

Dual Spaces:

As with any vector space, the dual H^* of a Hilbert space H is the space of linear maps $H \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. That is an element $\varphi \in H^*$ defines a map Ψ

$$\varphi: a\psi_1 + b\psi_2 \rightarrow a\varphi(\psi_1) + b\varphi(\psi_2) \text{ for all } \psi_1, \psi_2 \in H \text{ and } a, b \in \mathbb{C}.$$

One way to construct such a map is to use the inner product: given some state $\phi \in H$, we can define an element $(\phi, \cdot) \in H^*$ which acts by

$$(\phi, \cdot) : \Psi \rightarrow (\phi, \Psi)$$

i.e., we take the inner product of $\Psi \in H$ with our chosen element ϕ . The linearity property of the inner product transfers to ensure that (ϕ, \cdot) is indeed a linear map. — note that since the inner product is antilinear in its first entry, it is important that our chosen element ϕ sits in the first entry.

It is to be noted that any linear map $\varphi: H \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ can be written as (ϕ, \cdot) for some fixed choice of ϕ .

This fact also holds true for infinite dimensional systems, but not trivially so. This turns via something called Riesz representation Theorem.

Dirac notation and continuum states

From now on, in this course we will use a notation for Hilbert space which was formalized by P.A.M. Dirac. It is the standard notation for any quantum mechanics course.

Any element in Hilbert space \mathcal{H} is denoted by the ket vector $\rightarrow |\psi\rangle$.

Any element of the dual space \mathcal{H}^* is denoted by the Bra vector $\rightarrow |\phi\rangle$

The inner product is written as $\rightarrow \langle \phi | \psi \rangle$
Given an orthogonal and normalized basis $\{|e_a\rangle\}$ of \mathcal{H} , we have

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_a \psi_a |e_a\rangle$$

for any vector $|\psi\rangle$ in the Hilbert space \mathcal{H} .

If $|x\rangle = \sum_b x_b |e_b\rangle$, then we have the inner product

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x | \psi \rangle &= \sum_{ab} \bar{x}_b \psi_a \langle e_b | e_a \rangle \\ &= \sum_{ab} \bar{x}_b \psi_a \delta_{ab} = \sum_a \bar{x}_a \psi_a \end{aligned}$$

It is very useful to be able to extend this idea also to function spaces. In this case, we introduce a 'continuum basis' with element $|a\rangle$ labeled by a continuous variable a , so

$$\langle a' | a \rangle = \delta(a' - a) \rightarrow \text{Dirac Delta func}$$

Then we can write

$$|\psi\rangle = \int \psi(a) |a\rangle da$$

to expand $|\psi\rangle$ in terms of $|a\rangle$

Therefore we have

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x|\psi\rangle &= \int \bar{x}(b) \psi(a) \langle b|a\rangle da db \\ &= \int \psi(a) da \int \bar{x}(b) \delta(b-a) db.\end{aligned}$$

We know $\int f(b) \delta(b-a) db = f(a)$.

∴ we have $\langle x|\psi\rangle = \int \bar{x}(a) \psi(a) da$

This is just the inner product extended to a continuum basis.

Expanding a general state $|\psi\rangle$ as an integral

$$|\psi\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi(x') |x'\rangle dx'$$

we see that the complex co-efficients are

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x|\psi\rangle &= \int \psi(x') \langle x|x'\rangle dx' \\ &= \int \psi(x') \delta(x-x') dx' \\ &= \psi(x)\end{aligned}$$

Again we could expand this same vector in any number of different basis. For example we could choose the momentum basis $|p\rangle$ and expand

$$|\psi\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \tilde{\psi}(p) |p\rangle dp.$$

here $\tilde{\psi}(p) = \langle p|\psi\rangle$ is the momentum space wave function just as $\psi(x) = \langle x|\psi\rangle$ is the position space wave function.

Later we will show that $\langle x | p \rangle = e^{ixp/\hbar} / \sqrt{2\pi\hbar}$,
so these two co-efficients are related by

$$\langle x | \psi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \tilde{\psi}(p) \langle x | p \rangle dp = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{ixp/\hbar} \tilde{\psi}(p) dp$$

$$\langle p | \psi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}} \psi(x) \langle p | x \rangle dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-ixp/\hbar} \psi(x) dx$$

Therefore the position space wave function and the momentum space wavefunction are related via Fourier transformation.

The real point is that the fundamental object is the abstract vector $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{F}$. All the physical information is encoded in its state vector $|\psi\rangle$.

The wavefunctions $\psi(x)$ or $\tilde{\psi}(p)$ are merely the expansion coefficients in some basis.
Like any other choice of basis, this expansion may be useful of some purposes and unhelpful for others.

Operations :

A linear operator is a map $A: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ that is compatible with the vector space structure in the sense that

$$A(\alpha_1|\psi_1\rangle + \alpha_2|\psi_2\rangle) = \alpha_1 A|\psi_1\rangle + \alpha_2 A|\psi_2\rangle$$

All the operators we use in quantum mechanics are linear. Operators form an algebra.

Given two operators A and B , we define their sum $\alpha A + \beta B$ as

$$(\alpha A + \beta B): |\psi\rangle = \alpha A|\psi\rangle + \beta B|\psi\rangle$$

for all $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, and take their product AB to be the composition

$$AB: |\psi\rangle \rightarrow A(B|\psi\rangle) = A(B|\psi\rangle)$$

for all $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$.

The sum and product of two linear operators is again a linear operator.

The operator ~~and~~ algebra is associative
i.e. $A(BC) = (AB)C$, but not commutative
i.e. $AB \neq BA$ in general.

The difference between the two actions is known as the commutator

$$[A, B] = AB - BA$$

The commutator obeys the following properties.

$$\text{antisymmetry: } [A, B] = -[B, A].$$

$$\text{linearity: } [\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2, B] = \alpha [A_1, B] + \beta [A_2, B]$$

$$\text{Leibniz identity: } [A, BC] = [A, B]C + B[A, C]$$

$$\text{Jacobi identity: } [A, [B, C]] + [B, [C, A]] + [C, [A, B]] = 0.$$

A state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ is said to be an eigenstate of an operator A if

$$A|\psi\rangle = a_\psi |\psi\rangle \text{ with } a_\psi \in \mathbb{C}$$

a_ψ is known as eigenvalue and $|\psi\rangle$ is the eigenvector of A .

The set of all eigenvalues of an operator A is called the spectrum of A .

while the number of linearly independent eigenstates (eigenvectors) is called the degeneracy of this eigenvalue.

The operation : A^\dagger means transposition
+ complex conjugation

$$\langle \phi | A^\dagger | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | A | \phi \rangle^*$$

$$(A + B)^\dagger = A^\dagger + B^\dagger \quad |\psi\rangle^\dagger = \langle \psi |$$

$$(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$$

$$(\alpha A)^\dagger = \bar{\alpha} A^\dagger$$

$$(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$$

$$[A, B]^\dagger = - [A^\dagger, B^\dagger]$$

Note : The adjoint equation of $A|\psi\rangle = a_\psi |\psi\rangle$

$$\text{is } \langle \psi | A^\dagger = \langle \psi | \bar{a}_\psi$$

An operator \mathcal{G} is called Hermitian if

$$\mathcal{G}^\dagger = \mathcal{G}, \text{ so that } \langle \phi | \mathcal{G} | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \mathcal{G} | \phi \rangle^*$$

Hermitian operators are very special in QM and ~~have~~ have some important properties

i) The eigenvalues of hermitian operators are real.

Short proof. Let \mathcal{O} be a hermitian operator with eigenvector $|q\rangle$ such that

$$\mathcal{O}|q\rangle = \alpha|q\rangle \text{ and } \langle q|\mathcal{O} = \langle q|\bar{\alpha}$$

Now we know $\langle q|\mathcal{O}|q\rangle = \langle q|\mathcal{O}|q\rangle^*$.
since $\mathcal{O}^* = \mathcal{O}$.

Therefore $\alpha\langle q|q\rangle = \bar{\alpha}\langle q|q\rangle$

which gives $\alpha = \bar{\alpha}$

Secondly suppose $|q_1\rangle$ and $|q_2\rangle$ are both eigenstates of \mathcal{O} , having distinct eigenvalues α_1 and α_2 .

Therefore $\langle \alpha_1 | \mathcal{O}^* | \alpha_2 \rangle = \langle \alpha_2 | \mathcal{O} | \alpha_1 \rangle^* = \langle \alpha_1 | \mathcal{O} | \alpha_2 \rangle$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 \langle \alpha_1 | \alpha_2 \rangle - \alpha_2 \langle \alpha_1 | \alpha_2 \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) \langle \alpha_1 | \alpha_2 \rangle = 0.$$

Now $\alpha_1 \neq \alpha_2$, therefore $\langle \alpha_1 | \alpha_2 \rangle = 0$

So eigenstates of distinct eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator, are orthogonal.

In finite dimension, the set of eigenvectors of a given Hermitian operator form a basis of \mathcal{H} . i.e. they form a complete orthonormal set.

This property allows us to express Hermitian operators in a very useful form.

If, $\{|m\rangle\}$ is the set of orthonormal basis of a Hermitian operator \mathcal{Q} with eigenvalues $\{\alpha_m\}$, then we can write

$$\mathcal{Q} = \sum_n \alpha_n |m\rangle \langle m|$$

↳ Spectral decomposition

If $|\psi\rangle$ be a vector with $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\mathcal{Q}|\psi\rangle = \sum_n \alpha_n |m\rangle \langle m|\psi\rangle$$

Note that $\mathcal{Q}|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, since $\langle m|\psi\rangle$ is just a complex number, whereas each of the terms involves a $|m\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$.

In particular, expressing $|\psi\rangle$ in this basis

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_m c_m |m\rangle$$
 gives

$$\mathcal{Q}|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n,m} \alpha_n c_m |m\rangle \langle m| |m\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{n,m} \alpha_n c_m \delta_{mn}$$

$$= \sum_n \alpha_n c_n$$

One reason this representation of \mathcal{G} is useful since it allows us to define functions of operators.

We set $f(\mathcal{G}) = \sum_n f(a_n) |n\rangle\langle n|$

Example : $f(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{G}^{-1} = \sum_n \frac{1}{a_n} |n\rangle\langle n|$.

which makes sense, provided $a_n \neq 0 \forall n$.

whereas $f(\mathcal{G}) = \ln(\mathcal{G}) = \sum_n \ln a_n |n\rangle\langle n|$.

which is meaningful when $a_n > 0 \forall n$.

Representation of identity operators :

The identity operator I_H on H is

$$I_H = \sum_n |n\rangle\langle n| \quad \text{or} \quad I_H = \int |q\rangle\langle q| dq$$

Example :

Let $\{|P\rangle\}$ denotes a complete set of eigenstates of the momentum operator P , with $P|P\rangle = p|P\rangle$

Then we have,

$$P|\psi\rangle = \int P|P\rangle\langle P|\psi\rangle dp \quad [\int |P\rangle\langle P| dp = I_H]$$

Now

$$\langle n|P|\psi\rangle = \int \underbrace{\langle n|P|P\rangle\langle P|\psi\rangle}_{\hat{\Psi}(P)} dp$$

$$= \int P\langle n|P\rangle \hat{\Psi}(P) dp$$

$$= \int P e^{ipx/\hbar} \hat{\Psi}(P) dp$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int \frac{e^{ipx/\hbar}}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \hat{\Psi}(P) dp \right]$$

Here we first use the property $\int P \langle P | Q \rangle dP = I_{\mathcal{H}}$
and then use a standard property of
Fourier transformation. (Don't worry about
it if you do not remember Fourier trans.)

Furthermore we have,

$$\langle x | P | y \rangle = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \langle x | y \rangle$$

Commutator identity:

\equiv

i) Anti-symmetry : $[A; B] = -[B, A]$

Proof : $[A, B] = AB - BA = -(BA - AB) = -[B, A]$
(Proved)

ii) Linearity : $[\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2, B] = \alpha [A_1, B] + \beta [A_2, B]$

Proof : $[\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2, B]$

$$= (\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2) B - B (\alpha A_1 + \beta A_2)$$

$$= \alpha A_1 B + \beta A_2 B - \alpha B A_1 - \beta B A_2$$

$$= \alpha (A_1 B - B A_1) + \beta (A_2 B - B A_2)$$

$$= \alpha [A_1, B] + \beta [A_2, B]$$

(Proved)

iii) Leibniz identity : $[A, BC] = [A, B]C + B[A, C]$

Proof : $[A, BC] = ABC - BCA$

$$= ABC - BAC + BAC - BCA$$

$$= (AB - BA)C + B(AC - CA)$$

$$= [A, B]C + B[A, C]$$

(Proved)

$$\text{Jacobi identity : } [A, [B, C]] + [B, [C, A]] \\ + [C, [A, B]] = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof : } & [A, [B, C]] + [B, [C, A]] + [C, [A, B]] \\ &= [A, (BC - CB)] + [B, (CA - AC)] + [C, (AB - BA)] \\ &= A(BC - CB) - (BC - CB)A + B(CA - AC) - (CA - AC)B \\ &\quad + C(AB - BA) - (AB - BA)C \\ &= AB'C - A'CB - BC'A + CBA + BA'C - BAC - C'AB + A'CB \\ &\quad + CAB - CB'A - ABC + BAC \\ &= 0 \quad (\text{Proved}) . \end{aligned}$$

Function of Hermitian operators.

i) \mathcal{G} be a Hermitian operator:

with spectral representation $\mathcal{G} = \sum_i \alpha_i |i\rangle\langle i|$.

Therefore $\mathcal{G}^{-1} = \sum_i \alpha_i^{-1} |i\rangle\langle i|$.

Consequence: Non-full rank K matrices do not have inverse.

$$\text{ii)} \quad \exp(\mathcal{G}) = \sum_i \exp(\alpha_i) |i\rangle\langle i|.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Proof: } \exp(x) &= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \exp(\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{I} + \mathcal{G} + \frac{\mathcal{G} \cdot \mathcal{G}}{2!} + \frac{\mathcal{G} \mathcal{G} \mathcal{G}}{3!} + \dots$$

$$= \mathbb{I} + \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i |i\rangle\langle i| + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_i \alpha_i |i\rangle\langle i| \left(\sum_j \alpha_j |j\rangle\langle j| \right)$$

+ ...

$$= \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| + \sum_i \alpha_i |i\rangle\langle i| + \sum_i \frac{\alpha_i^2}{2!} |i\rangle\langle i|$$

+ ...

$$= \sum_i \left(1 + \alpha_i + \frac{\alpha_i^2}{2!} + \frac{\alpha_i^3}{3!} + \dots \right) |i\rangle\langle i|$$

$$= \sum_i \exp(\alpha_i) |i\rangle\langle i|$$

(Proved).