Quantum Mechanics Notes

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1 Formalism

PHYS 6572 - Lectures 1-5; Sakurai ch.1

Kets represent a physical state - atom for example. They are represented by a vector in Hilbert space - a vector space with vectors and complex numbers. One example of such space is the space of square integrable functions, L_2 . Such space is equipped with/closed under vector addition: $a|\alpha\rangle + b|\beta\rangle = |\gamma\rangle \in V$. This operation is:

- 1. Linear: $(a+b)|\alpha\rangle = a|\alpha\rangle + b|\alpha\rangle$; $a(|\alpha\rangle + |\beta\rangle) = a|\alpha\rangle + a|\beta\rangle$
- 2. Commutative: $|\alpha\rangle + |\beta\rangle = |\beta\rangle + |\alpha\rangle$
- 3. Associative: $(|\alpha\rangle + |\beta\rangle) + |\gamma\rangle = |\alpha\rangle + (|\beta\rangle + |\gamma\rangle)$.

Furthermore, the null vector $(\exists |0\rangle)$ such that $|\alpha\rangle + |0\rangle = |\alpha\rangle$ and the inverse vector $(|\alpha\rangle + |-\alpha\rangle) = |0\rangle$ exist.

Observables represent a physical quantity - spin of an atom, for example, are represented by an operator. Given an observable, there exists eigenstates that satisfy, for an operator,

$$A |\alpha'\rangle = \alpha' |\alpha'\rangle, \quad A |\alpha''\rangle = \alpha'' |\alpha''\rangle,$$

where $|\alpha^n\rangle \in H$ are eigenkets and $\alpha^n \in \mathbb{C}$ are eigenvalues.

Generally, for an ordinary ket $|\alpha\rangle$ and observable A, we have completeness relation: $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{\alpha'} c_{\alpha'} |\alpha'\rangle$.

Bras are the dual vector space to kets; there's a correspondance between bra and ket spaces. For example,

$$|\alpha\rangle, |\alpha'\rangle, |\alpha''\rangle, \dots \longleftrightarrow \langle\alpha|, \langle\alpha'|, \langle\alpha''|, \dots |\alpha\rangle + |\beta\rangle \longleftrightarrow \langle\alpha| + \langle\beta| c |\alpha\rangle \longleftrightarrow c^* \langle\alpha|.$$

An operator called the **inner product** exists in H; it's given $\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle = (\langle \beta |) \cdot (|\alpha \rangle)$.

There are two postulates regarding the inner product;

- 1. $\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle = \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle^*$
- 2. $\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle \geq 0$.

Furthermore, $|\alpha\rangle$ and $|\beta\rangle$ are orthogonal if $\langle\alpha|\beta\rangle=0$ \Longrightarrow $\langle\beta|\alpha\rangle=0$. For a nonzero ket, we can also normalize it;

Operators are observables that work on kets. Addition operators are generally commutative, associative, and linear. Furthermore, we have

$$X | \alpha \rangle \longleftrightarrow \langle \alpha | X^{\dagger},$$

where X^{\dagger} is the Hermitian adjoint; X is Hermitian if $X = X^{\dagger}$.

Multiplication operators are, in gneral,

- 1. Noncommutative; $XY \neq YX$
- 2. Associative; X(YZ) = (XY)Z = XYZ; $(XY)^{\dagger} = Y^{\dagger}X^{\dagger}$.

The "associative axioms of multiplication" are

- 1. $|\beta\rangle\langle\alpha|\cdot|\gamma\rangle = |\beta\rangle\cdot\langle\alpha|\gamma\rangle$.
- 2. $|\alpha\rangle \longleftrightarrow |\alpha|$ and $X |\alpha\rangle \longleftrightarrow |\alpha| X^{\dagger}$.

Then, $X = |\beta\rangle\langle\alpha| \implies X^{\dagger} = |\alpha\rangle\langle\beta|$ because $\beta\langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = X|\alpha\rangle \longleftrightarrow \langle\alpha|X^{\dagger} = \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle|\beta\rangle$.

3. $\langle \beta | \cdot X | \alpha \rangle = \langle \beta | X \cdot | \alpha \rangle = \langle \beta | X | \alpha \rangle$.

Further, $\langle \beta | X | \alpha \rangle = \langle \beta | \cdot X | \alpha \rangle = (\langle \alpha | X^{\dagger} \cdot | \beta \rangle)^* = \langle \alpha | X^{\dagger} | \beta \rangle^*$.

Hence, X is Hermitian iff $\langle \beta | X | \alpha \rangle = \langle \alpha | X | \beta \rangle^*$.

Proposition 1.1. Hermitian A has real, orthogonal eigenvalues.

For eigenkets α' , α'' , we have $A|\alpha'\rangle = \alpha'|\alpha'\rangle$ and $\langle\alpha''|A = a''^*\langle\alpha''|$. If we multiply by $\langle\alpha''|$ and $|\alpha'\rangle$ respectively, we get $\langle \alpha'' | A | \alpha' \rangle = \alpha' \langle \alpha'' | \alpha' \rangle$ and $\langle \alpha'' | A | \alpha' \rangle = \alpha''^* \langle \alpha'' | \alpha' \rangle$. Subtracting these gives

$$(\alpha' - \alpha''^*) \langle \alpha'' | \alpha' \rangle = 0.$$

If $\alpha' = \alpha''$, then $\alpha' = \alpha'^*$ (realness). For $\alpha' \neq \alpha''$, we have $\langle \alpha'' | \alpha' \rangle = 0$ (orthogonality).

For a complete set of eigenkets, we can use **vector expansion**; $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{\alpha'} |\alpha'\rangle \langle \alpha' |\alpha\rangle$, which is analogous to the familiar form $\mathbf{v} = \sum \hat{e}_i(\hat{e}_i \cdot \mathbf{v})$. This also gives the **completeness relation**:

$$\sum_{\alpha'} |\alpha'\rangle \langle \alpha'| = 1.$$

We examine $\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle$:

$$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \langle \alpha | \cdot \left(\sum_{\alpha'} | \alpha' \rangle \langle \alpha' | \right) \cdot | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{\alpha'} |\langle \alpha' | \alpha \rangle|^2.$$

We say $|\alpha\rangle$ is **normalized** if $\langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = \sum_{\alpha'} |\langle\alpha'|\alpha\rangle|^2 = 1$. It is often convenient to use **matrix representation** in quantum mechanics. To motivate, for an operator, we have, from completeness relations, $X = \sum_{a'} \sum_{a''} |a''\rangle \langle a''| X |a'\rangle \langle a'|$. From this expression, we define

$$X_{ij} = \left\langle a^{i} \middle| X \middle| a^{j} \right\rangle \implies X = \begin{pmatrix} \left\langle a^{1} \middle| X \middle| a^{1} \right\rangle & \left\langle a^{1} \middle| X \middle| a^{2} \right\rangle \\ \left\langle a^{2} \middle| X \middle| a^{1} \right\rangle & \left\langle a^{2} \middle| X \middle| a^{2} \right\rangle \\ & \ddots \end{pmatrix}.$$

With this, we can represent matrix multiplication; for Z = XY,

$$Z_{ij} = \langle a'' | Z | a' \rangle = \langle a'' | XY | a' \rangle = \sum_{a'''} \langle a'' | X | a''' \rangle \langle a''' | Y | a' \rangle = X_{ik} Y_{kj}.$$

In ket notation, if we let $|\gamma\rangle = X|a\rangle$ and $\langle a'|\gamma\rangle = \langle a'|X|a\rangle = \sum_{a''} \langle a'|X|a''\rangle \langle a''|a\rangle$, which is similar to multiplying a square matrix by a column vector. Hence, we have

$$|\alpha\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \left\langle a^1 \middle| a \right\rangle \\ \left\langle a^2 \middle| a \right\rangle \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \quad |\gamma\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \left\langle a^1 \middle| \gamma \right\rangle \\ \left\langle a^2 \middle| \gamma \right\rangle \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

Furthermore, for a bra relation, $\langle \gamma | = \langle a | X$, we have $\langle \gamma | a' \rangle = \sum_{a''} \langle a | a'' \rangle \langle a'' | X | a' \rangle$, which is similar to multiplying a row vector by a square matrix, giving us

$$\langle a| = (\langle a^1|a\rangle^* \quad \langle a^2|a\rangle^* \quad \dots), \quad \langle \gamma| = (\langle a^1|\gamma\rangle^* \quad \langle a^2|\gamma\rangle^* \quad \dots).$$

It is easy to see that

$$\langle \beta | \beta \rangle \alpha = \sum_{a'} \langle \beta | a' \rangle \langle a' | a' \rangle \alpha = (\langle a^1 | \beta \rangle^* \quad \langle a^2 | \beta \rangle \quad \cdots) \begin{pmatrix} \langle a^1 | \alpha \rangle \\ \langle a^2 | \alpha \rangle \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}.$$

Finally,

$$|\beta\rangle\langle\alpha| = \begin{pmatrix} \langle a^1 | \beta \rangle \langle a^1 | \alpha \rangle^* & \langle a^1 | \beta \rangle \langle a^2 | \alpha \rangle^* & \dots \\ \langle a^2 | \beta \rangle \langle a^1 | \alpha \rangle^* & \langle a^2 | \beta \rangle \langle a^2 | \alpha \rangle^* & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}.$$

We define the **projection/measurement operator** as $\Lambda_{a'} = |a'\rangle \langle a'|$. Using the projection operator, we can write an operator A in terms of its eigenkets;

$$A = \sum_{a^{\prime\prime}} \sum_{a^\prime} \left| a^{\prime\prime} \right\rangle \left\langle a^{\prime\prime} \right| A \left| a^\prime \right\rangle \left\langle a^\prime \right| = \sum_{a^\prime} a^\prime \left| a^\prime \right\rangle \left\langle a^\prime \right| = \sum_{a^\prime} a^\prime \Lambda_{a^\prime}.$$

When a **measurement** is made, $|a\rangle$ collapses to $|a'\rangle$ - Copenhagen interpretation. Furthermore, the probability for measuring a' is $|\langle a'|a\rangle|^2$.

For an observable, the ${f expectation}$ value is defined

$$\langle A \rangle = \langle \alpha | A | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{a'} \sum_{a''} \langle \alpha | a'' \rangle \langle a'' | A | a' \rangle \langle a' | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{a'} a' \langle a' | \alpha \rangle^* \langle a' | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{a'} a' |\langle a' | \alpha \rangle|^2,$$

which can be interpreted as the average measured value.

For the **commutator** defined [A, B] = AB - BA, for compatible observables, we have [A, B] = 0, and for incompatible observables, we have $[A, B] \neq 0$. An observable is **degenerate** if it has the same eigenvalue for multiple eigenstates.

Theorem 1.1. Compatible \implies nondegenerate \implies diagonal matrices

For compatible observables, $[A, B] = 0 \implies \langle a'' | AB - BA | a' \rangle = (a'' - a') \langle a'' | B | a' \rangle = 0$. Unless a'' = a', $\langle a'' | B | a' \rangle = 0$, which implies diagonal B. Furthermore, since B is diagonal, $\langle a'' | B | a' \rangle = \delta_{a'a''} \langle a' | B | a'' \rangle$. Using identity relations,

$$\begin{split} B &= \sum_{a'} \sum_{a''} |a''\rangle \left\langle a''| \, B \, |a'\rangle \left\langle a'\right| = \sum_{a''} |a''\rangle \left\langle a''| \, B \, |a''\rangle \left\langle a''\right| \\ \Longrightarrow B \, |a'\rangle &= \sum_{a''} |a''\rangle \left\langle a''| \, B \, |a''\rangle \left\langle a''|a'\right\rangle = \left(\left\langle a'| \, B \, |a'\rangle\right) |a'\rangle \,. \end{split}$$

Therefore, $|a\rangle'$ is an eigenstate of B with eigenvalue $b' = \langle a' | B | a' \rangle$.

To prove the uncertainty relation, we first introduce three lemmas: **Schwartz Inequality**: $\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle \langle \beta | \beta \rangle \ge |\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle|^2$. To prove this, consider the equality

$$(\langle \alpha | + \lambda^* \langle \beta |) \cdot (|\alpha \rangle + \lambda |\beta \rangle) = ||\alpha \rangle + \lambda |\beta \rangle|^2 \ge 0,$$

where $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. If we let $\lambda = -\frac{\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle}{\langle \beta | \beta \rangle}$,

$$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle + \lambda \, \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle + \lambda^* \, \langle \beta | \alpha \rangle + \lambda^* \lambda \, \langle \beta | \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle - \frac{2 |\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle|^2}{\langle \beta | \beta \rangle} + \frac{|\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle|^2}{\langle \beta | \beta \rangle} \ge 0 \implies \langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle \, \langle \beta | \beta \rangle - |\langle \alpha | \beta \rangle|^2 \ge 0.$$

Lemma 2. Hermitian operators have real expectation values. To see this,

$$\langle H \rangle = \langle a | H | a \rangle = \langle a | H^{\dagger} | a \rangle^* = \langle a | H | a \rangle^* \implies \langle H \rangle \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Lemma 3. Anti-Hermitian operators have imaginary expectation values. To see this, $\langle H \rangle = -\langle H \rangle^* \implies \langle H \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$.

Uncertainty relation We claim that $\langle \Delta a \rangle \langle \Delta b \rangle \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle [A, B] \rangle|$. To prove this, let $|\alpha\rangle = \Delta A |\psi\rangle$ and $|\beta\rangle = \Delta B |\psi\rangle$. From Schwartz inequality,

$$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle \langle \beta | \beta \rangle \ge \left| \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle \right|^2 \implies \langle \psi | \Delta A^{\dagger} \Delta A | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | \Delta B^{\dagger} \Delta B | \psi \rangle \ge \left| \langle \psi | \Delta A^{\dagger} \Delta B | \psi \rangle \right|^2.$$

Furthermore, we claim $\Delta A \Delta B = \frac{1}{2} [\Delta A, \Delta B] + \frac{1}{2} {\Delta A, \Delta B}$. Also,

$$[\Delta A, \Delta B] = [A - \langle A \rangle, B - \langle B \rangle] = [A, B] - [\langle A \rangle, B] - [A, \langle B \rangle] + [\langle A \rangle, \langle B \rangle] \implies [\Delta A, \Delta B] = [A, B],$$

since $\langle A \rangle$ and $\langle B \rangle$ commute. Lastly,

$$[A, B]^{\dagger} = (AB - BA)^{\dagger} = BA - AB = -[A, B]$$

 $\{A, B\}^{\dagger} = (AB + BA)^{\dagger} = BA + AB = \{A, B\}.$

The commutators are anti-hermitian and hence imaginary, and anticommutators are hermitian and hence real. Lastly,

$$\left\langle \Delta A \right\rangle^2 \left\langle \Delta B \right\rangle^2 \geq \left| \left\langle \Delta A \Delta B \right\rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{4} \left| \left\langle [A,B] \right\rangle \right|^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left| \left\langle \{A,B\} \right\rangle \right|^2 \geq \frac{1}{4} \left| \left\langle [A,B] \right\rangle \right|^2.$$

Change of basis. Given a two sets of orthonormal and complete basis (for some space), there exists U such that $\left|b^{1}\right\rangle = U\left|a^{2}\right\rangle,\,\left|b^{2}\right\rangle = U\left|a^{2}\right\rangle,\cdots,\left|b^{n}\right\rangle = U\left|a^{n}\right\rangle$ with U unitary. We explicitly construct:

$$U = \sum_{k} \left| b^{k} \right\rangle \left\langle a^{k} \right|.$$

Indeed, $U | a^l \rangle = \sum_k | b^k \rangle \langle a^k | a^l \rangle = | b^l \rangle$. Furthermore, From definition, $\langle a^k | b^l \rangle = \langle a^k | U | a^l \rangle$, and hence U's elements are, for a change in basis in \mathbb{R}^3 , $U \sim \begin{pmatrix} \hat{x} \cdot \hat{x}' & \hat{x} \cdot \hat{y}' & \hat{x} \cdot \hat{z}' \\ \hat{y} \cdot \hat{x}' & \hat{y} \cdot \hat{y}' & \hat{y} \cdot \hat{z}' \\ \hat{z} \cdot \hat{x}' & \hat{z} \cdot \hat{y}' & \hat{z} \cdot \hat{z}' \end{pmatrix}$.

Likewise, we can do a change in bra basis. $\langle b^k | \alpha \rangle = \sum_l \langle b^k | a^l \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle = \sum_l \langle a^k | U^\dagger | a^l \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle$, meaning $\langle b^k | a^l \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle$, meaning $\langle b^k | a^l \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle \langle a^l | \alpha \rangle$

We define the **translator** to be a operator defined as $I(dx')|x'\rangle = |x' + dx'\rangle$. Turns out, we have $I(dx') = 1 - i\mathbf{k} \cdot d\mathbf{x}'$, with \mathbf{k} hermitian. We can see that four properties are satisfied:

- 1. Unity; $I^{\dagger}(\mathrm{d}x')I(\mathrm{d}x')=1$
- 2. Composition; I(dx'')I(dx') = I(dx' + dx'')
- 3. Inverse; $I(-dx') = I^{-1}(dx')$
- 4. Continuity; $\lim_{dx'\to 0} I(dx') = 1$.

With this definition, we get two commutation relations: [x, I(dx')] = dx', $\left[\hat{x}_i, \hat{k}_j\right] = i\delta_{ij}$. With the generating function $F(\mathbf{xP}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{P} + \mathbf{p} \cdot d\mathbf{x} \implies \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} + d\mathbf{x}$, $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{p}$. We claim that this is the translator; if we match up the units, $I(d\mathbf{x}') = 1 - \frac{i\mathbf{p}\cdot d\mathbf{x}'}{\hbar}$. For a finite translation, we have $I(\Delta x'e_x) = \lim_{N\to\infty} \left(1 - \frac{ip_x\Delta x'}{N\hbar}\right)^N = \exp\left(-\frac{ip_x\Delta x'}{\hbar}\right)$. Furthermore, we can derive the **commutation relations**:

$$[x_i, x_j] = 0, \quad [p_i, p_j] = 0, \quad [x_i, p_j] = i\hbar \delta_{ij}.$$

We define the **wavefunction** in position basis as $\psi_{\alpha}(x') = \langle x' | \alpha \rangle$. Evidently,

$$\langle \beta | \alpha \rangle = \int dx' \, \langle \beta | x' \rangle \, \langle x' | \alpha \rangle = \int dx' \psi_{\beta}^*(x') \psi_{\alpha}(x')$$
$$\langle \beta | A | \alpha \rangle = \int dx' \, \int dx'' \psi_{\beta}^*(x') \, \langle x' | A | x'' \rangle \, \psi_{\alpha}(x'').$$

Furthermore, we can represent the momentum operator:

$$\left(1 - \frac{ip\Delta x'}{\hbar}\right)|\alpha\rangle = \int dx' I(\Delta x') |x'\rangle \langle x'|x'\rangle \alpha = \int ddx' |x'\rangle \langle x' - \Delta x'|\alpha\rangle
= \int dx' |x'\rangle \langle x'|\alpha\rangle - \int dx' |x'\rangle \left(\Delta x' \frac{\partial}{\partial x'}\right) \langle x'|\alpha\rangle
\Longrightarrow p = \int dx' |x'\rangle \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x'} \langle x'|\right).$$

Likewise, we define the wavefunction in the momentum basis as $\phi_{\alpha}(p) = \langle p' | \alpha \rangle$

From $\langle x'|p|p'\rangle = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x'} \langle x'|p'\rangle = p' \langle x'|p'\rangle$, we obtian $\langle x'|p'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \exp\left(\frac{ip'x'}{\hbar}\right)$. Hence,

$$\psi_{\alpha}(x') = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int \mathrm{d}p' \exp\left(\frac{ip'x'}{\hbar}\right) \phi_{\alpha}(p'), \quad \phi_{\alpha}(p') = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int \mathrm{d}x' \exp\left(\frac{-ip'x'}{\hbar}\right) \psi_{\alpha}(x').$$

Dynamics

Lectures 5-6, Sakurai ch.2.1-2.4 A time-evolution operator, satisfying similar conditions as the translator, has the form

$$U(t_0 + dt, t_0) = 1 - \frac{iHdt}{\hbar} = \exp\left(\frac{-iH(t - t_0)}{\hbar}\right).$$

From this, we find the Schrodinger equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} U(t, t_0) = HU(t, t_0) \implies i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\alpha, t_0: t\rangle = H |\alpha, t_0: t\rangle,$$

where $|\alpha, t_0: t\rangle = U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0\rangle$.

For **energy eigenkets** defined $H|a'\rangle = E_{a'}|a'\rangle$, we have

$$\exp\left(\frac{-iHt}{\hbar}\right) = \sum_{a'} |a'\rangle \exp\left(\frac{-iE_{a'}t}{\hbar}\right) \langle a'|.$$

As an example, when this acts on an initial state $|\alpha, t_0\rangle$, we get the expansion coefficients change with time as $c_{a'}(t) = c_{a'}(t)$ 0) $\exp\left(\frac{-iE_{a'}t}{\hbar}\right)$. Furthermore, if the initial state happens to be an energy eigenstate itself, it is a constant of the motion.

Consider an observable B. If it were to be measured with respect to an energy eigenket, $|a'\rangle$, we have $|a',t_0=0;t\rangle=$ $U(t,0)|a'\rangle$ for the state ket; $\langle B \rangle$ is given by $\langle B \rangle = \langle a'|U^{\dagger}(t,0)BU(t,0)|a'\rangle = \langle a'|\exp\left(\frac{iE_{a'}t}{\hbar}\right)B\exp\left(\frac{-iE_{a'}t}{\hbar}\right)|a'\rangle = \langle a'|B|a'\rangle$, independent of t. This is referred as a stationary state. If we take the superposition of energy eigenstates, we get a **nonstationary state**: for $|\alpha, t_0 = 0\rangle = \sum_{a'} c_{a'} |a'\rangle$, we have

$$|B\rangle = \sum_{a'} \sum_{a''} c_{a''}^* c_{a''} \langle a' | B | a'' \rangle \exp\left(\frac{-i(E_{a''} - E_{a'})t}{\hbar}\right).$$

2.1 Harmonic Oscillator

Let $V(x) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2$ and $\hat{H} = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2$. In the position basis, we have

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\psi(x) + \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2\psi(x) = E\psi(x).$$

We define the creation and annihilation operator to be

$$a^{\dagger} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m\hbar\omega}}(m\omega x - ip), \quad a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2m\hbar\omega}}(m\omega x + ip).$$

From this, we can write the Hamiltonian operator:

$$H = \left(a^{\dagger}a + \frac{1}{2}\right)\hbar\omega.$$

The commutation relations state

$$\left[a,a^{\dagger}\right]=\mathbb{1},\quad \left[H,a\right]=-\hbar\omega a,\quad \left[H,a^{\dagger}\right]=\hbar\omega a^{\dagger}.$$

Using the commutation relations, we have that for $\{|n\rangle\}$ eigenstates of H, $a|n\rangle$ is also an eigenstate with $\hbar\omega$ less energy. Likewise, $a^{\dagger}|n\rangle$ is an eigenstate with $\hbar\omega$ more energy.

For physical reasons, we claim that there's a ground state where $a|\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle$. The energy is given as $H|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2}|\psi_0\rangle$. Since the eigenstates are normalized, we can easily found the proportionality constant of the ladder operators from their definition:

$$a\left|n\right\rangle = \sqrt{n}\left|n-1\right\rangle, \quad a^{\dagger}\left|n\right\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}\left|n-1\right\rangle.$$

Furthermore, we can find the ground state wavefunction from the definition of the ground state, $a|\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle$; we have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2m\hbar\omega}}(m\omega x + \hbar\partial_x)\psi_0(x) = 0 \implies \psi_0(x) = \frac{1}{(\pi x_0^2)^{1/4}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2x_0^2}}, \quad x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}}.$$

Furthermore, from the recursion relation, we get

$$|n\rangle = \frac{(a^{\dagger})^n}{\sqrt{n!}} |\psi_0\rangle \implies \psi_n(x) = \frac{(m\omega x - \hbar\partial_x)^n}{(2m\hbar\omega)^{n/2}\sqrt{n!}} \psi_0(x).$$

2.2 Hydrogen Atom

Let the Hamiltonian be $H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + V(r)$. The differential equation becomes

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2mr^2} \left[\partial_r (r^2 \partial_r \psi_n) + \nabla^2_{\theta\psi} \psi_n \right] + V(r) \psi_n = E_n.$$

If we let $\psi_n(x) = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$, we get two differential equations:

$$\frac{1}{R}\partial_r(r^2\partial_r R) - \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2}(V(r) - E_n) = l(l+1)$$
$$\frac{1}{V}\nabla^2_{\theta\phi}Y = -l(l+1).$$

If we let $Y = f(\theta)g(\phi)$, we get two differential equations:

$$\frac{1}{f}\sin\theta\partial_{\theta}(\sin\theta\partial_{\theta}f) + l(l+1)\sin^{2}\theta = m^{2}$$
$$\frac{1}{a}\partial_{\phi}^{2}g = -m^{2}.$$

From periodicity $(g(\phi) = g(\phi + 2\pi))$, we get $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \cdots$ and solution $g(\phi) = e^{\pm im\phi}$. Furthermore, for f, the solutions are the associated legendre function;

$$P_{lm}(x) = (1 - x^2)^{m/2} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^{|m|} P_l(x); \quad P_l(x) = \frac{1}{2^l l!} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^l (x^2 - 1)^l.$$

There's two conditions;

- 1. $l \in \mathbb{N}$; since the Legendre polynomial has the lth derivative
- 2. $|m| \leq 1$, since otherwise, P_{lm} has more derivatives than polynomials.

Therefore,

$$Y_{lm}(\theta,\phi) = AP_{lm}(\cos\theta)e^{im\phi},$$

known as the spherical harmonics. They are orthonormal.

2.3 Angular Momentum

Turns out, $Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$ are eigenstates of $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{p}$. As far as the angular momentum operators are concerned, we have two facts:

- 1. L_i and L_j , for $i \neq j$ are incompatible; $[L_i, L_j] = i\hbar\epsilon_{ijk}L_k$. In other words, we can't determine all components of **L**. This is due to the fact that angular momenta are generators of rotations, which don't commute.
- 2. L^2 and L_i are compatible; $[L^2, L_i] = 0$.

From fact 2, we can find simultaneous eigenstates for L_z and L^2 . We define

$$L_z |\lambda, \mu\rangle = \mu |\lambda, \mu\rangle, \quad L^2 |\lambda, \mu\rangle = \lambda |\lambda, \mu\rangle.$$

Furthermore, we define the ladder operators: $L_{\pm} = L_x \pm iL_y$. By definition,

$$L^2 = L_{\pm}L_{\mp} + L_z^2 \mp \hbar L_z,$$

which correspond to raising/lowering L_z by \hbar . The commutation relations for these ladder operators are:

$$[L^2, L_{\pm}] = 0, \quad [L_z, L_{\pm}] = \pm \hbar L_{\pm}.$$

To find the upper and lower bounds, we let $L_z |\lambda, l\rangle = l\hbar |\lambda, l\rangle$, $L_z |\lambda, l'\rangle = l'\hbar |\lambda, l'\rangle$, and $L^2 |\lambda, l\rangle = \lambda |\lambda, l\rangle$. Then, the upper and lower bounds, defined as $L_+ |\lambda l\rangle = L_- |\lambda l'\rangle 0$, gives $\lambda = l(l+1)\hbar^2 = l'(l'-1)\hbar^2$, and from the ordering of bounds, we have l' = -l, giving us $\lambda = l(l+1)\hbar^2$.

Now, we label $|\lambda, \mu\rangle$ as $|l, m\rangle$. We see that $(L_+)^N |l, -l\rangle = (-l + N)\hbar |lm\rangle$, meaning l has to be half-integers and $m \in [-l, l] \cap \mathbb{Z}$. Now,

$$L^{2}|lm\rangle = l(l+1)\hbar^{2}|lm\rangle$$
, $L_{z}|lm\rangle = m\hbar|lm\rangle$.

If we go back to the hydrogen atom, we can express:

$$L_z = \frac{\hbar}{i} \partial_{\phi}, \quad L^2 = -\hbar^2 \nabla_{\theta\phi}^2.$$

Therefore,

$$\langle x|lm\rangle = Y_{lm}(\theta,\phi).$$

3 Berry's Phase, Aharnov-Bohm Effect (Lecture 23)

Gauge Invariance We work in the Lorenz gauge:

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla \phi - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}, \quad \mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}.$$

Recall that we can make a gauge transformation

$$\phi \to \phi - \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t}, \quad \mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{A} + \nabla \Lambda.$$

Recall that the Hamiltonian of a charged particle in ${\bf E}$ and ${\bf B}$ is

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\mathbf{p} - q\mathbf{A} \right)^2 + q\phi,$$

Note that \mathbf{p} , the canonical momentum is not gauge invariant; instead, we use $\mathbf{p}-q\mathbf{A}$ as our **kinematic momentum** (Sakurai 2.7)

Gauge invariance in QM We make the following transformations to promote the canonical momenta to the kinematic momenta:

$$\mathbf{p} \to \mathbf{p} - q\mathbf{A}, \quad \frac{\hbar}{i} \nabla \to \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \nabla - q\mathbf{A}\right).$$

We claim that the Schrodinger's equation is gauge invariant if

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow e^{iq\Lambda/\hbar} |\psi\rangle$$
, $q \quad \phi \rightarrow \phi - \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial t}$, $\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A} + \nabla \Lambda$.

Aharnov-Bohm Effect Consider two paths around an infinitely long solenoid. Consider two gauges:

- (a) $\mathbf{A} = 0$, with $|\psi\rangle_{\mathbf{A}=0}$.
- (b) $\mathbf{A} = \nabla \Lambda \implies \Lambda = \int_{\mathbf{r}_0}^{\mathbf{r}} d\mathbf{r}' \cdot \mathbf{A}$.

Since wavefunctions in different gauges are related by a phase factor given above, we can write

$$|\psi\rangle_{\mathbf{A}} = \exp\left[\frac{iq}{\hbar} \int_{r_0}^r d\mathbf{r}' \cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}')\right] |\psi\rangle_{\mathbf{A}=0}.$$

Hence, if we were to split the original beam and evolve, then recombine, the norm becomes

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle \cos^2 \left(\frac{q\Phi}{2\hbar} \right).$$