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# **Chapter 4 :** The Mathematical Structure of Quantum Mechanics



These objects are called "kets", and this type of notation is known as Dirac notation.

## **Linear Vector Spaces**

- A linear vector space V is a set of elements  $|a\rangle$ ,  $|b\rangle$ ,  $|c\rangle$  called vectors, or kets, for which the following hold:
- ≻ V is closed under addition. This means that if two vectors  $|a\rangle$ ,  $|b\rangle$  belong to V, then so does their sum  $|a\rangle + |b\rangle$
- A vector  $|a\rangle$  can be multiplied by a scalar  $\alpha$  to yield a new, well-defined vector  $\alpha |a\rangle$  that belongs to V
- > Vector addition is commutative:  $|a\rangle + |b\rangle = |b\rangle + |a\rangle$
- > Vector addition is associative:  $|a\rangle + (|b\rangle + |c\rangle) = (|a\rangle + |b\rangle) + |c\rangle$

There exists a unique element called 0 that satisfies  $|a\rangle + 0 = |a\rangle$  for every  $|a\rangle$  in V

 $\succ$  There exists an identity element in V such that  $I |a\rangle = |a\rangle$  for every vector in V

Scalar multiplication is associative:  $(\alpha\beta)||a\rangle = \alpha(\beta|a\rangle)$ 

Scalar multiplication is linear:

$$\alpha(||a\rangle + |b\rangle) = \alpha |a\rangle + \alpha |b\rangle, \quad (\alpha + \beta) |a\rangle = \alpha |a\rangle + \beta |a\rangle$$

For each  $|a\rangle$  in V, there exists a unique additive inverse  $|-a\rangle$  such that

$$|a\rangle + |-a\rangle = 0$$

#### What is the "Ket« or the Vector

The "Ket" is a column matrix  $(n \times 1)$   $|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\phi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} \qquad |\psi\rangle + |\phi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 + w_1 \\ z_2 + w_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n + w_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\alpha |\psi\rangle = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha z_1 \\ \alpha z_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha z_n \end{bmatrix}$$

#### **Dual Vector**

In the language of kets, the dual vector is called a "bra". Using Dirac notation, the dual of a vector  $|\psi\rangle$  is written as  $\langle\psi|$ 

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \langle \psi | = \begin{bmatrix} z_1^*, z_2^*, \dots, z_n^* \end{bmatrix}$$

#### The scalar product

Dirac denoted the scalar (inner) product by the symbol  $\langle | \rangle$ , which he called a "bra-ket". For instance, the scalar product  $(\phi, \psi)$  is denoted by the bra-ket  $\langle \phi | \psi \rangle$ :

 $(\phi, \psi) \rightarrow \langle \phi | \psi \rangle$ given two vectors of complex numbers  $|\psi\rangle$ ,  $|\phi\rangle$  such that:  $|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $|\phi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$ 

the scalar product between these two vectors is defined by:

$$\langle \phi | \psi \rangle = (w_1^* w_2^* \dots w_n^*) \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} = w_1^* (z_1) + w_2^* (z_2) + \dots + w_n^* (z_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i^* z_i$$

#### **Properties of kets, bras, and bra-kets**

To every ket  $|\psi\rangle$ , there corresponds a unique bra  $\langle\psi|$  and vice versa:

 $|\psi\rangle \leftrightarrow \langle\psi|$ 

There is a one-to-one correspondence between bras and kets:

$$a \mid \psi \rangle + b \mid \phi \rangle \quad \longleftrightarrow \ a^* \langle \psi \mid + b^* \langle \phi \mid ,$$

where *a* and *b* are complex numbers. The following is a common notation:

$$|a\psi\rangle = a |\psi\rangle, \qquad \langle a\psi | = a^* \langle \psi |$$

 $\langle \psi \mid \phi \rangle \text{ is not the same thing as } \langle \phi \mid \psi \rangle \text{: } \langle \phi \mid \psi \rangle^* = \langle \psi \mid \phi \rangle$   $\langle \psi \mid a_1\psi_1 + a_2\psi_2 \rangle = a_1 \langle \psi \mid \psi_1 \rangle + a_2 \langle \psi \mid \psi_2 \rangle$   $\langle a_1\phi_1 + a_2\phi_2 \mid \psi \rangle = a_1^* \langle \phi_1 \mid \psi \rangle + a_2^* \langle \phi_2 \mid \psi \rangle$   $\langle a_1\phi_1 + a_2\phi_2 \mid b_1\psi_1 + b_2\psi_2 \rangle = \frac{a_1^*b_1 \langle \phi_1 \mid \psi_1 \rangle + a_1^*b_2 \langle \phi_1 \mid \psi_2 \rangle}{+a_2^*b_1 \langle \phi_2 \mid \psi_1 \rangle + a_2^*b_2 \langle \phi_2 \mid \psi_2 \rangle }$ 

**Schwarz inequality:** For any two states  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$  of the Hilbert space, we can show that

$$|\langle \psi \mid \phi \rangle|^2 \leq \langle \psi \mid \psi \rangle \langle \phi \mid \phi \rangle$$

Triangle inequality:  $\sqrt{\langle \psi + \phi \mid \psi + \phi \rangle} \leq \sqrt{\langle \psi \mid \psi \rangle} + \sqrt{\langle \phi \mid \phi \rangle}$ 

**Orthogonal states:** Two *kets*,  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$ , are said to be orthogonal if they have a vanishing scalar product:  $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle = 0$ 

#### **Orthonormal states:**

Two *kets*,  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$ , are said to be orthonormal if they are orthogonal and if each one of them has a unit norm:

$$\langle \psi \mid \phi \rangle = 0, \qquad \langle \psi \mid \psi \rangle = 1, \qquad \langle \phi \mid \phi \rangle = 1.$$

Consider the following two kets:

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -3i \\ 2+i \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad |\phi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -i \\ 2-3i \end{pmatrix}$$

(a) Find the bra (φ |.
(b) Evaluate the scalar product (φ | ψ).
(c) Examine why the products | ψ) | φ) and (φ | (ψ | do not make sense.

Two vectors in a three-dimensional complex vector space are defined by:

$$|A\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\ -7i\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, |B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1+3i\\ 4\\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let a = 6 + 5i

- (a) Compute  $a |A\rangle$ ,  $a |B\rangle$ , and  $a(|A\rangle + |B\rangle)$ . Show that  $a(|A\rangle + |B\rangle) = a |A\rangle + a |B\rangle$ .
- (b) Find the inner products  $\langle A|B\rangle$ ,  $\langle B|A\rangle$ .

Let two vectors be defined by

$$|A\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\ -7i\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, |B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1+3i\\ 4\\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Find the norm of each vector.

Show that the vectors

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}, |\phi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

are orthogonal. Is  $|\psi\rangle$  normalized?

#### **Basis Vectors**

We call a set of vectors  $\{|\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle, \ldots, |\phi_n\rangle\}$  a *basis* if the set satisfies three criteria:

1. The set  $\{|\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle, \dots, |\phi_n\rangle\}$  spans the vector space V, meaning that every vector  $|\psi\rangle$  in V can be written as a unique linear combination of the  $\{|\phi_i\rangle\}$ .

$$|\psi\rangle = c_1 |\phi_1\rangle + c_2 |\phi_2\rangle + \ldots + c_n |\phi_n\rangle$$

2. The set  $\{ |\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle, \dots, |\phi_n\rangle \}$  is linearly independent

3. The closure relation is satisfied.

# **Linearly Independent**

A collection of vectors  $\{|\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle, \dots, |\phi_n\rangle\}$  are *linearly independent* if the equation

$$a_1 |\phi_1\rangle + a_2 |\phi_2\rangle + \ldots + a_n |\phi_n\rangle = 0$$

implies that  $a_1 = a_2 = \cdots = a_n = 0$ . If this condition is not met we say that the set is *linearly dependent*.

Show that the following vectors are linearly dependent:

$$|a\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\2\\1 \end{pmatrix} |b\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix} |c\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\0\\-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Is the following set of vectors linearly independent?

$$|a\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\0\\0 \end{pmatrix}, |b\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\0\\-1 \end{pmatrix}, |c\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\0\\-4 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### **The Closure Relation**

An orthonormal set  $\{|\phi_1\rangle, |\phi_2\rangle, \dots, |\phi_n\rangle\}$  constitutes a basis if and only if the set satisfies the closure relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i| = 1$$

$$|\psi\rangle = c_1 |\phi_1\rangle + c_2 |\phi_2\rangle + \ldots + c_n |\phi_n\rangle$$
 with  $c_i = \langle \phi_i |\psi\rangle$ 

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i} c_{i} |\phi_{i}\rangle \iff |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i} |\phi_{i}\rangle (\langle\phi_{i} |\psi\rangle) \iff |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i} |\phi_{i}\rangle \langle\phi_{i} |\psi\rangle$$

## Operators

- ➢Physical Observables quantities that can be measured like position and momentum are represented within the mathematical structure of quantum mechanics by operators.
- Mathematically, an operator  $\widehat{A}$  can be represented by a matrix, it is a mathematical rule or instruction that transforms one vector  $|\psi\rangle$  into a new, generally different vector  $|\psi'\rangle$ .  $\widehat{A} |\psi\rangle = |\psi'\rangle$  or  $\langle \psi | \widehat{A} = \langle \psi' |$
- > the eigenvalues of the matrix tell us that the possible outcomes of measuring a quantity represent the operator,
- ➤while the eigenvectors of the matrix give us a basis that we can use to represent the states.

#### **Products of operators**

The product of two operators is generally not commutative:  $\hat{A}\hat{B} \neq \hat{B}\hat{A}$ 

The product of operators is, however, associative:  $\hat{A}\hat{B}\hat{C} = \hat{A}(\hat{B}\hat{C}) = (\hat{A}\hat{B})\hat{C}$ 

We may also write  $\hat{A}^n \hat{A}^m = \hat{A}^{n+m}$ 

When the product  $\widehat{A} \ \widehat{B}$  operates on a ket  $|\psi\rangle$  (the order of application is important),

the operator  $\widehat{B}$  acts first on  $|\psi\rangle$  and then  $\widehat{A}$  acts on the new ket  $\widehat{B} |\psi\rangle$ :

$$\hat{A}\hat{B} \mid \psi \rangle = \hat{A}(\hat{B} \mid \psi \rangle)$$

Similarly, when  $\hat{A}\hat{B}\hat{C}\hat{D}$  operates on a ket  $|\psi\rangle$ ,  $\hat{D}$  acts first, then  $\hat{C}$ , then  $\hat{B}$ , and then  $\hat{A}$ .

#### **Linear operators**

The operators that are most interesting to us are linear operators.

An operator  $\widehat{A}$  is said to be *linear* if it obeys the distributive law and, like all operators, it commutes with constants.

That is, an operator  $\widehat{A}$  is linear if, for any vectors  $|\psi_1\rangle$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle$  and any complex numbers  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ , we have

$$\hat{A}(a_1 \mid \psi_1 \rangle + a_2 \mid \psi_2 \rangle) = a_1 \hat{A} \mid \psi_1 \rangle + a_2 \hat{A} \mid \psi_2 \rangle$$

# **Simple Operators**

We now consider some simple operators:

The Identity Operator: The simplest operator of all is the identity operator, which

does nothing to a ket  $I |u\rangle = |u\rangle$ 

**Outer Product:** The outer product between a ket and a bra is written as follows  $|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|$ 

This expression is an operator.

 $(|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|)|\chi\rangle = |\psi\rangle\langle\phi|\chi\rangle$  $(|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|)|\chi\rangle = \alpha |\psi\rangle$ 

The outer product  $|\phi\rangle\langle\psi|$  is an operator, and is therefore can be represented by a matrix. Show this for:

$$|\Phi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\3i\\4 \end{pmatrix} |\Psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\0\\i \end{pmatrix}$$

Given that  $\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle = 2$ , the action of this operator on a ket

$$(|\Phi\rangle\langle\Psi|)(3|\Psi\rangle) = 3(\langle\Psi|\Psi\rangle)|\Phi\rangle = 3(2)|\Phi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix}12\\18i\\24\end{pmatrix}$$

Show this with matrix multiplication.

#### The Representation of an Operator

The representation of an operator is formed by considering its action on a given set of basis vectors.

In a basis that we label  $|u_i\rangle$ , the components of an operator  $\hat{T}$  are found by forming the following inner product:  $T_{ij} = \langle u_i | \hat{T} | u_j \rangle$ 

When the given vector space is *n* dimensional, the components of the operator can be arranged into an  $n \times n$  matrix, where  $T_{ij}$  is the element at row *i* and column *j* :

$$\hat{T} \to (T_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \dots & T_{1n} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \dots & T_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \dots & T_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \\ \langle u_2 \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_2 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_2 | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose that in some orthonormal basis  $\{|u_1\rangle, |u_2\rangle, |u_3\rangle\}$  an operator  $\hat{A}$  acts as follows:

$$\hat{A}|u_1\rangle = 2|u_1\rangle$$
$$\hat{A}|u_2\rangle = 3|u_1\rangle - i|u_3\rangle$$
$$\hat{A}|u_3\rangle = -|u_2\rangle$$

Write the matrix representation of the operator.

#### The Trace of an Operator

The trace of an operator  $\hat{T}$  is the sum of the diagonal elements of its matrix and is denoted  $t_r(\hat{T})$ . If

$$\hat{T} = (T_{ij}) = \begin{pmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & \dots & T_{1n} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & \dots & T_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ T_{n1} & T_{n2} & \dots & T_{nn} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \\ \langle u_2 | \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_2 | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_1 \rangle & \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle & \dots & \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

then  $Tr(\hat{T}) = T_{11} + T_{22} + \ldots + T_{nn} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{ii}$ . Alternatively, we can write the trace as:

$$Tr(\hat{T}) = \langle u_1 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle + \langle u_2 | \hat{T} | u_2 \rangle + \ldots + \langle u_n | \hat{T} | u_n \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle u_i | \hat{T} | u_i \rangle.$$

By using a data from the previous example,

Find  $T_r(\hat{A})$  from  $\sum_{i=1}^n \langle u_i | A | u_j \rangle$  and show that this is equal to the sum of the diagonal elements of the matrix.

#### **Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of an Operator**

➤To each physical observable, such as energy or momentum, there exists an operator, which can be represented by a matrix; the eigenvalues of the matrix are the possible results of measurement for that operator.

➢Finding the eigenvectors is also important, for they give us a basis for the space and therefore give us a way to represent any state. A state vector  $|\psi\rangle$  is said to be an eigenvector (also called an eigenket or eigenstate) of an operator  $\widehat{A}$  if the application of  $\widehat{A}$  to  $|\psi\rangle$  gives  $\widehat{A} |\psi\rangle = a |\psi\rangle$ 

where *a* is a complex number, called an *eigenvalue* of  $\widehat{A}$ .

- This equation is known as the *eigenvalue equation*, or *eigenvalue problem*, of the operator  $\widehat{A}$ . Its solutions yield the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $\widehat{A}$ .
- A simple example is the eigenvalue problem for the unity operator  $\hat{I}$ :

 $\widehat{I} |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ 

This means that all vectors are eigenvectors of  $\hat{I}$  with one eigenvalue, 1.

To find the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix *A*, we find the *characteristic polynomial* and set it equal to zero.

The polynomial is found by considering the determinant of the following quantity:

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

where *I* is the identity matrix. The characteristic polynomial is found from  $det(A - \lambda I)$ ; solving the equation above gives us the eigenvalues  $\lambda$ . We can then use them to find the eigenvectors for the matrix.

Find the characteristic polynomial and eigenvalues for each of the following matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 10 \end{pmatrix}, B = \begin{pmatrix} 7i & -1 \\ 2 & -6i \end{pmatrix}, C = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

In some orthonormal basis an operator  $T = |\Phi_1\rangle\langle\Phi_1| + 2|\Phi_1\rangle\langle\Phi_2| + |\Phi_2\rangle\langle\Phi_1|$ .

Find the matrix, representing T and find its (normalized) eigenvectors and eigenvalues. This vector space is two-dimensional.