

QUANTUM MECHANICS

Lecture 16

The Hilbert space

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D. J. Griffiths: paragraphs 3.1

- 1 In the past lectures, we have seen various interesting properties concerning simple quantum systems.
- 2 Some of these properties are **accidentals** (such as, f.i., the constant spacing between consecutive energy levels for the harmonic oscillator); but some of them are of **general nature** (such as the uncertainty principle, the orthogonality of the stationary states ...).
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- 3 It is time, now, to have a **deeper view** of the mathematical structure of the theory, to establish more solid bases of QM .

① We have learned that the physical states are described by **square integrable** w.f.

② We have also learned that the physical observables are described by **operators**:
like $x \rightarrow \hat{x} \equiv x \cdot$; $p \rightarrow \hat{p} \equiv -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$
such that

$$\langle x \rangle = \int dx \Psi^* (\hat{x} \Psi) = \int dx \Psi^* x \Psi$$

$$\langle p \rangle = \int dx \Psi^* (\hat{p} \Psi) = -i\hbar \int dx \Psi^* \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x}$$

③ And in general, for any physical observable $Q(x, p) \rightarrow \hat{Q} \equiv Q(x, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x})$ we have indeed

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The commutative group structure requires that

- if \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} belong to \mathcal{H} , then
 $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{H}$
- there exists the null vector $\mathbf{0}$, such that
 $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{a}$ for any $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{H}$
- the sum is associative
 $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$
- every element \mathbf{a} of \mathcal{H} has its own (unique)
opposite $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$, such that
 $\mathbf{a} + \bar{\mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{0}$

The multiplication by **scalars** must be such that

- if $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{H} \Rightarrow \alpha \mathbf{a} \in \mathcal{H}$
- $\alpha(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \alpha \mathbf{a} + \alpha \mathbf{b}$
- $0 \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$
- $(-1)\mathbf{a} = \bar{\mathbf{a}} \equiv -\mathbf{a}$

❶ But this linear structure **is not enough**

❷ We have also seen that the **statistical interpretation** has to do with the integral

$$\int dx \Psi(x, t)^* \Psi(x, t) \equiv \int dx |\Psi(x, t)|^2$$

❸ In order **to deal with this aspect**, the most suitable structure to set up the theory of *QM* is the **Hilbert space**.

❹ A Hilbert space is a **vector space on the complex field** in which it is defined an **inner scalar product**; not to be confused with the *product by complex scalars* mentioned before ...

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④ A Hilbert space is a **vector space on the complex field** in which it is defined an **inner scalar product**; not to be confused with the *product by complex scalars* mentioned before ...

① The inner *scalar product* \langle, \rangle is such that, for any $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \in \mathcal{H}$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$

- $\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle \in \mathbb{C}$
- $\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{c} \rangle$
- $\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{b} | \mathbf{a} \rangle^*$
- $\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{a} \rangle \equiv |\mathbf{a}|^2 \geq 0; = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{a} = 0$
- $\langle \mathbf{a} | \alpha \mathbf{b} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle \Rightarrow$
- $\Rightarrow \langle \alpha \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle = \alpha^* \langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle$

② One of the most relevant consequences of the above properties is the **Schwarz inequality**, for which, in general, we have

$$|\langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{b} \rangle|^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{a} | \mathbf{a} \rangle \langle \mathbf{b} | \mathbf{b} \rangle \equiv |\mathbf{a}|^2 \cdot |\mathbf{b}|^2$$

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QM axiom:

- 1 The states of any physical system are described by vectors of a suitable Hilbert space.
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Basis in a Hilbert space

The vectors $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ form a basis for the Hilbert space iff

- they are linearly independent, i.e.

$$\sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{e}_i \equiv \alpha_i \mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow \forall i : \alpha_i = 0$$

- every vector \mathbf{v} belonging to the Hilbert space can be written as a linear combination of the elements of the basis:

$$\mathbf{v} = \gamma_i \mathbf{e}_i$$

where the γ_i are suitable complex numbers that, due to the linear independence property of the $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$, **are unique**.

- 1 The **number of elements** of a basis is a **characteristic of the Hilbert space**, which can be **finite** or **numerable**.
- 2 It can be shown that we can always choose a basis which is *orthonormal*, which means that $\langle \mathbf{e}_i | \mathbf{e}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$, where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker symbol ($\delta_{ij} = 0$ when $i \neq j$; $\delta_{ij} = 1$ when $i = j$).
- 3 When the basis is orthonormal, the coefficients γ_j are simply given by the scalar product of the vector with the elements of the basis:

$$\gamma_j = \langle \mathbf{e}_j | \mathbf{v} \rangle \Rightarrow \mathbf{v} = \sum_j \langle \mathbf{e}_j | \mathbf{v} \rangle \mathbf{e}_j$$

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- 1 However, a Hilbert space may (it will !) have various different orthonormal bases.
- 2 Let $\{\mathbf{e}_j\}$ and $\{\mathbf{f}_k\}$ be two of them.
- 3 Since $\{\mathbf{e}_j\}$ is a basis

$$\forall i : \mathbf{f}_i = \sum_j A_{ji} \mathbf{e}_j \equiv A_{ji} \mathbf{e}_j$$

and because also $\{\mathbf{f}_k\}$ is a basis

$$\forall m : \mathbf{e}_m = B_{km} \mathbf{f}_k$$

Therefore

$$\mathbf{e}_m = B_{km} A_{jk} \mathbf{e}_j \Leftrightarrow (AB)_{jm} = \delta_{jm}$$

which means that the matrices A and B are such that $B = A^{-1} \Leftrightarrow A = B^{-1}$.

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