction that  $\forall 1 \leq m < n$ ,  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^m\} = n \cdot \hat{p}^{m-1}$ , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^n\} &= \{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^{n-1} \hat{p}\} \\ &= \hat{p}^{n-1} \{\hat{x}, \hat{p}\} + \{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^{n-1}\} \hat{p} \\ &= \hat{p}^{n-1} \mathbf{1} + (n-1) \cdot \hat{p}^{n-1-1} \hat{p} \\ &= \hat{p}^{n-1} + i\hbar(n-1) \cdot \hat{p}^{n-1} \\ &= n \cdot \hat{p}^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\{\hat{x}, \hat{p}^n\} = n \cdot \hat{p}^{n-1}$  holds for any  $n$ .

Same proof for  $\{\hat{p}, \hat{x}^n\} = n \cdot \hat{x}^{n-1}$

□

### 1.4 Matrix representation

**Definition 9.**  $a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \dots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$

**Proposition 1.7.**  $aa^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \dots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $a^\dagger a = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & \dots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$ ,

$$aa^\dagger - a^\dagger a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ & & & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{1}$$

**Theorem 1.8.** For position and momentum to be real,  $\forall t, \hat{x}(t)^\dagger = \hat{x}(t), \hat{p}(t)^\dagger = \hat{p}(t)$

**Example 1.4.1.** For a free particle with  $\hat{H}(\hat{x}, \hat{p}) = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \implies \frac{d}{dy}\hat{x} = \frac{\hat{p}}{m}, \frac{d}{dt}\hat{p} = 0$ .

Let  $\hat{x}(t_0) = L(a + a^\dagger), \hat{p}(t_0) = i\hbar\frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$ , then first notice that they are hermitian. In addition,  $[\hat{x}(t_0), \hat{p}(t_0)] = [L(a^\dagger + a), \frac{i\hbar}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)] = \frac{1}{2}i\hbar [a^\dagger + a, a^\dagger - a]$

$$= \frac{1}{2}i\hbar([a^\dagger, a^\dagger] - [a^\dagger, a] + [a, a^\dagger] - [a, a]) = i\hbar\mathbf{1}\checkmark$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\hat{p} = 0 \implies \forall t > t_0, \hat{p}(t) = i\hbar\frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$$

$$\frac{d}{dy}\hat{x} = \frac{\hat{p}}{m} \implies \hat{x}(t) = \hat{x}(t_0) + (t - t_0)\frac{1}{m}\hat{p}(t_0)$$

$$\text{Thus } \hat{x}(t) = L(a + a^\dagger) + (t - t_0)\frac{1}{m}i\hbar\frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$$

**Example 1.4.2.** Harmonic oscillator  $\hat{H}(\hat{x}, \hat{p}) = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}k\hat{x}^2$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\hat{x}(t) = \left\{ \hat{x}(t), \hat{H} \right\} = \left\{ \hat{x}(t), \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}k\hat{x}^2 \right\} = \frac{1}{2m} \{ \hat{x}(t), \hat{p} * \hat{p} \} + \frac{1}{2}k \{ \hat{x}, \hat{x} * \hat{x} \} \xrightarrow{0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2m}(\hat{p}\{\hat{x}, \hat{p}\} + \{\hat{x}, \hat{p}\}\hat{p}) = \frac{1}{m}\hat{p}(t),$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\hat{p}(t) = \left\{ \hat{p}(t), \hat{H} \right\} = -k\hat{x}(t)$$

Notice that  $\hat{x}(t_0), \hat{p}(t_0)$  are the same as free particle case.

Now let  $\hat{x}(t) = \xi(t)a + \xi^*(t)a^\dagger$ , then it's clear that  $\hat{x}^\dagger = \hat{x}$

Thus  $\hat{p}(t) = \frac{d}{dt}\hat{x}(t) = m(\dot{\xi}a + \dot{\xi}^*a^\dagger)$ , and clearly  $\hat{p}^\dagger = \hat{p}$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\hat{p}(t) = -k\hat{x}(t) \implies m(\ddot{\xi}a + \ddot{\xi}^*a^\dagger) = -k(\xi(t)a + \xi^*(t)a^\dagger) \implies m\ddot{\xi} = -k\xi(t), m\ddot{\xi}^* = -k\xi^*(t)$$

Thus  $\xi(t) = r \sin(\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}t) + s \cos(\sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}t)$ , and let  $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$

Now solve  $r, s$ , s.t.  $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar$ , and there is a solution such that  $a^2, (a^\dagger)^2$  terms disappear.

## 1.5 Number Prediction

Want to choose  $\{\psi_i\}$  so that we can make number prediction  $\bar{f}(t) := \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} \psi_i^* \hat{f}_{ij}(t) \psi_j \in \mathbb{R}$

*Remark.* Notice that the choice of  $\psi$  will impact the prediction.

**Definition 10.** For a random variable  $Q$ ,  $\bar{Q}$  is its mean value (expectation),  $Var(Q) = \overline{(Q - \bar{Q})^2}$  is its variance, and  $\Delta Q = \sqrt{Var(Q)}$  is its standard deviation.

**Proposition 1.9.**  $Var(Q) = (\bar{Q}^2) - (\bar{Q})^2$

$$\text{Proof. } Var(Q) = \overline{(Q - \bar{Q})^2} = \overline{Q^2 - Q\bar{Q} - \bar{Q}Q + (\bar{Q})^2} = (\bar{Q}^2) - (\bar{Q})^2 - (\bar{Q})^2 + (\bar{Q})^2 \quad \square$$

*Remark.* In Classical Mechanics, there are 2 initial conditions  $\bar{x}(t_0), \bar{p}(t_0)$ , and we always have the expectation (prediction)  $\overline{x(t_0)^2} = (\bar{x}(t_0))^2$ .

However, in Quantum Mechanics, we have infinite initial conditions  $\psi_i$ .

In general,  $Var(\hat{f}(t)) = \overline{\hat{f}(t)^2} - (\bar{f}(t))^2 \neq 0$

*Remark.* Want  $\{\psi_i\}$ , s.t.  $\sum_i \psi_i^* \psi_i = 1$ , so that it is normalized.

**Proposition 1.10.** For normalized  $\{\psi_i\}$ , the previous proposition will work for  $Var(\hat{f}(t)) := \overline{\hat{f}(t)^2} - \bar{f}(t)^2 \cdot \mathbf{1}$ ,

$$Var(\hat{f}(t)) = \overline{\hat{f}(t)^2} - \bar{f}(t)^2 = \sum_{i,j,k} \psi_i^* \hat{f}_{ij}(t) \hat{f}_{jk}(t) \psi_k - \left( \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} \psi_i^* \hat{f}_{ij}(t) \psi_j \right)^2$$

## 2 Hilbert Space and Bra-Ket Notation

### 2.1 Motivation

**Definition 11.** A such  $\{\psi_i\}$  give a “ket vector”  $|\psi\rangle$ , by choosing a basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_1^\infty$ , where

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle, \psi_n \in \mathbb{C}$$

*Remark.*  $|\psi\rangle$  may be represented in any other basis as well.

*Remark.* Infinite sums may not commute.

$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{ij}$  is not always true.

However, when the limit converges **absolutely**, the sum commutes.

*Remark.* In infinite dimensional vector spaces, there can be “continuous” basis where the label is continuous instead of discrete, for instance,  $|c_\lambda\rangle_{\lambda \in [a,b]}$

**Definition 12.** For a continuous basis labeled by  $[a, b]$ , we take  $|\psi\rangle = \int_a^b \psi_\lambda |c_\lambda\rangle d\lambda$ , in which case, we can treat  $\psi_\lambda = \psi(\lambda), \psi : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

*Remark.* There can be a mixture of discrete and continuous basis

### 2.2 Inner Product Space

**Definition 13.** A set  $\mathcal{H}$  is called a complex vector space if it is a vector space over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 14.** Given  $\mathcal{H}$ , we can define its “dual” vector space  $\mathcal{H}^* = \{ \langle u| : \text{Lin}(\mathcal{H}, \mathbb{C}) \cap C^0(\mathcal{H}, \mathbb{C}) \}$  where the dual vectors  $\langle u|$  are continuous linear maps  $\mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

**Definition 15.** An inner product space is a vector space  $\mathcal{H}$  that has an inner product:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle -, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} &\rightarrow \mathbb{C}, \text{ s.t. } \forall |v\rangle, |w\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, a, b \in \mathbb{C} \\ \langle u, av + bw \rangle &= a \langle u, v \rangle + b \langle u, w \rangle \\ \langle v, w \rangle^* &= \langle w, v \rangle \\ \forall v \neq 0, \langle v, v \rangle &> 0 \\ \langle 0, v \rangle &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

*Remark.* Note that if we have an inner product space  $\mathcal{H}$ , we can define  $\langle \psi| \in \mathcal{H}^*$  to be  $\langle \psi, \cdot \rangle$  and thus  $\forall |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, \langle \psi|(|\phi\rangle) = \langle \psi, \phi \rangle$

**Theorem 2.1. Cauchy-Schwarz:** For every inner product space  $\mathcal{H}, \forall |\psi\rangle, |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, |\langle \psi|\phi\rangle| \leq \|\psi\| \|\phi\|$ .

In particular, when  $V := \|\phi\| \neq 0, \|\psi\|^2 \|\phi\|^2 - |\langle \psi|\phi\rangle|^2 = \|z\|^2$ , where  $z := V|\psi\rangle - \frac{\langle \psi|\phi\rangle}{V}|\phi\rangle$

*Proof.* Notice that this is trivially true and equality holds to be zero when  $|\phi\rangle = 0$

Now we assume  $V \neq 0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \|z\|^2 &= \langle z, z \rangle \\ &= \left\langle V|\psi\rangle - \frac{\langle \psi|\phi\rangle}{V}|\phi\rangle, V|\psi\rangle - \frac{\langle \psi|\phi\rangle}{V}|\phi\rangle \right\rangle \\ &= V^2 \langle \psi, \psi \rangle - \langle \psi|\phi\rangle \langle \psi, \phi \rangle - \langle \phi|\psi \rangle \langle \phi, \psi \rangle + \frac{\langle \psi|\phi\rangle \langle \phi|\psi \rangle}{V^2} \langle \phi, \phi \rangle \xrightarrow{V^2} V^2 \\ &= V^2 \|\psi\|^2 - |\langle \psi, \phi \rangle|^2 - |\langle \psi, \phi \rangle|^2 + |\langle \psi, \phi \rangle|^2 \\ &= \|\phi\|^2 \|\psi\|^2 - |\langle \psi, \phi \rangle|^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 2.2.** If  $\forall \psi, \langle \psi, \phi \rangle = 0$ , then  $|\phi\rangle = 0$

**Definition 16.** A normed vector space is a vector space  $\mathcal{V}$  that has an norm (length):

$$\begin{aligned} \|\cdot\| : \mathcal{V} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } \forall x, y \in \mathcal{V}, a \in \mathbb{C} \\ \|a \cdot x\| &= |a| \|x\| \\ \|x + y\| &\leq \|x\| + \|y\| \\ \forall x \neq 0, \|x\| &> 0 \\ \|0\| &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 2.3.** For every inner product space with  $\langle -, \cdot \rangle$ , there is a norm  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \|a \cdot x\| &= \sqrt{\langle ax, ax \rangle} = \sqrt{a^* a \langle x, x \rangle} = \sqrt{|a|^2 \langle x, x \rangle} = |a| \|x\| \\ \|x + y\|^2 &= \langle x + y, x + y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle \\ &\leq \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + 2\|x\| \|y\| \leq (\|x\| + \|y\|)^2 \\ \forall x \neq 0, \|x\| &= \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} > 0 \\ \|0\| &= \sqrt{\langle 0, 0 \rangle} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  is a norm. □

**Definition 17.** A metric space is a vector space  $\mathcal{V}$  that has a (distance) metric:

$$\begin{aligned} d(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} &\rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } \forall x, y, z \in \mathcal{V} \\ d(x, x) &= 0 \\ \forall x \neq y, d(x, y) &> 0 \\ d(x, y) &= d(y, x) \\ d(x, z) &\geq d(x, y) + d(y, z) \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 2.4.** For every normed space with  $\|\cdot\|$ , there is a metric  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, x) &= \|x - x\| = \|0\| = 0 \\ \forall x \neq y, d(x, y) &= \|x - y\| > 0 \\ d(x, y) &= \|x - y\| = \|-(y - x)\| = |-1| \|y - x\| = \|y - x\| = d(y, x) \\ d(x, z) &= \|x - z\| = \|x - y + y - z\| \geq \|x - y\| + \|y - z\| = d(x, y) + d(y, z) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$  is a metric. □

**Corollary 2.5.** For every inner product space, there is a metric  $d(x, y) = \sqrt{\langle x - y, x - y \rangle}$

## 2.3 Completeness and Hilbert Space

**Definition 18.** Given a metric  $d$ , a sequence  $(x_i)_{i=1}^\infty$  has a limit point  $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x, x_i) = 0$

**Proposition 2.6.** For an Inner product space  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $\forall y, x = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have  $\langle x, y \rangle = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_i, y \rangle$ .

*Proof.* Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\epsilon_0 = \frac{\epsilon}{\|y\|}$ .

Since  $x = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i$ , we can find  $N > 0$ , s.t.  $\forall n > N, \|x - x_n\| < \epsilon_0$ ,  
thus  $|\langle x, y \rangle - \langle x_n, y \rangle| = |\langle x - x_n, y \rangle| \leq \|x - x_n\| \|y\| < \epsilon_0 \|y\| = \epsilon$  □

**Corollary 2.7.** For an Inner product space  $\mathcal{H}$ ,  $\forall y, x = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have  $\langle y, x \rangle = \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} \langle y, x_i \rangle$ .

**Definition 19.** A sequence  $(x_i)_1^\infty$  is a Cauchy sequence in a metric space with metric  $d$  if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}^+, \text{ s.t. } \forall m, n > N \in \mathbb{N}, d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$$

**Definition 20.** A metric space  $\mathcal{V}$  is complete if every Cauchy sequence  $(x_i)_1^\infty$  converges to a limit point in  $\mathcal{V}$ . i.e.  $\exists x \in \mathcal{V}, \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} x_i = x$

**Definition 21.** An inner product space is called a Hilbert space if it is complete.

**Definition 22.** Bra-ket Notation

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \phi \rangle &:= \langle \psi | (|\phi\rangle) \\ &= \langle \psi, \phi \rangle \\ \langle \psi | \hat{u} \phi \rangle &:= \langle \psi | \hat{u} | \phi \rangle \\ &:= \langle \psi, \hat{u}(|\phi\rangle) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 2.8.** For any inner product space  $H$ , we can complete it with respect to the induced metric distance, and the unique completion  $\mathcal{H} := \bar{H}$  is a Hilbert space.

*Proof.* The completion  $(\mathcal{H} := \bar{H}, d_{\mathcal{H}})$  exists and is unique since  $H$  is an inner product space, thus a metric space. And we have  $\forall x, y \in H, d_{\mathcal{H}}(x, y) = d_H(x, y) = \sqrt{\langle x - y, x - y \rangle_H}$ . We now need to show that  $\mathcal{H}$  has an inner product, and the induced metric is the same as  $d_{\mathcal{H}}$ .

Consider the extension of the inner product:  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ , we know that  $x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n, y = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n$ , for some sequence  $x_n, y_n \in H$ , define  $\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n, y_n \rangle_H$ .

Now suppose there are another two sequences  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x'_n = x, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y'_n = y$ , we must show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n, y_n \rangle_H = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x'_n, y'_n \rangle_H$  so that  $\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$  is independent of the choice of converging sequence and thus well defined.

Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we let  $\epsilon_0 = \min \left\{ \frac{\epsilon}{4(\|x\| + \epsilon)}, \frac{\epsilon}{4(\|y\| + \epsilon)}, \epsilon \right\}$ .

Pick  $N > 0$ , s.t.  $\forall n > N, d_{\mathcal{H}}(x_n, x), d_{\mathcal{H}}(y_n, y), d_{\mathcal{H}}(x'_n, x), d_{\mathcal{H}}(y'_n, y) < \epsilon_0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_n - x'_n\| &= d_H(x_n, x'_n) = d_{\mathcal{H}}(x_n, x'_n) \leq d_{\mathcal{H}}(x_n, x) + d_{\mathcal{H}}(x'_n, x) < 2\epsilon_0, \\ \|y_n - y'_n\| &= d_H(y_n, y'_n) = d_{\mathcal{H}}(y_n, y'_n) \leq d_{\mathcal{H}}(y_n, y) + d_{\mathcal{H}}(y'_n, y) < 2\epsilon_0, \\ \|x_n\| &= d_H(x_n, 0) = d_{\mathcal{H}}(x_n, 0) \leq d_{\mathcal{H}}(x, 0) + d_{\mathcal{H}}(x_n, x) < d_H(x, 0) + \epsilon_0 \leq \|x\| + \epsilon, \\ \|y_n\| &= d_H(y_n, 0) = d_{\mathcal{H}}(y_n, 0) \leq d_{\mathcal{H}}(y, 0) + d_{\mathcal{H}}(y'_n, y) < d_H(y, 0) + \epsilon_0 \leq \|y\| + \epsilon. \\ |\langle x'_n, y'_n \rangle - \langle x_n, y_n \rangle| &= |\langle x'_n, y'_n \rangle - \langle x_n, y'_n \rangle + \langle x_n, y'_n \rangle - \langle x_n, y_n \rangle| \\ &\leq |\langle x'_n - x_n, y'_n \rangle| + |\langle x_n, y'_n - y_n \rangle| \\ &\leq \|x'_n - x_n\| \|y'_n\| + \|x_n\| \|y'_n - y_n\| \\ &< 2\epsilon_0(\|y\| + \epsilon) + (\|x\| + \epsilon)2\epsilon_0 \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x'_n, y'_n \rangle - \langle x_n, y_n \rangle = 0$ , and thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n, y_n \rangle_H = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x'_n, y'_n \rangle_H$

Notice that if  $x, y \in H$ , then  $\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} := \langle x, y \rangle_H$ , thus the inner product and the induced norm and metric are all the same as the ones for  $H$  when restricted to  $H$ .

In particular,  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
d_{\mathcal{H}}(x, y) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d_H(x_n, y_n) \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\langle x_n - y_n, x_n - y_n \rangle_H} \\
&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\langle x_n - y_n, x_n - y_n \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}} \\
&= \sqrt{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_n - y_n, x_n - y_n \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}} \\
&= \sqrt{\langle x, y \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}}
\end{aligned}$$

Thus we have that  $\mathcal{H}$  has an inner product and is complete, thus a Hilbert space.  $\square$

## 2.4 Hilbert basis

**Definition 23.** A basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$  of Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  is called a Hilbert basis, if

$$\begin{aligned}
&\forall n, m \in \mathbb{N}, \langle b_n, b_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} \\
&\forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, \exists! \{\psi_n\} \in \mathbb{C}, \text{ s.t. } |\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 24.** A Hilbert space with a countable Hilbert basis is called “separable”.

*Remark.* All Hilbert spaces in Quantum Physics are separable.

*Remark.* For a continuous basis  $\{|c_\lambda\rangle\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}}$  that gives  $|\psi\rangle = \int_a^b \psi_\lambda |c_\lambda\rangle d\lambda$ , it is not a Hilbert basis. In particular,  $|c_\lambda\rangle \notin \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\langle c_\lambda, c_{\lambda'} \rangle \neq \delta_{\lambda\lambda'}$

*Remark.* In Quantum Mechanics, we only work with a Hilbert space consisting of state  $|\psi\rangle$  with finite norm, where  $\langle \psi, \psi \rangle < \infty$

**Theorem 2.9.** Suppose  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$  is a Hilbert basis, then  $\forall |\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have  $\langle b_m | \psi \rangle = \psi_m$

*Proof.*  $\langle b_m | \psi \rangle = \langle b_m | \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \langle b_m | \psi_n |b_n\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n \langle b_m | b_n \rangle \xrightarrow{\delta_{mn}} \psi_m$   $\square$

**Corollary 2.10.** Suppose  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$  is a Hilbert basis, then  $\mathbf{1} = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |b_m\rangle \langle b_m| \in \mathcal{H}^*$

*Proof.* Given any  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ ,

$$(\sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |b_m\rangle \langle b_m|)(|\psi\rangle) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |b_m\rangle \langle b_m | \psi \rangle = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |b_m\rangle \psi_m = |\psi\rangle \quad \square$$

**Proposition 2.11.** Suppose  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_1^\infty$  is a Hilbert basis, then for any  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have  $|||\psi\rangle||^2 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \psi_n^* \psi_n$

*Proof.*  $|||\psi\rangle||^2 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \mathbf{1} \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |b_n\rangle \langle b_n| \psi \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \langle \psi | b_n \rangle \langle b_n | \psi \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \psi_n^* \psi_n$   $\square$

## 2.5 Operators

**Definition 25.**  $\hat{f}(t)_{nm} = \langle b_n | \hat{f}(t) | b_m \rangle$  given a Hilbert basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$

*Remark.*  $\hat{f}(t) = \mathbf{1} \hat{f}(t) \mathbf{1} = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} |b_n\rangle \langle b_n | \hat{f}(t) | b_m \rangle \langle b_m| = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} |b_n\rangle \hat{f}(t)_{nm} \langle b_m| = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} \hat{f}(t)_{nm} |b_n\rangle \langle b_m|$

**Proposition 2.12.** If  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$  is a Hilbert basis, and  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \hat{f} |b_n\rangle = 0$ , then  $\hat{f} = \mathbf{0}$

**Example 2.5.1.** Consider  $\psi_n = \frac{1}{n}$ , we have  $\langle \psi, \psi \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \psi_n^* \psi_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} < \infty$ .

Consider  $\hat{f}_{mn} = \delta_{nm} n^2$ , then if  $|\phi\rangle = \hat{f}(|\psi\rangle)$ , we have  $\phi_n = n$  and thus  $\langle \phi, \phi \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n = \infty$ , thus  $|\phi\rangle \notin \mathcal{H}$

*Remark.* we need to consider operators that preserve vectors inside the Hilbert space.



**Definition 26.** For operator  $\hat{f}$ , the maximal domain is  $D_{\hat{f}} := \{|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H} | \hat{f}|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}\}$

**Definition 27.** Change of basis

For Hilbert basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}, \{|c_n\rangle\}$ , we can define a change of basis operator  $\hat{u} : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}, \hat{u}(|b_n\rangle) = |c_n\rangle$

**Proposition 2.13.**  $\hat{u}_{nm} = \langle b_n | \hat{u} | b_m \rangle = \langle b_n | c_m \rangle$

**Proposition 2.14.**  $\hat{u} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} |c_m\rangle \langle b_m|$

*Proof.*  $\hat{u} = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} \hat{u}_{nm} |b_n\rangle \langle b_m| = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} \langle b_n | c_m \rangle |b_n\rangle \langle b_m| = \sum_{n,m=0}^{\infty} |b_n\rangle \langle b_n | c_m \rangle \langle b_m| = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} |c_m\rangle \langle b_m|$   $\square$

**Proposition 2.15.** For any two Hilbert basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_0^{\infty}, \{|c_m\rangle\}_0^{\infty}$ , and any  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi_n |b_n\rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \tilde{\psi}_m |c_m\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ , we have  $\psi_n = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \tilde{\psi}_m \langle b_n | c_m \rangle$

*Proof.*  $\psi_n = \langle b_n | \psi \rangle = \langle b_n | \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \tilde{\psi}_m |c_m\rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \tilde{\psi}_m \langle b_n | c_m \rangle$   $\square$

## 2.6 Adjoint

**Definition 28.** The Adjoint operator  $\hat{f}^\dagger$  of  $\hat{f}$  is the operator such that

$$\forall |\psi\rangle, |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, \langle \hat{f} |\psi\rangle, |\phi\rangle = \langle \hat{f} |\psi\rangle, |\phi\rangle := \langle |\psi\rangle, \hat{f}^\dagger |\phi\rangle = \langle \psi, \hat{f}^\dagger \phi \rangle$$

**Proposition 2.16.** The Adjoint operator  $\hat{f}^\dagger$  exists and is unique for finite-dimensional Hilbert space.

**Definition 29.** The domain for the adjoint  $D_{\hat{f}^\dagger} := \{|\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H} | \exists |\rho\rangle \text{ s.t. } \langle \rho | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | \hat{f} \psi \rangle, \forall |\psi\rangle \in D_{\hat{f}}\}$

**Proposition 2.17.** On  $D_{\hat{f}^\dagger} \cap D_{\hat{f}}$

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{f}^\dagger)^\dagger &= \hat{f} \\ (\hat{f} + \hat{g})^\dagger &= \hat{f}^\dagger + \hat{g}^\dagger \\ (\hat{f}\hat{g})^\dagger &= \hat{g}^\dagger \hat{f}^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 2.18.** Given any Hilbert basis,  $\hat{f}_{mn}^\dagger = \overline{\hat{f}_{nm}}$

**Definition 30.**  $|\psi\rangle^\dagger$  is given by  $\langle \psi |$

**Definition 31.**  $(|\psi\rangle^\dagger)^\dagger := |\psi\rangle$

**Proposition 2.19.** Given any Hilbert basis,  $|\psi\rangle^\dagger = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \overline{\psi_n} \langle b_n |$

**Proposition 2.20.** For any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\langle \psi | \hat{f}^\dagger = (\hat{f} |\psi\rangle)^\dagger$

*Proof.* Given any  $|\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $(\langle \psi | \hat{f}^\dagger)(|\phi\rangle) = \langle \psi | (\hat{f}^\dagger |\phi\rangle) = \langle \psi, \hat{f}^\dagger |\phi\rangle = \langle \hat{f} |\psi\rangle, |\phi\rangle = (\hat{f} |\psi\rangle)^\dagger |\phi\rangle$   $\square$

**Definition 32.**  $\hat{f}$  is self-adjoint if  $D_{\hat{f}} = D_{\hat{f}^\dagger} \wedge \forall |\psi\rangle \in D_{\hat{f}}, \hat{f} |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle^\dagger |\psi\rangle$

## 2.7 Unitary Operators

**Definition 33.** An operator  $\hat{u}$  is unitary if it obeys  $\hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u} = \mathbf{1}$

**Proposition 2.21.** If an operator  $\hat{u}$  is a change of basis operator, it is unitary

*Proof.* Suppose we have a change of basis  $c_m = \hat{u} b_m$ .

Then  $\langle b_m | \mathbf{1} b_n \rangle = \langle b_m | b_n \rangle = \delta_{nm} = \langle c_m | c_n \rangle = |c_m\rangle^\dagger |c_n\rangle = \langle b_m | \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u} | b_n \rangle$

Thus  $\langle b_m | (\mathbf{1} - \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u}) b_n \rangle = 0 \implies \mathbf{1} - \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{1} = \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u}$   $\square$

**Proposition 2.22.** For an unitary operator  $\hat{u}, \forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, ||\psi\rangle|| = ||\hat{u} |\psi\rangle||$

*Proof.*  $||\hat{u} |\psi\rangle||^2 = \langle \psi | \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u} \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \mathbf{1} \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = ||\psi\rangle||^2$   $\square$

## 2.8 Eigenbasis and Spectrum

**Definition 34.** For  $\hat{f}$ , its eigenvectors  $\{|f_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$  are such that  $\hat{f}|f_n\rangle = f_n|f_n\rangle$ , where  $f_n$  is eigenvalues.

**Definition 35.** If  $\hat{f}$  has a Hilbert basis of eigenvectors  $\{|f_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$ , they are called the eigenbasis for  $\hat{f}$ .

**Proposition 2.23.** Suppose that  $\hat{f}$  has a Hilbert basis, if the initial state is  $|\psi\rangle = |f_n\rangle$ , then the prediction  $\bar{f} = \langle\psi|\hat{f}|\psi\rangle = f_n\langle f_n|f_n\rangle = f_n$ , and  $(\Delta f)^2 = \overline{(\hat{f} - f)^2} = \langle f_n|(\hat{f} - f_n)^2|f_n\rangle = \langle f_n|(f_n - f_n)^2|f_n\rangle = 0$

*Remark.* If the system is in some random state, then after measuring  $f_n$ , the new initial state should be  $|f_n\rangle$

**Definition 36.** The spectrum  $\text{Spec}(\hat{Q})$  of Operator  $\hat{Q}$  is the set of all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  for which  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})$  does not have an inverse or the inverse  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}$  is not defined on  $\mathcal{H}$ , i.e.  $D_{(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}} \neq \mathcal{H}$

**Proposition 2.24.** If  $\hat{Q}|\lambda\rangle = \lambda|\lambda\rangle$ , then  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}(\hat{Q})$

*Proof.*  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})$  does not have an inverse if and only if  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\lambda\rangle = 0$  for some  $|\lambda\rangle \neq 0$  □

**Definition 37.** The eigenvalues form the point spectrum  $\text{Spec}_{\text{point}}(\hat{Q})$

**Definition 38.** If  $D_{(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}} \neq \mathcal{H}$  is dense in  $\mathcal{H}$ , then  $\lambda$  form the continuous spectrum  $\text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q})$

**Definition 39.** If  $D_{(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})^{-1}} \neq \mathcal{H}$  is not dense in  $\mathcal{H}$ , then  $\lambda$  form the residue spectrum  $\text{Spec}_{\text{res}}(\hat{Q})$ .

**Proposition 2.25.** If  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q})$ ,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists |\psi\rangle \in D_{\hat{Q}}$ , s.t.  $\| |\psi\rangle \| = 1, \left\| (\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1}) |\psi\rangle \right\| < \epsilon$

**Definition 40.**  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q})$  are called approximate eigenvalues, and the  $|q_\lambda\rangle$  that can be approximated by the above proposition are called approximate eigenvectors.

*Remark.* Approximate eigenvalues are not eigenvalues, and approximate eigenvectors are thus not vectors.

**Proposition 2.26.**  $\text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q})$  is always (piece-wise) continuous.

**Definition 41.**  $\text{Spec}_{\hat{Q}} := \text{Spec}_{\text{point}}(\hat{Q}) \cup \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q}) \cup \text{Spec}_{\text{res}}(\hat{Q})$

*Remark.* Consider the case where  $\text{Spec}_{\hat{Q}} = \text{Spec}_{\text{point}}(\hat{Q})$ , then we have an eigenbasis  $\{|q_n\rangle\}_1^\infty$  where  $\hat{Q}|q_n\rangle = q_n|q_n\rangle$ . In which case  $\mathbf{1} = \sum_{n=1}^\infty |q_n\rangle \langle q_n|$

**Definition 42.** Partial resolution of the identity is  $\hat{E}_N := \sum_{n=1}^N |q_n\rangle \langle q_n|$

**Definition 43.**  $\hat{P} = \hat{P}^\dagger$  is called a Projection if  $\hat{P}^2 = \hat{P}$

**Proposition 2.27.**  $(\hat{E}_N)^2 = \hat{E}_N$  and thus a projection.

## 2.9 Continuous basis

*Remark.* If  $\text{Spec}_{\hat{Q}} = \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{Q}) = J \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , we want to define some continuous eigenbasis  $\{|q_\lambda\rangle\}_{\lambda \in J}$ , which in shorthand is  $\{|q\rangle\}_{q \in J}$ , such that  $\mathbf{1} = \int_J |q\rangle \langle q| dq$  and that  $\langle q|q'\rangle = \delta(q - q')$ . Now suppose that we have such a continuous eigenbasis, what should be its properties?

**Definition 44.** Given a continuous eigenbasis  $\{|q\rangle\}_{q \in \mathbb{R}}$ , define  $\hat{E}(\lambda) := \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle \langle q| dq$ .

**Proposition 2.28.** If  $|q\rangle \langle q|$  is well-defined and continuous, then  $\frac{d}{dq} \hat{E}(q) = |q\rangle \langle q|$

**Proposition 2.29.** If  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  satisfies  $\hat{Q}|\lambda_1\rangle = \lambda_1|\lambda_1\rangle, \hat{Q}|\lambda_2\rangle = \lambda_2|\lambda_2\rangle$ , then  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{1})|\lambda_2\rangle = (\lambda_2 - \lambda_1)|\lambda_2\rangle$ . Namely,  $\lambda_2 - \lambda_1$  is an eigenvalue of  $\hat{Q} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{1}$ .

**Proposition 2.30.**  $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \hat{E}(\lambda)$  is a valid operator, in fact, the projection onto the null space of  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda \mathbf{1})^+$ , where  $A^+ := \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{A^2} + A)$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $\sqrt{A^2}$  effectively changes all negative eigenvalue to positive, i.e. if  $A|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$ , then  $\sqrt{A^2}|\psi\rangle = |\lambda||\psi\rangle$ . Now if  $\lambda \leq 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{A^2} + A)|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(-\lambda + \lambda)|\psi\rangle = 0$ , and if  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{A^2} + A)|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(\lambda + \lambda)|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$ . Thus  $A^+$  eliminates all the negative eigenvalues to zero.

By the previous proposition, if  $q < \lambda$  are (approximate) eigenvalues of  $\hat{Q}$ , then  $q - \lambda < 0$  is an eigenvalue of  $\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1}$  with eigenvector  $|q\rangle$ , thus  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1})^+|q\rangle = 0$ .

$$\text{Now } \forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, (\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1})\hat{E}_\lambda|\psi\rangle = (\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1}) \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| |\psi\rangle dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda (\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1})|q\rangle\langle q| |\psi\rangle dq = 0$$

Thus we have that  $\text{Im}(\hat{E}(\lambda)) \subseteq \text{Null}((\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1})^+)$ .

In addition, it is a projection, since

$$\hat{E}(\lambda)\hat{E}(\lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| dq \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q'\rangle\langle q'| dq' = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \langle q| \langle q'| \xrightarrow{\delta(q-q')} |q'\rangle dq' dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| dq = \hat{E}(\lambda) \quad \square$$

**Definition 45.** Stieltjes integral

$$\int_a^b f(x)dm(x) := \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \sum_0^{n-1} f(\tilde{x}_i)(m(x_{i+1}) - m(x_i))$$

where  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots x_n = b$  is any partition with  $|x_{i+1} - x_i| < \epsilon$ , and  $\tilde{x}_i \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$

**Proposition 2.31.** If  $f(x)$  is bounded,  $m(x)$  monotonously increases, and  $m'(x)$  is Riemann integrable, then  $\int_a^b f(x)dm(x) = \int_a^b f(x)m'(x)dx$

**Proposition 2.32.** If  $|q\rangle\langle q|$  is well-defined and integrable, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^\lambda d\hat{E}(q) = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \frac{d}{dq}\hat{E}(q) dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| dq = \hat{E}(\lambda), \text{ and } \mathbf{1} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{\mathbb{R}} d\hat{E}(\lambda) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \hat{E}(\lambda)$$

**Proposition 2.33.**  $\hat{E}(\lambda)\hat{E}(\lambda') = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \hat{Q}|q\rangle\langle q| dq \int_{-\infty}^{\lambda'} \hat{Q}|q'\rangle\langle q'| dq' = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \int_{-\infty}^{\lambda'} |q\rangle\langle q| \xrightarrow{\delta(q-q')} |q'\rangle dq' dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda H(\lambda' - \lambda)|q\rangle\langle q| dq = H(\lambda - \lambda')\hat{E}(\lambda)$

**Proposition 2.34.**  $\hat{Q}\hat{E}(\lambda) = \hat{Q} \int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda \hat{Q}|q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda q|q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda q d\hat{E}(q)$

**Proposition 2.35.**  $\hat{Q} = \hat{Q} \int_{\mathbb{R}} d\hat{E}(q) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{Q} d\hat{E}(q) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \hat{Q}|q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{\mathbb{R}} q|q\rangle\langle q| dq = \int_{\mathbb{R}} q d\hat{E}(q)$

*Remark.* However, it is not true that  $|q\rangle\langle q|$  is well-defined and continuous. Indeed,  $|q\rangle \notin \mathcal{H}$ . Thus we need to consider reconstructing the previous results with  $\hat{E}(\lambda)$  without using  $|q\rangle\langle q|$ .

**Definition 46.** Given an operator  $\hat{Q}, \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \hat{E}(\lambda)$  is defined to be the projection onto the null space of  $(\hat{Q} - \lambda\mathbf{1})^+$

**Definition 47.** We say that an operator  $\hat{Q}$  has a continuous eigenbasis if the following holds:

1. The resolution of the identity:  $\mathbf{1} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} d\hat{E}(q) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow \infty} \hat{E}(\lambda)$
2. The “orthonormality”:  $\hat{E}(\lambda)\hat{E}(\lambda') = H(\lambda - \lambda')\hat{E}(\lambda)$
3. The “eigenness”:  $\hat{Q}\hat{E}(\lambda) = \int_{-\infty}^\lambda q d\hat{E}(q)$

*Remark.* Although it is not true that  $|q\rangle\langle q|$  is well-defined and continuous, the above definitions are well-defined and correspond to the behavior of an eigenbasis  $\{|q\rangle\}_{q \in \mathbb{R}}$  if it exists. Thus we can still use this notation for the sake of simplicity if we adopt the above definitions.

**Definition 48.** We say that an operator  $\hat{Q}$  has a continuous eigenbasis  $\{|q\rangle\}_{q \in \mathbb{R}}$  if the above definition 47 holds. Notationally, we write  $\hat{E}(\lambda)$  as  $\int_{-\infty}^\lambda |q\rangle\langle q| dq$ , and we treat  $|q\rangle\langle q|$  as  $\frac{d}{dq}\hat{E}(q)$ , although it may not exists.

## 2.10 Spectral theorem

**Theorem 2.36.** *Spectral theorem for self-adjoint operator*

For a self-adjoint operator  $\hat{f}$ ,  $\exists$  an orthonormal eigenbasis of  $\{|f_n\rangle, |f_\lambda\rangle : n \in \mathbb{N}, \lambda \in J \subseteq \mathbb{R}\}$ , s.t.  
 $\hat{f}|f_n\rangle = f_n|f_n\rangle, \hat{f}|f_\lambda\rangle = f(\lambda)|f_\lambda\rangle, \mathbf{1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f_n\rangle\langle f_n| + \int_J |f_\lambda\rangle\langle f_\lambda| d\lambda$ , where  $J = \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(\hat{f}) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 2.37.** *Spectral theorem for unitary operator*

For a self-adjoint operator  $\hat{u}$ ,  $\exists$  an orthonormal eigenbasis of  $\{|u_n\rangle, |u_\lambda\rangle : n \in \mathbb{N}, \lambda \in J\}$ , and  
 $u_n^* = u_n^{-1}$  and thus are on the unit circle.

*Proof.*  $1 = \langle u_n | u_n \rangle = \langle u_n | \hat{u}^\dagger \hat{u} | u_n \rangle = \langle \hat{u} | u_n \rangle, \hat{u} | u_n \rangle = \langle u_n | u_n \rangle, u_n | u_n \rangle = u_n^* u_n \langle u_n | u_n \rangle = u_n^* u_n$  □

**Definition 49.** An operator  $\hat{Q}$  is normal if  $\hat{Q}^\dagger \hat{Q} = \hat{Q} \hat{Q}^\dagger$

**Theorem 2.38.** *Spectral theorem for normal operator*

An operator has an orthonormal eigenbasis if and only if its matrix representation is unitarily diagonalizable if and only if it is normal.

**Proposition 2.39.** *Self-adjoint and unitary operators are normal.*

**Corollary 2.40.** *The matrix  $a$  from def9 is not normal and thus not diagonalizable*

## 2.11 More Properties

**Proposition 2.41.** For any operator  $f$  and any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , we have  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle \geq \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$ , and  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle - \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle = \|f|\psi\rangle - \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle\|^2$ .

*Proof.* First notice that by definition of the dagger operator,  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle = \langle f|\psi\rangle, f|\psi\rangle = \|f|\psi\rangle\|^2$ , and  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle = \langle f|\psi\rangle, |\psi\rangle \langle |\psi\rangle, f|\psi\rangle = |\langle |\psi\rangle, f|\psi\rangle|^2 = |\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle|^2$ , both in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

By Cauchy-Schwarz2.1, we have that  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle = |\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle|^2 \leq \|f|\psi\rangle\|^2 \|\psi\|^2 = \|f|\psi\rangle\|^2 = \langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle$

We have from the last theorem that

$$\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle - \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle = \|f|\psi\rangle\|^2 \|\psi\|^2 - |\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle|^2 = \left\| f|\psi\rangle - \frac{\langle f\psi|\psi\rangle}{\|\psi\|^2} |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 = \|f|\psi\rangle - \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle\|^2$$

□

**Lemma 2.42.** For any operator  $f$ , if  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector such that  $f|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$ ,  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , then  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle - \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle = 4|\text{Im}(\lambda)|^2$ .

*Proof.* We have from proposition2.41 that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle - \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle &= \|f|\psi\rangle - \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \|\lambda|\psi\rangle - \langle\lambda\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \left\| \lambda|\psi\rangle - \bar{\lambda}\langle\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ &= \|\lambda|\psi\rangle - \bar{\lambda}|\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \|2i\text{Im}(\lambda)|\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= |2i\text{Im}(\lambda)|^2 \|\psi\|^2 \\ &= 4|\text{Im}(\lambda)|^2 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Lemma 2.43.** For any operator  $f$  and any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , we have  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$  if and only if  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\langle f\psi|\psi\rangle$

*Proof.* Notice that from proposition2.41,

$$\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle \iff \|f|\psi\rangle - \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle\|^2 = 0 \iff f|\psi\rangle = \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle$$

□

**Proposition 2.44.** For any operator  $f$  and any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , we have  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$  if and only if  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

*Proof.* Forward direction: Assume that the equality holds,

By lemma2.43,  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda = \langle f\psi|\psi\rangle$ .

By lemma2.42,  $4|\text{Im}(\lambda)|^2 = 0$ , thus  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Conversely, if  $|\psi\rangle$  is an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , by lemma2.42, the equality holds.

□

**Proposition 2.45.** For any operator  $f$ , if  $\forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , we have that  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle > \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$ , then  $f$  can not have any real eigenvalues, namely,  $\text{Spec}_{\text{point}}(f) \cap \mathbb{R} = \emptyset$ . The converse is also true.

*Proof.* Suppose  $f$  has an eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and eigenvector  $|\psi\rangle \neq 0$ , s.t.  $f|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$ , then we can take  $|\phi\rangle := \frac{|\psi\rangle}{\|\psi\|}$ . Notice that  $\|\phi\| = 1$  and that  $f|\phi\rangle = f\frac{|\psi\rangle}{\|\psi\|} = \frac{f|\psi\rangle}{\|\psi\|} = \frac{\lambda|\psi\rangle}{\|\psi\|} = \lambda|\phi\rangle$  is also an eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . By the previous proposition2.44, we have  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$ , thus a contradiction.

Now for the Converse, let any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$  be given.

From proposition2.41, we have that  $\langle\psi|f^\dagger f|\psi\rangle \geq \langle\psi|f^\dagger|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|f|\psi\rangle$ .

Now suppose  $\langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle$ , then it has a real eigenvalue, thus a contradiction. Thus we have  $\langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle > \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.46.** *For a self-adjoint operator  $f$ , and any state  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ , s.t.  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ , we have  $\Delta f := \sqrt{f^2(\psi) - \overline{f(\psi)}^2} = 0$  if and only if it is an eigenstate  $f|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$ .*

*Proof.* Since  $f$  is self-adjoint, we have

$$\langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | f^2 | \psi \rangle = \overline{f^2(\psi)}, \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle = \overline{f(\psi)}^2.$$

The forward direction is easy by proposition 2.44.

For backward direction, let us assume it is an eigenstate, then we have  $\langle \psi | f^2 | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | f \lambda | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \lambda^2 | \psi \rangle = \lambda^2 = (\langle \psi | \lambda | \psi \rangle)^2 = \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle^2$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2.47.** *For a self-adjoint operator  $f$ ,  $\text{Spec}_{point}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ .*

*Proof.* This directly follows from the previous corollary and proposition 2.44  $\square$

**Lemma 2.48.** *For any operator  $f$ , if  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{cont}(f)$ , then  $\forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1$ , we have  $\langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle - \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle = \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2$ , where  $|\kappa\rangle := (f - \lambda \mathbf{1}) |\psi\rangle$ .*

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle - \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle &= \|f|\psi\rangle - \langle f|\psi | \psi \rangle |\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \|(\lambda|\psi\rangle + |\kappa\rangle) - \langle \lambda|\psi\rangle + \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle |\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \left\| (\lambda|\psi\rangle + |\kappa\rangle) - \left( \bar{\lambda} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle + \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \right) |\psi\rangle \right\|^2 \\ &= \|\kappa\rangle + (2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) |\psi\rangle\|^2 \\ &= \langle \kappa | \kappa \rangle + \alpha \langle \psi | \kappa \rangle + \bar{\alpha} \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle, \alpha := 2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \kappa | \kappa \rangle + \bar{\alpha} \langle \psi | \kappa \rangle + \alpha \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle + \bar{\alpha} \alpha \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \\ &= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(\alpha \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |\alpha|^2 \\ &= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

**Proposition 2.49.** *For any operator  $f$ ,  $\forall \lambda \in \text{Spec}_{cont}(f)$ , we always have an  $\epsilon$  approximation, i.e.  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists |\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon, \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle + \epsilon$ , if and only if  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

*Proof.* For backward direction, let's assume  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Take  $\epsilon_0 = \min \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\epsilon}, \epsilon > 0$ , then we can find  $|\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon_0 \leq \epsilon$  by proposition 2.25

The first inequality is given by proposition 2.41, proposition 2.44, and the fact that  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{cont}$  and thus not an eigenvalue.

Now notice that we have  $|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| \leq \|\kappa\| \|\psi\| = \|\kappa\| < \epsilon_0$ . Since  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\text{Im}(\lambda) = 0$ , the equation in the previous lemma becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | f^\dagger f | \psi \rangle - \langle \psi | f^\dagger | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | f | \psi \rangle &= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \\ &= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(-\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |-\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \\ &\leq \|\kappa\|^2 + 2|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \\ &< \epsilon_0^2 + 2\epsilon_0^2 + \epsilon_0^2 \\ &= 4\epsilon_0^2 \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

This proves the second inequality and thus the backward direction.

For forward direction, let us assume for contradiction that  $\lambda \notin \mathbb{R}, I := |\text{Im}(\lambda)| > 0$ , but the  $\epsilon$  approximation can always be achieved. Now take  $\epsilon = \frac{\sqrt{128I^3+1}-1}{16I} > 0$ , we have  $|\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|\kappa\| = \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon, \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle + \epsilon$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
& \langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle - \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle \\
&= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(\alpha \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |\alpha|^2 \\
&= \|\kappa\|^2 + 2\text{Re}(2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \\
&\geq \|\kappa\|^2 - 2|2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda) - \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \\
&\geq \|\kappa\|^2 - 2|2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| - 2|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + |2i \text{Im}(\lambda)|^2 - 2|2i \text{Im}(\lambda) \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| \\
&= \|\kappa\|^2 - 4I|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| - 2|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 + 4I^2 - 4I|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| \\
&= 4I^2 + \|\kappa\|^2 - |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 - 8I|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| \\
&\geq 4I^2 - 8I|\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle| \\
&\geq 4I^2 - 8I\|\kappa\|^2 \\
&> 4I^2 - 8I\epsilon^2 \\
&= 4I^2 - 8I \left( \frac{\sqrt{128I^3+1}-1}{16I} \right)^2 \\
&= \epsilon
\end{aligned}$$

Thus a contradiction with  $\langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle + \epsilon$ .  $\square$

*Remark.* Intuitively, we see that  $\langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle - \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle$  is bounded below by  $4I^2 - 8I\|\kappa\|^2$ , thus when  $I = |\text{Im}(\lambda)|$  is nontrivial, the approximation of the inequality and the approximation of the eigenvector cannot both be arbitrarily good.

**Proposition 2.50.** *Given any self-adjoint operator  $f = f^\dagger, \forall \lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f), \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists |\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon, \overline{f(\psi)}^2 < \overline{f^2(\psi)} < \overline{f(\psi)}^2 + \epsilon$*

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, can find  $|\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon$  by proposition 2.25

As usual, take  $\kappa := (f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle$

Then  $\overline{f(\psi)}^2 = (\langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle)^2 = \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle = \langle \lambda \psi + \kappa, \psi \rangle \langle \psi, \lambda \psi + \kappa \rangle = (\bar{\lambda} + \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle)(\lambda + \langle \psi | \kappa \rangle) = |\lambda|^2 + 2\text{Re}(\lambda \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2$

And  $\overline{f^2(\psi)} = \langle \psi | f^2 |\psi\rangle = \langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle = \langle \lambda \psi + \kappa, \lambda \psi + \kappa \rangle = |\lambda|^2 + 2\text{Re}(\lambda \langle \kappa | \psi \rangle) + \|\kappa\|^2$

Thus  $\overline{f^2(\psi)} - \overline{f(\psi)}^2 = \|\kappa\|^2 - |\langle \kappa | \psi \rangle|^2 \leq \|\kappa\|^2 < \epsilon$

This proves the second inequality.

The first inequality follows from  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}$  is not an eigenvalue and proposition 2.41 and 2.44.  $\square$

*Remark.* In the case where  $f$  is self-adjoint, this says that if  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f)$ , we can always find some approximate “eigenstate” from which we have  $\Delta f$  arbitrarily small.

**Corollary 2.51.** *For any operator  $f$ , we have  $\forall \lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f), \forall \epsilon > 0, \exists |\psi\rangle \in D_f$ , s.t.  $\|\psi\| = 1, \|(f - \lambda \mathbf{1})|\psi\rangle\| < \epsilon, \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger f |\psi\rangle < \langle \psi | f^\dagger |\psi\rangle \langle \psi | f |\psi\rangle + \epsilon$ , if and only if  $\text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$*

*Proof.* This directly follows from the previous proposition 2.49. If we have any  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f) \setminus \mathbb{R}$ , then we do not have an approximation for it. And if we have any  $\lambda \in \text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , we always have the approximation.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.52.** *For any self-adjoint operator  $f$ , we have  $\text{Spec}_{\text{cont}}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$*

### 3 Solving quantum problems in different basis

#### 3.1 Position operator

**Definition 50.** However  $a^\dagger a$  is diagonal, and we call the basis that gives this matrix representation  $\{|E_n\rangle\}_0^\infty$ . We thus have  $\hat{a}$ , s.t.  $\hat{a}_{nm} = \langle E_n | \hat{a} | E_m \rangle \delta_{n,m-1} \sqrt{m}$

**Theorem 3.1.** For position operator  $\hat{x}$ ,  $\text{Spec}(\hat{x}) = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\hat{x}|x\rangle = x|x\rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{1} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x\rangle \langle x| dx$

**Proposition 3.2.** For  $\hat{x} = L(a + a^\dagger)$  in  $|E_n\rangle$  basis,  $\hat{x}_{nm} = \langle E_n | \hat{x} | E_m \rangle = L(\delta_{n+1,m} + \delta_{n,m+1})\sqrt{\max\{m,n\}}$

Namely,  $[\hat{x}] = L \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \sqrt{1} & 0 & \sqrt{2} & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \dots & & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$  in the  $E_n$  basis.

Now since  $\hat{x}|x\rangle = x|x\rangle$ , we have

$$x \langle E_n | x \rangle = \langle E_n | \hat{x} | x \rangle = \langle E_n | \hat{x} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} |E_m\rangle \langle E_m | x \rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \langle E_n | \hat{x} | E_m \rangle \langle E_m | x \rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} x_{nm} \langle E_m | x \rangle$$

Solving this equation gives  $\langle E_n | x \rangle = \frac{e^{-\frac{x^2}{4L^2}}}{\sqrt{\pi 2^n n!}} H_n(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}L})$ , where  $H_n(z) := (-1)^n e^{z^2} \frac{d^n}{dz^n} e^{-z^2}$

And notice that  $|x\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |E_n\rangle \langle E_n | x \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |E_n\rangle \overline{\langle x | E_n \rangle}$ ,  $|E_n\rangle = \int |x\rangle \langle x | E_n \rangle dx$

**Definition 51.** For the position continuous basis  $\{|x\rangle\}_{x \in \mathbb{R}}$  and any  $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ ,  $\psi(x) := \langle x | \psi \rangle$  is the wave function.

**Proposition 3.3.**  $|\psi\rangle = \mathbf{1}|\psi\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} |x\rangle \langle x | \psi \rangle dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi(x) |x\rangle dx$

**Corollary 3.4.**  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi^*(x) \psi(x) dx = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle < \infty$

**Proposition 3.5.** Given some operator  $\hat{f}$ ,  $f(x, x') := \langle x | \hat{f} | x' \rangle$  is its integral kernel.

**Proposition 3.6.**  $\hat{f} = \mathbf{1} \hat{f} \mathbf{1} = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x, x') |x\rangle \langle x'| dx dx'$

#### 3.2 Momentum operator

**Proposition 3.7.** Suppose  $\hat{p} = i\hbar \frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$ , then  $\langle x | \hat{p} | x' \rangle = \sum_{n,m} \langle x | E_n \rangle \langle E_n | \hat{p} | E_m \rangle \langle E_m | x' \rangle = i\hbar \frac{d}{dx'} \delta(x - x')$

**Proposition 3.8.** If  $g \in L^2$  is continuous and differentiable, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \frac{d}{dx} \delta(x - a) dx = g(x) \delta(x - a) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{\mathbb{R}} g'(x) \delta(x - a) dx = -g'(a) \text{ since } g(\pm\infty) = 0$$

**Proposition 3.9.** Suppose  $\hat{p} = i\hbar \frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$ , consider  $|\phi\rangle = \hat{p}|\psi\rangle$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(x) &= \langle x | \phi \rangle \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x | \hat{p} | x' \rangle \langle x' | \psi \rangle dx' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} i\hbar \frac{d}{dx'} \delta(x - x') \psi(x') dx' \\ &= - \int_{\mathbb{R}} i\hbar \delta(x - x') \frac{d}{dx'} \psi(x') dx' \\ &= -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

*Remark.* Notationally, we use the short-hand  $\hat{p}\psi(x) = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \psi(x)$ . Similarly, we have  $\hat{x}\psi(x) = x\psi(x)$

**Proposition 3.10.** Suppose  $\hat{p} = i\hbar \frac{1}{2L}(a^\dagger - a)$ , consider  $\hat{p}|p\rangle = p|p\rangle$ ,  $\psi_p(x) := \langle x | p \rangle$ , then

$$\psi_p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} e^{-\frac{xp}{i\hbar}}$$

. In addition,  $\text{Spec}(p) = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbf{1} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |p\rangle \langle p| dp$  gives a continuous eigenbasis.



*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
p\psi_p(x) &= p\langle x|p\rangle \\
&= \langle x|\hat{p}|p\rangle \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x|\hat{p}|x'\rangle \langle x'|p\rangle dx' \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}} i\hbar \frac{d}{dx'} \delta(x-x') \psi_p(x') dx' \\
&= -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \psi_p(x) \\
\implies \psi_p(x) &= N e^{-\frac{xp}{\hbar}}
\end{aligned}$$

Take  $N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}$ , we have that  $\langle p|p'\rangle = \delta(p-p')$  and  $\text{Spec}(p) = \mathbb{R}$  □

### 3.3 Uncertainty relations

**Theorem 3.11.** For observables  $\hat{f}, \hat{g}$ ,  $\Delta f \Delta g \geq \frac{1}{2} \left| \langle \psi | [\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle \right|$

*Proof.* Let  $|\phi\rangle := ((\hat{f} - \bar{f}\mathbf{1}) + i\alpha(\hat{g} - \bar{g}\mathbf{1}))|\psi\rangle$ ,  $\alpha := -\frac{\langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle}{2(\Delta g)^2}$

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle \phi | \phi \rangle &\geq 0 \\
\text{Thus } \langle \psi | (\hat{f} - \bar{f}\mathbf{1})^2 | \psi \rangle + \alpha^2 \langle \psi | (\hat{g} - \bar{g}\mathbf{1})^2 | \psi \rangle + \alpha \langle \psi | i(\hat{f}\hat{g} - \hat{g}\hat{f}) | \psi \rangle &\geq 0 \\
(\Delta f)^2 + \alpha^2 (\Delta g)^2 + \langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle &\geq 0 \\
(\Delta f)^2 + (\Delta g)^2 \left( \alpha + \frac{\langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle}{2(\Delta g)^2} \right)^2 &\geq \left( \frac{\langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle}{2(\Delta g)^2} \right)^2 (\Delta g)^2 \\
(\Delta f)^2 &\geq \left( \frac{\langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle}{2(\Delta g)^2} \right)^2 (\Delta g)^2 \\
(\Delta f)^2 (\Delta g)^2 &\geq \frac{1}{4} \langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle^2 \\
\Delta f \Delta g &\geq \frac{1}{2} \left| \langle \psi | i[\hat{f}, \hat{g}] | \psi \rangle \right|
\end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary 3.12.**  $\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \psi | i\hbar \mathbf{1} | \psi \rangle| = \frac{1}{2} \hbar$

**Example 3.3.1.** Note that we can determine the angle of a star if we know about its momentum in the x direction. Thus the uncertainty principle implies that the size of the opening restricts the sharpness of that image taken by a telescope.

**Definition 52.**  $|\bar{f}|$  change observably if  $\left| \overline{f(\Delta t + t_0)} - \overline{f(t_0)} \right| \geq \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \Delta t} \Delta f(t) dt$ .  $\Delta t$  is the minimum time that it takes for  $\bar{f}(t)$  to change at least by  $\overline{\Delta f}$ , i.e. this inequality holds true.

**Theorem 3.13.**  $\forall \hat{f}$  and constant  $\hat{H}$ ,  $\Delta t \Delta H \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta f(t)\Delta H &\geq \frac{1}{2} \left| \langle \psi | [\hat{f}, \hat{H}] | \psi \rangle \right| \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \left| \langle \psi | i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{f}(t) | \psi \rangle \right| \\
&= \frac{\hbar}{2} \left| \frac{d}{dt} \langle \psi | \hat{f}(t) | \psi \rangle \right| \\
&= \frac{\hbar}{2} \left| \frac{d}{dt} \bar{f}(t) \right| \\
\int_{t_0}^{t_0+\Delta t} \Delta f(t)\Delta H dt &\geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \int_{t_0}^{t_0+\Delta t} \left| \frac{d}{dt} \bar{f}(t) \right| dt \\
&\geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \left| \int_{t_0}^{t_0+\Delta t} \frac{d}{dt} \bar{f}(t) dt \right| \\
&= \frac{\hbar}{2} |\bar{f}(t_0 + \Delta t) - \bar{f}(t_0)| \\
\Delta H \Delta t &= \Delta H \frac{\int_{t_0}^{t_0+\Delta t} \Delta f(t) dt}{|\bar{f}(t_0 + \Delta t) - \bar{f}(t_0)|} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

□

### 3.4 Equation of Motions

**Proposition 3.14.** When  $\hat{H}$  is a polynomial of  $\hat{x}_i, \hat{p}_j$  of degree at most 2, then the EOM is of degree at most 1, then quantum predictions are the same as classical EOM. These systems are called “Gaussian”.

*Remark.* See example of free particle 1.4.1

**Example 3.4.1.** harmonic oscillator 1.4.2  $\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \hat{x}^2$ .  
Then the eigenstates are  $\hat{H} |E_n\rangle = E_n |E_n\rangle$ ,  $E_n := \hbar\omega(n + \frac{1}{2})$

### 3.5 Time Evolution Operator

**Proposition 3.15.** Assume we find the solution  $\hat{U}(t)$  to  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{U}(t) = \hat{U}(t) \hat{H}(t)$  and  $\hat{U}(t_0) = \mathbf{1}$ , then  $\hat{x}_i(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}_i(t_0) \hat{U}(t)$ ,  $\hat{p}_j(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{p}_j(t_0) \hat{U}(t)$ ,  $\hat{f}(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{f}(t_0) \hat{U}(t)$

*Proof.* Claim:  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{x}(t) = [\hat{x}(t), \hat{H}(t)]$ , i.e.  $\frac{d}{dt} \hat{x}(t) = \{\hat{x}(t), \hat{H}(t)\}$

$$\begin{aligned}
i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{x}(t) &= i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \left( \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}(t_0) \hat{U}(t) \right) \\
&= i\hbar \left( \frac{d}{dt} \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}(t_0) \hat{U}(t) + \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}(t_0) \frac{d}{dt} \hat{U}(t) \right) \\
&= -\hat{H}(t) \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}(t_0) \hat{U}(t) + \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{x}(t_0) \hat{U}(t) \hat{H}(t) \\
&= -\hat{H}(t) \hat{x}(t) + \hat{x}(t) \hat{H}(t) \\
&= [\hat{x}(t), \hat{H}(t)]
\end{aligned}$$

Similar proof for  $\hat{p}, \hat{f}$

□

**Definition 53.** The  $\hat{U}(t)$  in the above proposition is called the Time Evolution Operator.

**Definition 54.** For an operator  $\hat{f}$ ,  $e^{\hat{f}} := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{f}^n}{n!}$

**Example 3.5.1.** If  $\hat{H}(t) = \hat{H}$  is constant, then  $\hat{U}(t) = e^{\frac{\hat{H}}{i\hbar}(t-t_0)}$

**Definition 55.** The time-ordering operator  $T\hat{H}(t_0)\hat{H}(t_1)\dots\hat{H}(t_n) := \hat{H}(t_{i_0})\hat{H}(t_{i_1})\dots\hat{H}(t_{i_n})$ , s.t.  $t_{i_0} \leq t_{i_1} \leq \dots t_{i_n}$  orders  $\{t_i\}_0^n$  from left to right.

**Proposition 3.16.**  $T\left(\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^n\right) = nT\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t)$

*Proof.* Prove by induction on n.

Base case is n=0, then  $\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right) = \hat{H}(t)$  by fundamental theorem of calculus.

Suppose  $T\left(\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^m\right) = mT\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{m-1} \hat{H}(t)$  for all  $m < n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} T\left(\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^n\right) &= T\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} + \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \frac{d}{dt}\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right) \\ &= T\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' T\left(\frac{d}{dt}\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1}\right) + \frac{d}{dt}\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1}\right) \\ &= T\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' (n-1) \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-2} \hat{H}(t) + \hat{H}(t) \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1}\right) \\ &= T\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' (n-1) T\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-2} \hat{H}(t) + \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t)\right) \\ &= T\left((n-1) \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t) + \left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t)\right) \\ &= nT\left(\int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'\right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t) \end{aligned}$$

Thus by induction, this holds for any n. □

**Proposition 3.17.** For  $\hat{U} = Te^{\frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'}$ , it is the time evolution operator for  $\hat{H}(t)$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{U}(t) &= i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \left( Te^{\frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt'} \right) \\ &= i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \left( T \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^n}{n!} \right) \\ &= i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} (\mathbf{1}) + i\hbar \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \right)^n \frac{1}{n!} T \frac{d}{dt} \left( \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n!} nT \left( \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} T \left( \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t) \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \right)^{n-1} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} T \left( \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^{n-1} \hat{H}(t) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{i\hbar} \right)^n \frac{1}{n!} T \left( \int_{t_0}^t \hat{H}(t')dt' \right)^n \hat{H}(t) \\ &= \hat{U}(t) \hat{H}(t) \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 3.18.** *The time evolution operator has the following properties:*

1.  $\hat{U}(t)^\dagger = \hat{U}(t)^{-1}$  is unitary.
2. If  $\hat{f}(t_0)^\dagger = \hat{f}(t_0)$  is hermitian, then so is  $\hat{f}(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{f}(t_0)\hat{U}(t)$ .
3. If  $[\hat{x}(t_0), \hat{p}(t_0)] = i\hbar\mathbf{1}$ , then  $[\hat{x}(t), \hat{p}(t)] = i\hbar\mathbf{1}$

### 3.6 Schrodinger's equation

**Definition 56.** The Schrodinger's state is  $|\psi(t)\rangle := \hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle$

**Proposition 3.19.**

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{f(t)} &= \langle\psi|\hat{f}(t)|\psi\rangle \\ &= \langle\psi|\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{f}(t_0)\hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle \\ &= \left(\langle\psi|\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\right)\hat{f}(t_0)\left(\hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle\right) \\ &= \langle\psi(t)|\hat{f}(t_0)|\psi(t)\rangle\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 57.**  $\hat{H}_S(t) := \hat{U}(t)\hat{H}(t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t)$

**Theorem 3.20.** *Schrodinger's Equation:*  $i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle = \hat{H}_S(t)|\psi(t)\rangle$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle &= i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle \\ &= \hat{U}(t)\hat{H}(t)|\psi\rangle \\ &= \hat{U}(t)\hat{H}(t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle \\ &= \hat{H}_S(t)|\psi(t)\rangle\end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 3.21.**  $\hat{H}_s(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{p}(t), t) = \hat{H}(\mathbf{x}(t_0), \mathbf{p}(t_0), t)$

*Proof.* Observe  $\hat{p}(t)^2 = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{U}(t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{U}(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{U}(t) = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}(t_0)^2\hat{U}(t)$ .

By induction, it is easy to see that  $\hat{p}(t)^n = \left(\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{U}(t)\right)^n = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}^n(t_0)\hat{U}(t)$ .

Same for  $\hat{p}(t)^i\hat{x}(t)^j = \hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}^i(t_0)\hat{x}^j(t_0)\hat{U}(t)$ .

Consider  $\hat{H}(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{p}(t), t) = \sum_{i,j=0}^n a(t)\hat{p}(t)^i\hat{x}(t)^j$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{H}_s(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{p}(t), t) &= \hat{U}(t)\hat{H}(t)(\mathbf{x}(t), \mathbf{p}(t), t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t) \\ &= \hat{U}(t)\sum_{i,j=0}^n a(t)\hat{p}(t)^i\hat{x}(t)^j\hat{U}^\dagger(t) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=0}^n a(t)\hat{U}(t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{p}^i(t_0)\hat{x}^j(t_0)\hat{U}(t)\hat{U}^\dagger(t) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=0}^n a(t)\hat{p}^i(t_0)\hat{x}^j(t_0) \\ &= \hat{H}(\mathbf{x}(t_0), \mathbf{p}(t_0), t)\end{aligned}$$

□

**Definition 58.**  $\psi(x, t) := \langle x | \psi(t) \rangle$

**Proposition 3.22.**  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi(x, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \langle x | \hat{H}_s(t) | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx'$

*Proof.*  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi(x, t) = \langle x | i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} | \psi(t) \rangle = \langle x | \hat{H}_S(t) | \psi(t) \rangle = \langle x | \hat{H}_S(t) \int_{\mathbb{R}} | x' \rangle \langle x' | dx' | \psi(t) \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x | \hat{H}_s(t) | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx'$   $\square$

**Proposition 3.23.**

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{U}(t) = \hat{U}(t) \hat{H}(t) = \hat{U}(t) \hat{U}^\dagger(t) \hat{H}(t) \hat{U}(t) = \hat{H}_s(t) \hat{U}(t)$$

**Example 3.6.1.** Consider Harmonic oscillator 1.4.2, with  $\hat{H}(\hat{x}, \hat{p}, t) = \frac{\hat{p}^2(t)}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \hat{x}^2(t)$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi(x, t) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x | \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \hat{x}^2 | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x | \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' + \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{\alpha}{2} x'^2 \langle x | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle x | \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \int_{\mathbb{R}} | p \rangle \langle p | dp | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' + \frac{\alpha}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x'^2 \langle x | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{p^2}{2m} \langle x | p \rangle \langle p | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' dp + \frac{\alpha}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}} x'^2 \delta(x - x') \psi(x', t) dx' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{p^2}{2m} \langle x | x' \rangle \psi(x', t) dx' + \frac{\alpha}{2} x^2 \psi(x, t) \\ &= \frac{p^2}{2m} \psi(x, t) + \frac{\alpha}{2} x^2 \psi(x, t) \\ &= \left( \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2} x^2 \right) \psi(x, t) \end{aligned}$$

**Example 3.6.2.** Consider any Hilbert basis  $\{|b_n\rangle\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \langle b_n | \frac{d}{dt} | \psi(t) \rangle &= \langle b_n | \hat{H}_S(t) | \psi(t) \rangle \\ i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \langle b_n | \psi(t) \rangle &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \langle b_n | \hat{H}_S(t) | b_m \rangle \langle b_m | \psi(t) \rangle \\ i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi_n(t) &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \hat{H}_S(t)_{nm} \psi_m(t) \end{aligned}$$

**Example 3.6.3.** Consider  $\hat{H}_s(t) = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}$  in the  $|p\rangle$  basis.

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \psi(p, t) &= i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \langle p | \psi(t) \rangle \\ &= \langle p | i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} | \psi(t) \rangle \\ &= \langle p | \hat{H}_S(t) | \psi(t) \rangle \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle p | \hat{H}_S(t) | p' \rangle \langle p' | \psi(t) \rangle \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \langle p | \hat{H}_S(t) | p' \rangle \psi(p', t) dp' \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}} \frac{p'^2}{2m} \delta(p - p') \psi(p', t) dp' \\ &= \frac{p^2}{2m} \psi(p, t) \end{aligned}$$

**Proposition 3.24.** *As in the previous remark 3.2, we write the shorthand*

$$\hat{p}\psi(p, t) = p\psi(p, t); \hat{x}\psi(p, t) = i\hbar \frac{d}{dp}\psi(p, t); \hat{x}\psi(x, t) = x\psi(x, t); \hat{p}\psi(x, t) = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}\psi(x, t)$$

### 3.7 Dirac and interaction

**Definition 59.** Consider  $\hat{H} = \hat{H}^{easy} + \hat{H}^{difficult}$ , Dirac model let us apply Heisenberg to the  $\hat{H}^e$ , and Schrodinger to the  $\hat{H}^d$ .

**Definition 60.**  $\hat{U}^e(t)$  is the time evolution operator for the easy part:  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}^e(t) = \hat{H}_s^e(t)\hat{U}^e(t)$ .

**Definition 61.**  $\hat{U}'(t) = \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{U}(t)$ , then we have  $\hat{U}(t) = \hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t)$ ,  $\hat{U}^\dagger(t) = \hat{U}'^\dagger(t)\hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)$ .

**Definition 62.**  $\hat{f}_D(t) := \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{f}(t_0)\hat{U}^e(t)$ , and  $|\psi(t)\rangle_D := \hat{U}'(t)|\psi\rangle$

**Proposition 3.25.**  $\bar{f}(t) = \langle\psi|\hat{U}^\dagger(t)\hat{f}(t_0)\hat{U}(t)|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi|\hat{U}'^\dagger(t)\hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{f}(t_0)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t)|\psi\rangle = \langle\psi(t)|_D \hat{f}_D(t) |\psi(t)\rangle_D$

**Proposition 3.26.**  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle_D = \hat{H}_D^d(t)|\psi(t)\rangle_D$ , where in  $\hat{H}_D^d(\hat{x}_D(t), \hat{p}_D(t), t) := \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{H}_s^d(t)\hat{U}^e(t)$ , we have  $\hat{x}_D(t) = \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{x}(t_0)\hat{U}^e(t)$ ,  $\hat{p}_D(t) = \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{p}(t_0)\hat{U}^e(t)$ .

*Proof.* Start from

$$\begin{aligned} i\hbar \frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}(t) &= \hat{H}_s(t)\hat{U}(t) \\ i\hbar \frac{d}{dt}(\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t)) &= \hat{H}_s(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ i\hbar(\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) + \hat{U}^e(t)\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t)) &= \hat{H}_s(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ \hat{H}_s^e(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) + i\hbar\hat{U}^e(t)\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t) &= \hat{H}_s^e(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) + \hat{H}_s^d(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ i\hbar\hat{U}^e(t)\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t) &= \hat{H}_s^d(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)i\hbar\hat{U}^e(t)\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t) &= \hat{U}^{e\dagger}(t)\hat{H}_s^d(t)\hat{U}^e(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t) &= \hat{H}_D^d(t)\hat{U}'(t) \\ i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}\hat{U}'(t)|\psi\rangle &= \hat{H}_D^d(t)\hat{U}'(t)|\psi\rangle \\ i\hbar\frac{d}{dt}|\psi(t)\rangle_D &= \hat{H}_D^d(t)|\psi(t)\rangle_D \end{aligned}$$

□

**Example 3.7.1.** Consider  $\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2(t)}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2}\hat{x}^2(t) + \beta\hat{x}^4$ , then take  $\hat{H}^e = \frac{\hat{p}^2(t)}{2m} + \frac{\alpha}{2}\hat{x}^2(t)$ ,  $\hat{H}^d = \beta\hat{x}^4$

## 4 Measurement

### 4.1 Basis measurement

**Definition 63.** Consider an observable  $\hat{f} := \sum_n f_n |f_n\rangle \langle f_n|$ , where  $\{|f_n\rangle\}$  is the Hilbert basis by spectral theorem. Given a system in state  $|\psi\rangle$ , the probability of getting  $|f_n\rangle$  in a measurement with respect to this basis is  $|\langle f_n|\psi\rangle|^2$ , and the result state is  $\frac{\langle f_n|\psi\rangle}{|\langle f_n|\psi\rangle|} |f_n\rangle = \text{normalized } \langle f_n|\psi\rangle |f_n\rangle$

**Proposition 4.1.** The observable result of getting  $|f_n\rangle$  is  $f_n \in \mathbb{R}$

**Proposition 4.2.** For an eigenbasis  $\{b_n\}$  for and operator  $\hat{f}$ , we have  $\langle b_m|\hat{f}|b_n\rangle = \delta_{mn} \langle b_m|\hat{f}|b_m\rangle$ , and thus  $\bar{f} = \langle \psi|\hat{f}|\psi\rangle = \sum_m \langle \psi|b_m\rangle \langle b_m|\hat{f} \sum_n \langle b_n|\psi\rangle |b_n\rangle = \sum_m \sum_n \langle \psi|b_m\rangle \langle b_n|\psi\rangle \langle b_m|\hat{f}|b_n\rangle = \sum_m |\langle b_m|\psi\rangle|^2 \langle b_m|\hat{f}|b_m\rangle$

### 4.2 Projective measurement

**Proposition 4.3.** Consider  $\hat{f} := \sum_n f_n |f_n\rangle \langle f_n|$ , where  $\text{Spec}(\hat{f}) = \{f_n\}$  are non-degenerate eigenvalue. Then for the projection  $\hat{Q}_m := |f_m\rangle \langle f_m|$ , we have  $\bar{Q}_m = \langle \psi|\hat{Q}_m|\psi\rangle = \langle \psi|f_m\rangle \langle f_m|\psi\rangle = |\langle f_m|\psi\rangle|^2$  is the probability for finding  $f_n$  if the system was prepared in state  $|\psi\rangle$

**Theorem 4.4.** Born's Rule

If the system is in state  $|\psi\rangle$ , then the probability of finding state  $|\phi\rangle$  is  $|\langle \phi|\psi\rangle|^2$  by measuring  $|\phi\rangle \langle \phi|$

**Definition 64.** For a (degenerate) eigenvalue  $f_m$ , with eigenstates  $\{|f_{ma}\rangle\}_{a=1}^N$ , then the projection onto the eigenspace of  $f_m$  is  $\hat{Q}_m := \sum_{a=1}^N |f_{ma}\rangle \langle f_{ma}|$

**Proposition 4.5.** The probability of finding  $f_m = \bar{Q}_m$

*Proof.*  $\bar{Q}_m = \langle \psi|\hat{Q}_m|\psi\rangle = \langle \psi|\sum_{a=1}^N |f_{ma}\rangle \langle f_{ma}|\psi\rangle = \sum_{a=1}^N \langle \psi|f_{ma}\rangle \langle f_{ma}|\psi\rangle = \sum_{a=1}^N |\langle f_{ma}|\psi\rangle|^2 = \text{Prob}(f_m)$   $\square$

**Definition 65.** Similarly, we can define the projection  $\int_J |c_\lambda\rangle \langle c_\lambda| d\lambda$  for a continuous basis. The probability of measuring a result in  $J$  is the expectation value of measuring this projection.  $\langle \psi|\int_J |c_\lambda\rangle \langle c_\lambda| d\lambda|\psi\rangle = \int_J |\langle c_\lambda|\psi\rangle|^2 d\lambda$

**Example 4.2.1.** The probability of finding the particle in  $[-3, 4] = \int_{-3}^4 |\langle x|\psi\rangle|^2 dx = \int_{-3}^4 |\psi(x)|^2 dx$

**Definition 66.** For a projective measurement  $\hat{Q}$ , the state after the measurement is  $|\psi_{after}\rangle = \frac{\hat{Q}|\psi\rangle}{\|\hat{Q}|\psi\rangle\|} |\psi\rangle$

**Proposition 4.6.** If  $\hat{Q} = |f_n\rangle \langle f_n|$ , then the resulting state of projective measurement agrees with the basis measurement.

*Proof.*  $|\psi_{after}\rangle = \frac{|f_n\rangle \langle f_n|\psi\rangle}{\|\frac{|f_n\rangle \langle f_n|\psi\rangle}{|\langle f_n|\psi\rangle|}\|} |\psi\rangle = \frac{\langle f_n|\psi\rangle}{|\langle f_n|\psi\rangle| \cdot \| |f_n\rangle \|} |f_n\rangle = \frac{\langle f_n|\psi\rangle}{|\langle f_n|\psi\rangle|} |f_n\rangle = \text{normalized } \langle f_n|\psi\rangle |f_n\rangle$   $\square$

**Corollary 4.7.** Projective measurement is a generalization of basis measurement.

*Remark.* The measurement  $\frac{\hat{Q}}{\|\hat{Q}|\psi\rangle\|}$  is not linear thus not unitary.

*Remark.* However, measurement is an outside factor to the system being measured, thus does not violate unitary evolution.

**Proposition 4.8.** Two projective measurements are compatible (the order of measuring does not matter) if and only if they commute.

**Definition 67.** A set of commuting observables  $\{\hat{f}^i\}$ , i.e.  $\forall i, j, [\hat{f}^i, \hat{f}^j] = 0$ , is called maximal if every joint eigenspace is 1-dimensional.

### 4.3 Density Matrix

**Definition 68.** For a system, where  $\{b_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis and the probability of being in  $|b_n\rangle$  is  $\mu_n$ , we define the density matrix to be  $\hat{\rho} := \sum_n \mu_n |b_n\rangle \langle b_n|$

**Definition 69.** The trace of an operator  $\hat{f}$  is defined to be  $\sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{f} | b_n \rangle$  for any Hilbert basis  $\{b_n\}$ .

**Proposition 4.9.** The trace defined above is basis independent, i.e. given any two Hilbert basis  $\{b_n\}, \{c_m\}$ , we always have  $Tr(\hat{f}) = \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{f} | b_n \rangle = \sum_m \langle c_m | \hat{f} | c_m \rangle$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
 Tr(\hat{f}) &= \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{f} | b_n \rangle \\
 &= \sum_n \langle b_n | \sum_m |c_m\rangle \langle c_m| \hat{f} \sum_k |c_k\rangle \langle c_k| |b_n\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{n,m,k} \langle c_m | \langle b_n | c_m \rangle \hat{f} | c_k \rangle \langle c_k | b_n \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{m,k} \langle c_m | \langle c_k | \sum_n |b_n\rangle \langle b_n | c_m \rangle \hat{f} | c_k \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{m,k} \langle c_m | \langle c_k | c_m \rangle \hat{f} | c_k \rangle \\
 &= \sum_{m,k} \langle c_m | \hat{f} | c_k \rangle \delta_{km} \\
 &= \sum_m \langle c_m | \hat{f} | c_m \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 4.10.**  $Tr(\hat{\rho}) = 1$  for any density matrix.

*Proof.* Pick any basis,  $Tr(\hat{\rho}) = \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{\rho} | b_n \rangle = \sum_n \langle b_n | \sum_m \mu_m |b_m\rangle \langle b_m| |b_n\rangle = \sum_n \mu_n = 1$

□

**Proposition 4.11.** If the system is in  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_n \langle b_n | \psi \rangle |b_n\rangle$ , where  $\{b_n\}$  is an orthonormal basis, the density matrix is  $\hat{\rho} = \sum_n |\langle b_n | \psi \rangle|^2 |b_n\rangle \langle b_n| = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$

**Proposition 4.12.** For a self-adjoint operator,  $\bar{f} = Tr(\hat{\rho} \hat{f})$

*Proof.* Pick the orthonormal basis  $\{b_n\}$  for  $f_n$ . Thus,

$$Tr(\hat{\rho} \hat{f}) = \sum_m \langle b_m | \hat{\rho} \hat{f} | b_m \rangle = \sum_m \langle b_m | \sum_n |\langle b_n | \psi \rangle|^2 |b_n\rangle \langle b_n| \hat{f} | b_m \rangle = \sum_m |\langle b_m | \psi \rangle|^2 \langle b_m | \hat{f} | b_m \rangle = \bar{f}$$

□

**Definition 70.** If a density matrix  $\hat{\rho}$  can be represented as  $\hat{\rho} = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$ , then it is a pure state. Otherwise, it is a mixed state.

**Proposition 4.13.** Von Neumann equation

For  $\hat{\rho}(t_0) = \sum_n \rho_n |b_n\rangle \langle b_n|$ , we have  $i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \hat{\rho}(t) = [\hat{H}_s(t), \hat{\rho}(t)]$

**Proposition 4.14.** Measuring without reading the result does not change the density matrix.

*Remark.* Any interaction with something out of the system might be some kind of measurement.



## 4.4 Information Theory

**Definition 71.** The Von Neumann entropy is  $S[\hat{\rho}] := -\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \log_a(\hat{\rho})) = -\sum_n \rho_n \log_a(\rho_n)$  for any basis where  $\hat{\rho} = \sum_n \rho_n |b_n\rangle \langle b_n|$ .

**Proposition 4.15.**  $S[\hat{\rho}] \geq 0$ , and the equality holds if and only if  $\hat{\rho}$  is a pure state.

**Proposition 4.16.** If  $A$  and  $B$  are independent systems, and  $\hat{\rho}_A \in A, \hat{\rho}_B \in B$ , we have  $S[\hat{\rho}_{AB}] = S[\hat{\rho}_A \otimes \hat{\rho}_B] = S[\hat{\rho}_A] + S[\hat{\rho}_B]$

*Remark.* If  $a = 2$ , then  $S[\hat{\rho}]$  is the number of binary questions that can be asked to fix this system, and is the number of bits needed to clarify. If  $a = d \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $S[\hat{\rho}]$  is the number of “dits” needed to clarify. If  $a = e$ , then  $S[\hat{\rho}]$  is the number of “nits” needed to clarify.

**Example 4.4.1.** Suppose we have a heat box at equilibrium, such that  $\frac{d}{dt}\hat{\rho}(t) = 0$ , and  $\bar{E} = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}, \hat{H}) < \infty$ .

Then  $\hat{\rho}$  is the one that satisfies the two constraints,  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$ , and that  $S[\hat{\rho}]$  is maximal.

Consider  $Q(\rho, \mu, \lambda) := -\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \ln \hat{\rho}) - \mu(\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) - 1) - \lambda(\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{H}) - \bar{E})$

Then  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \lambda} = 0$  means  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{H}) = \bar{E}$ , and  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mu} = 0$  means  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$ .

Notice that  $\frac{d}{dt}\hat{\rho}(t) = 0$  means  $[\hat{\rho}, \hat{H}] = 0$ , which means  $\hat{\rho}$  is diagonal in the energy eigenbasis.

Thus  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{H}_s) = \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{\rho} \hat{H}_s | b_n \rangle = \sum_n \rho_n E_n$ .

Thus  $Q(\rho, \mu, \lambda) = -\sum_n \rho_n \log_a(\rho_n) - \mu(\sum_n \rho_n - 1) - \lambda(\sum_n \rho_n E_n - \bar{E})$

Thus  $\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \rho_m} = 0 \implies -\ln \rho_m - 1 - \mu - \lambda E_m = 0$

Thus  $\sum_m (-\ln \rho_m - 1 - \mu - \lambda E_m) |E_m\rangle \langle E_m| = -\ln(\hat{\rho}) - \mathbf{1} - \mu \mathbf{1} - \lambda \hat{H}_S = 0$

Let  $\mu' := \mu + 1$ , then  $\hat{\rho} = \exp(-\lambda \hat{H}_S - \mu' \mathbf{1}) = \frac{1}{\text{Tr}(e^{-\lambda \hat{H}_S})} e^{-\lambda \hat{H}_S}$  since  $\text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}) = 1$ .

Also,  $\hat{E} = \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho} \hat{H}_s) = \frac{1}{\text{Tr}(e^{-\lambda \hat{H}_S})} \text{Tr}(e^{-\lambda \hat{H}_S} \hat{H}_S)$ , which makes  $\lambda$  unique. Indeed,  $\lambda = \frac{1}{kT}$ , where  $T$  is the temperature in Kelvin, and  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant.

Thus  $\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{\text{Tr}(\exp(-\frac{\hat{H}_S}{kT}))} e^{-\frac{\hat{H}_S}{kT}}$

## 5 Multiple systems

### 5.1 Tensor Product Space

**Definition 72.** A Heisenberg Cut separates the system in question and the rest of the universe.

*Remark.* When a measurement happens, it can be thought of as an interaction between the measured system and the system of the measurement apparatus. The combined system still follows unitary evolution.

**Definition 73.** Given two vector spaces  $V, W$  over  $\mathbb{F}$ , the free space is the vector space spanned by  $V \times W$ :  $\mathcal{F}(V, W) := \mathbb{F}V \times \mathbb{F}W = \left\{ \sum_{v \in V, w \in W} c_{vw}(v, w) : c_{vw} \in \mathbb{F} \right\}$

**Definition 74.** Let  $R$  be the subspace of  $\mathcal{F}$ , spanned by  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (v_1 + v_2, w) - (v_1, w) - (v_2, w), \\ (v, w_1 + w_2) - (v, w_1) - (v, w_2), \\ (sv, w) - s(v, w), \\ (v, sw) - s(v, w), \end{array} \right\}$ , then tensor

space  $V \otimes W$  is the quotient space  $\mathcal{F}/R$ . We also define  $v \otimes w \in V \otimes W$  to be the equivalence class under this quotient equivalence. Namely, the above relations are set to zero.

**Proposition 5.1.** The tensor product is bilinear. i.e.  $\forall v_1, v_2 \in V, w_1, w_2 \in W, s \in \mathbb{F}$ ,

$$(v_1 + v_2) \otimes w = v_1 \otimes w + v_2 \otimes w,$$

$$v \otimes (w_1 + w_2) = v \otimes w_1 + v \otimes w_2,$$

$$(sv) \otimes w = s(v \otimes w),$$

$$v \otimes (sw) = s(v \otimes w)$$

**Proposition 5.2.** Given two vector spaces  $V, W$ , then the tensor space  $V \otimes W$  is spanned by  $v \otimes w, v \in V, w \in W$ .

**Definition 75.** Consider  $\langle -, \cdot \rangle_{AB} : (\mathcal{H}^A \otimes \mathcal{H}^B) \times (\mathcal{H}^A \otimes \mathcal{H}^B) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by linearly extending  $\langle |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_1\rangle, |\psi_2\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \rangle_{AB} := \langle \psi_1, \psi_2 \rangle_A \langle \phi_1, \phi_2 \rangle_B$

**Proposition 5.3.**  $\langle -, \cdot \rangle_{AB}$  is an inner product for  $\mathcal{H}^A \otimes \mathcal{H}^B$ , thus it is an inner product space.

**Definition 76.** The Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}^{AB}$  is  $\mathcal{H}^A \otimes \mathcal{H}^B$ , completed under the induced distance  $d_{AB}(v, w) := \sqrt{\langle v - w, v - w \rangle_{AB}}$

**Proposition 5.4.**  $V \otimes W \cong W \otimes V$  for any vector spaces  $V, W$ .

**Proposition 5.5.**  $V \otimes (W \otimes U) \cong (V \otimes W) \otimes U$  for any vector spaces  $V, W$ .

**Proposition 5.6.**  $\mathbb{C} \otimes V \cong V$  for any vector spaces  $V$  over  $\mathbb{C}$ .

**Definition 77.** If  $|\omega\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^{AB}$  can be written as  $|\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle, |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^A, |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^B$ , then it is an unentangled product state. Otherwise, it is called entangled.

### 5.2 Tensor Product of Operators

**Definition 78.** Consider two separate systems A, and B, where A is described by  $\mathcal{H}^A$  with Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}^A$ , and B by  $\mathcal{H}^B$  with Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}^B$ , each with their own observables. The combined system is described by  $\mathcal{H}^{AB}$ .

**Definition 79.** For  $\hat{f} : \mathcal{H}^A \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{A'}$ ,  $\hat{g} : \mathcal{H}^B \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{B'}$ , then  $\hat{f} \otimes \hat{g} : \mathcal{H}^{AB} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{AB'}$  is defined by  $(\hat{f} \otimes \hat{g})(v \otimes w) := \hat{f}(v) \otimes \hat{g}(w)$

**Proposition 5.7.**  $\forall \psi, \phi \in \mathcal{H}^A, \eta, \xi \in \mathcal{H}^B, (\langle \psi | \otimes \langle \eta |)(|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle) = \langle \psi | \phi \rangle \otimes \langle \eta | \xi \rangle = \langle \psi \otimes \eta, \phi \otimes \xi \rangle_{AB}$

**Proposition 5.8.** For any observable  $\hat{f}^A$  of system A, then the same observable is in system AB, and is  $\hat{f}^A \otimes 1$ .

*Proof.* Assume system A is in  $|\psi\rangle$ , and system B is in  $|\phi\rangle$ .

Then the system AB is in  $|\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle$ , then

$$\overline{f^A \otimes \mathbf{1}} = \langle \psi | \otimes \langle \phi | (f^A \otimes \mathbf{1}) | \psi \rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle = \langle \psi | \otimes \langle \phi | ((f^A |\psi\rangle) \otimes |\phi\rangle) = \langle \psi | f^A |\psi\rangle \langle \phi | \phi \rangle = \bar{f}^A \quad \square$$

**Corollary 5.9.** For Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}^A$  of system A, the Hamiltonian in system AB is  $\hat{H}^A \otimes \mathbf{1}$ . For Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}^B$  of system B, the Hamiltonian in system AB is  $\mathbf{1} \otimes \hat{H}^B$ .

**Proposition 5.10.**  $\forall \psi, \phi \in \mathcal{H}^A, \eta, \xi \in \mathcal{H}^B$ , we have that  $\langle \psi, (\mathbf{1}_A \otimes \langle \eta |) (|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle) \rangle_A = (\langle \psi | \otimes \langle \eta |) (|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle)$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} (\langle \psi | \otimes \langle \eta |) (|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle) &= \langle \psi | \phi \rangle \langle \eta | \xi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | (|\phi\rangle \langle \eta | \xi \rangle) \\ &= \langle \psi | ((\mathbf{1}_A |\phi\rangle) \otimes \langle \eta | (|\xi\rangle)) \\ &= \langle \psi | ((\mathbf{1}_A \otimes \langle \xi |) (|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle)) \\ &= \langle \psi, (\mathbf{1}_A \otimes \langle \eta |) (|\phi\rangle \otimes |\xi\rangle) \rangle_A \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

**Definition 80.** The total Hamiltonian of the system AB is  $\hat{H}^A \otimes \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{1} \otimes \hat{H}^B + \hat{H}_{interaction}$

### 5.3 Partial Trace and entanglement

**Definition 81.** Partial Trace

For  $\hat{Q} : \mathcal{H}^{AB} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^{AB}$ , then  $Tr_B(\hat{Q}) := \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{Q} | b_n \rangle := \sum_n (\mathbf{1}_A \otimes \langle b_n |) \hat{Q} (\mathbf{1}_A \otimes | b_n \rangle) : \mathcal{H}^A \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^A$ , for any Hilbert basis  $\{b_n\}$  of  $\mathcal{H}^B$ . In other words,  $\forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^A, Tr_B(\hat{Q}) |\psi\rangle := \sum_n \langle b_n | \hat{Q} |\psi\rangle | b_n \rangle := \sum_n (\mathbf{1}_A \otimes \langle b_n |) \hat{Q} (|\psi\rangle \otimes | b_n \rangle) \in \mathcal{H}^A$

**Theorem 5.11.** Given  $\hat{\rho}^{AB}$ , we have  $\hat{\rho}^A = Tr_B(\hat{\rho}^{AB}), \hat{\rho}^B = Tr_A(\hat{\rho}^{AB})$

*Proof.* Consider any observable  $\hat{f} : \mathcal{H}^A \rightarrow \mathcal{H}^A$

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\hat{f}^A \otimes \mathbf{1}} &= \bar{f}^A \\ &= Tr(\hat{f}^A \hat{\rho}^A) \\ \overline{\hat{f}^A \otimes \mathbf{1}} &= Tr((\hat{f}^A \otimes \mathbf{1}) \hat{\rho}^{AB}) \\ &= \sum_{n,m} \langle a_n | \langle b_m | ((\hat{f}^A \otimes \mathbf{1}) \hat{\rho}^{AB}) | a_n \rangle | b_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_{n,m} \left( \langle a_n | \langle b_m | (\hat{f}^A \otimes \mathbf{1})^\dagger \right) (\hat{\rho}^{AB} | a_n \rangle | b_m \rangle) \\ &= \sum_{n,m} \left( \langle a_n | (\hat{f}^A)^\dagger \right) \langle b_m | \hat{\rho}^{AB} | a_n \rangle | b_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \langle a_n | \hat{f}^A \sum_m \langle b_m | \hat{\rho}^{AB} | a_n \rangle | b_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_n \langle a_n | \hat{f}^A Tr_B(\hat{\rho}^{AB}) | a_n \rangle \\ &= Tr(\hat{f}^A Tr_B(\hat{\rho}^{AB})) \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

**Proposition 5.12.** For any  $|\Omega\rangle = \sum_n \Omega_n |\psi_n\rangle \otimes |\phi_n\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^{AB}$ , if the total system AB is in pure state  $\hat{\rho} = |\Omega\rangle \langle \Omega|$ , then we have  $\hat{\rho}^A = \sum_n \sum_{n'} \Omega_n \Omega_{n'}^* \langle \phi_{n'} | \phi_n \rangle |\psi_n\rangle \langle \psi_{n'}|$ .

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{\rho}^A &= \text{Tr}_B(|\Omega\rangle\langle\Omega|) \\
&= \text{Tr}_B\left(\sum_n \Omega_n |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| \otimes |\phi_n\rangle\langle\phi_n| \sum_{n'} \Omega_{n'}^* \langle\psi_{n'}| \otimes \langle\phi_{n'}|\right) \\
&= \sum_m \langle b_m| \sum_n \Omega_n |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n| \otimes |\phi_n\rangle\langle\phi_n| \sum_{n'} \Omega_{n'}^* \langle\psi_{n'}| \otimes \langle\phi_{n'}| |b_m\rangle \\
&= \sum_m \sum_n \sum_{n'} \Omega_n \Omega_{n'}^* |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_{n'}| \otimes (\langle b_m| |\phi_n\rangle\langle\phi_{n'}| |b_m\rangle) \\
&= \sum_n \sum_{n'} \Omega_n \Omega_{n'}^* |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_{n'}| \otimes (\langle\phi_{n'}| \sum_m |b_m\rangle\langle b_m| |\phi_n\rangle) \\
&= \sum_n \sum_{n'} \Omega_n \Omega_{n'}^* \langle\phi_{n'}| \phi_n\rangle |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_{n'}|
\end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 5.13.** Assume that  $\hat{\rho}^{AB} = |\Omega\rangle\langle\Omega|$  is pure, then the following are equal:

$$|\Omega\rangle \text{ is unentangled} \quad (1)$$

$$\hat{\rho}^A \text{ is pure} \quad (2)$$

$$\mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^A] = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\hat{\rho}^B \text{ is pure} \quad (4)$$

$$\mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^B] = 0 \quad (5)$$

*Proof.* We will show that (1) and (2) are equivalent.

Assume (1) is true, i.e.  $|\Omega\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}^{AB}$  is pure, then  $\hat{\rho}^A = \langle\phi|\phi\rangle |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  is not entangled.

Assume (2) is true, i.e.  $\hat{\rho}^A = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$  is not entangled. Now if we pick a Hilbert basis  $\{\phi_n\}$  for  $\mathcal{H}^B$ , we will have  $|\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \sum_n \sum_{n'} \Omega_n \Omega_{n'}^* \langle\phi_{n'}|\phi_n\rangle |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_{n'}| = \sum_n |\Omega_n|^2 |\psi_n\rangle\langle\psi_n|$ . Thus we must have one and only one of  $\Omega_n = 1$ , and the others zero. Without loss of generality,  $|\psi_1\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ ,  $\Omega_1 = 1$ , and  $|\Omega\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi_1\rangle$  is pure. □

**Theorem 5.14.** Assume that  $\hat{\rho}^{AB} = |\Omega\rangle\langle\Omega|$  is pure, then  $\mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^A] = \mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^B]$

**Theorem 5.15.** Assume that  $\hat{\rho}^{AB} = |\Omega\rangle\langle\Omega|$  is pure, then the eigenvalues of  $\hat{\rho}^A$  and  $\hat{\rho}^B$  are the same.

**Definition 82.** The Purity of a state  $\hat{\rho}$  is  $\mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}] := \text{Tr}(\hat{\rho}^2)$ .

**Proposition 5.16.**  $0 < \mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}] \leq 1$

*Proof.* Let  $\hat{\rho} = \sum_n p_n |e_n\rangle\langle e_n|$ ,  $\sum_n p_n = 1$ .

Then  $\hat{\rho}^2 = \sum_n p_n^2 |e_n\rangle\langle e_n|$ , and  $\mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}] = \sum_n p_n^2$ .

Notice that  $\forall n, 0 \leq p_n \leq 1$ , thus  $0 < \max(p_n)^2 \leq \sum_n p_n^2 \leq \sum_n p_n = 1$ , and the equality holds only when exactly one of them is 1, and the others are all 0. □

**Corollary 5.17.**  $\mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}] = 1 \iff \hat{\rho} \text{ is pure.}$

**Corollary 5.18.** The larger  $\mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^A] = \mathcal{S}[\hat{\rho}^B]$ , the smaller  $\mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}^A] = \mathcal{P}[\hat{\rho}^B]$ , the more mixed are  $\hat{\rho}^A, \hat{\rho}^B$ , the more entangled is  $\hat{\rho}^{AB}$

## 6 Feynman's Picture

Suppose that at time  $t_0$ , a particle can be at any of  $a_i$ , and at time  $t_1$ , it can be at any of  $b_j$ . Notice that by classical statistic,  $\mathcal{P}(b_j) = \sum_i \mathcal{P}(a_i \wedge b_j) = \sum_i \mathcal{P}(b_j|a_i)\mathcal{P}(a_i)$ .

Consider a measurement  $\hat{A}$  at  $t_1$ , where  $\hat{A}|a_n\rangle = a_n|a_n\rangle$ , and another measurement  $\hat{B}$  at  $t_2$ , where  $\hat{B}|b_m\rangle = b_m|b_m\rangle$ . Notice that  $\mathcal{P}(a_n) = |\langle a_n|\psi(t_1)\rangle|^2 = |\langle a_n|\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2$ . In addition,  $\mathcal{P}(b_m|a_n) = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_1, t_2)|a_n\rangle|^2$ .

Thus,  $\mathcal{P}(a_n \wedge b_m) = \mathcal{P}(b_j|a_i)\mathcal{P}(a_i) = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_1, t_2)|a_n\rangle|^2 |\langle a_n|\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2 = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_1, t_2)|a_n\rangle \langle a_n|\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2$ .

Thus  $\mathcal{P}(b_m) = \sum_n |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_1, t_2)|a_n\rangle \langle a_n|\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2$  if we don't care about the measurement  $\hat{A}$ .

On the other hand, if we did not perform  $\hat{A}$ , we have  $\mathcal{P}(b_m) = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_2)|\psi_0\rangle|^2 = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_2, t_1)\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2 = |\langle b_m|\hat{U}(t_2, t_1) \sum_n |a_n\rangle \langle a_n|\hat{U}(t_1)|\psi_0\rangle|^2$  which is different.

**Definition 83.** If the system is in state  $|\psi\rangle$ , the probability amplitude of finding state  $|\phi\rangle$  is  $\langle\phi|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}$

**Proposition 6.1.** *The probability is the norm square of the probability amplitude.*

**Theorem 6.2.** *When there is no measurement, the probability amplitude should follow the same rules as classical probability.*