

Washington University in St. Louis
Washington University Open Scholarship

Topics in Quantum Mechanics

Chemistry

Spring 2-1-2011

Vector Space Language

Ronald Lovett

Washington University in St. Louis

Follow this and additional works at: https://openscholarship.wustl.edu/chem_papers



Part of the [Chemistry Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Lovett, Ronald, "Vector Space Language" (2011). *Topics in Quantum Mechanics*. 33.
https://openscholarship.wustl.edu/chem_papers/33

This Classroom Handout is brought to you for free and open access by the Chemistry at Washington University Open Scholarship. It has been accepted for inclusion in Topics in Quantum Mechanics by an authorized administrator of Washington University Open Scholarship. For more information, please contact digital@wumail.wustl.edu.

A Vector Space Language for Quantum Mechanics

References

Quantum Mechanics, E. Merzbacher (Chem Reserve QC174.1 M36 1970).

The Principles of Quantum Mechanics, P. A. M. Dirac (Chem QC174.3 D5 1958).

Mathematical Foundations of Quantum Mechanics, J. Von Neumann
(Phys & Olin QC174.3 V613).

The inner product

Given two vectors in 3D, we can construct a *number* by forming the dot (scalar) product

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = v_x w_x + v_y w_y + v_z w_z.$$

In n dimensions where \mathbf{v} would have components v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n , this product becomes

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i w_i.$$

The vector \mathbf{v} can be thought of as a *function* $v(i)$ for which the independent variable i only assumes integer values. From this it is a small step to picturing a function of a *continuous* variable x , $v(x)$, as a vector with an infinite number of components. The extension of the dot product is

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} w(x) v(x) dx.$$

If $w(x)$ and $v(x)$ are *complex* functions, it is natural to introduce a complex conjugation in such a way as to make the product of a vector with itself be a real number. Hence we define the *inner product* of two functions $\psi(x)$ and $\phi(x)$,

$$\langle \psi(x) | \phi(x) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(x)^* \phi(x) dx.$$

All predictions of quantum mechanics can be written as an inner product of two vectors. That is, this map: vectors \rightarrow numbers is a fundamental tool of quantum mechanics.

With this definition of the inner product of two vectors we can import the jargon of vector analysis into quantum mechanics. A wave function $\Psi(x)$ is a *state vector*. A *normalized* state vector is simply a *unit* vector,

$$\langle \Psi(x) | \Psi(x) \rangle = 1.$$

Since

$$\langle \Psi(x, t) | \Psi(x, t) \rangle = \langle \Psi(x, 0) | \Psi(x, 0) \rangle,$$

time evolution leads to a *rotation* of the state vector in the (vector) space of possible states.

An *orthonormal basis set* is a set of vectors $\{\phi_n(x)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ for which

$$\langle \phi_m(x) | \phi_n(x) \rangle = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } m \neq n \text{ (orthogonality)} \\ 1, & \text{if } m = n \text{ (normalization)} \end{cases}$$

that can be linearly combined to produce *any* state vector,

$$\Psi(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \phi_n(x).$$

The expansion coefficients $\{c_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ can be determined from

$$c_n = \langle \phi_n(x) | \Psi(x) \rangle.$$

Since the column matrix

$$\Psi = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

provides the same information as $\Psi(x)$, this matrix will also be called (and thought of as) 'a vector'. If

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d_k \phi_k(x)$$

represents a different vector, the inner product reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \Phi | \Psi \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(x)^* \Psi(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{m,n=0}^{\infty} d_m^* c_n \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi_m(x)^* \phi_n(x) dx \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} d_k^* c_k.\end{aligned}$$

This may also be written as a matrix product,

$$\langle \Phi | \Psi \rangle = [d_1, d_2, \dots]^* \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}.$$

Observables

Since a measuring apparatus behaves like a classical object, ‘observables’ come from classical mechanics: position, velocity, energy, angular momentum, . . .

These quantities are usually expressed in terms of *canonically conjugate* coordinates and momenta, $q_1, \dots, q_f, p_1, \dots, p_f$ if there are f degrees of freedom in the system. Quantum mechanics associates with each classical observable

$$q_i, \quad \frac{p_i}{m}, \quad H = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m} + V(\vec{r}), \quad \vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}, \dots$$

a linear operator

$$\hat{q}_i, \quad \frac{\hat{p}_i}{m}, \quad \hat{H}, \quad \hat{L}, \dots$$

For any observable $A(p, q)$ we can construct a set of eigenfunctions

$$\hat{A}\phi_k(q) = a_k\phi_k(q)$$

that form an orthonormal basis set. The index/label k may have a continuous set of allowed values, but usually such labels are restricted to a discrete set. The expansion coefficients in

$$\Psi(q) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k \phi_k(q),$$

provide a representation of Ψ in terms of vectors associated physically with $A(p, q)$.

The Expectation

For a system in a state $\Psi(q)$,

(1) observation of 'q' (a continuous *label*) will see a distribution of values with distribution function $|\Psi(q)|^2$. Since the probability of seeing $a \leq q \leq b$ is $\int_a^b |\Psi(q)|^2$, the average (*expected*) value for observation of q is

$$\langle q \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(q)|^2 q dq = \langle \Psi(q) | q \Psi(q) \rangle,$$

just the inner product of the vectors $\Psi(q)$ and $q\Psi(q)$. Similarly,

$$\langle q^2 \rangle = \langle \Psi(q) | q^2 \Psi(q) \rangle,$$

$$\langle q^3 \rangle = \langle \Psi(q) | q^3 \Psi(q) \rangle,$$

...

$$\langle f(q) \rangle = \langle \Psi(q) | f(q) \Psi(q) \rangle.$$

(2) observation of $A(p, q)$ can only lead to the eigenvalues of the corresponding operator \hat{A} . That is, if

$$\hat{A}\phi_k(q) = a_k\phi_k(q), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

then only the values a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots can be observed. If

$$\Psi(q) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k \phi_k(q),$$

then the probability of seeing a_k is $|c_k|^2$. Thus the average (*expected*) value for $A(p, q)$ is

$$\langle A \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |c_k|^2 a_k.$$

Since direct calculation gives

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \Psi | \hat{A} \Psi \rangle &= \left\langle \sum_n c_m \phi_m(q) \left| \hat{A} \sum_n c_n \phi_n(q) \right. \right\rangle = \left\langle \sum_n c_m \phi_m(q) \left| \sum_n c_n a_n \phi_n(q) \right. \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{m,n} c_m^* c_n a_n \langle \phi_m | \phi_n \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |c_k|^2 a_k,\end{aligned}$$

the expectation of $A(p, q)$ is

$$\langle A \rangle = \langle \Psi | \hat{A} \Psi \rangle,$$

just the inner product of the vectors Ψ and $\hat{A} \Psi$. Similarly,

$$\langle A^2 \rangle = \langle \Psi | \hat{A}^2 \Psi \rangle,$$

$$\langle A^3 \rangle = \langle \Psi | \hat{A}^3 \Psi \rangle,$$

...

$$\langle f(A) \rangle = \langle \Psi | f(\hat{A}) \Psi \rangle.$$

