

# Lecture 10

## 1 Introduction to, and Motivation for, Dirac Notation

Reasons to use this notation:

- Lingua Franca amongst physicists
- Used in most books
- Emphasizes things our wavefunctions don't

However:

- It's equivalent - just a language
- We'll stick with wavefunctions in 8.04
- Today is a Thesaurus

**Note:** We've developed a lot of formalism. Today is the last pure formalism lecture - henceforth we'll be applying these tools to solve specific problems: Hydrogen, solids, classical mechanics, etc. Before we get started, let's disentangle some math from physics.

STUFF MISSING HERE

## 2 Reminder about Hermitian operators

Recall that if  $\psi(x)$  is a function and  $\hat{A}$  is an operator then  $\hat{A}\psi(x)$  is another function. Recall too the definition of the "dot product" on functions,

$$\langle f | g \rangle = \int dx f^*(x) g(x) \quad (1)$$

Consider:

$$\langle f | \hat{A}g \rangle = \int dx f^*(x) (\hat{A}g(x)) \quad (2)$$

Define the operator  $\hat{A}^\dagger$  to be the operator such that

$$\langle \hat{A}^\dagger f | g \rangle = \langle f | \hat{A} g \rangle \quad (3)$$

ie

$$\int dx (\hat{A}^\dagger f(x))^* g(x) = \int dx f^*(x) (\hat{A} g(x)) \quad (4)$$

$\hat{A}^\dagger$  is called the **adjoint** of  $\hat{A}$ .

*Example.*  $\hat{Q} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ . What is  $\hat{Q}^\dagger$  ?

$$\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \int dx f^*(x) \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x) \quad (5)$$

$$= \int dx \left( \frac{\partial(f^* g)}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial f^*}{\partial x} g(x) \right) \quad (6)$$

$$= \int dx \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f^* \right) g \quad (7)$$

Which, by definition,

$$= \langle \hat{Q}^\dagger f | g \rangle \quad (8)$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{Q}^\dagger = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \quad (9)$$

which means that

$$\langle \hat{Q}^\dagger f | g \rangle = -\hat{Q} \quad (10)$$

*Example.*  $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

$$\langle f | \hat{p} g \rangle = \int dx f^* (-i\hbar \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}) \quad (11)$$

$$= \int dx (i\hbar) \frac{\partial f^*(x)}{\partial x} g(x) \quad (12)$$

$$= \int dx (-i\hbar \frac{\partial f^*(x)}{\partial x})^* g(x) \quad (13)$$

$$= \langle \hat{p}^\dagger f | g \rangle \quad (14)$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{p}^\dagger = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \quad (15)$$

and

$$\hat{p}^\dagger = \hat{p} \quad (16)$$

*Example.*  $\hat{x} = x$

$$\langle f | \hat{x} g \rangle = \int dx f^*(x) x g(x) \quad (17)$$

$$= \int dx (x f(x))^* g(x) \quad (18)$$

$$= \langle \hat{x}^\dagger f | g \rangle \quad (19)$$

Therefore,

$$\hat{x}^\dagger = x \quad (20)$$

and

$$\hat{x}^\dagger = \hat{x} \quad (21)$$

Note, therefore, that:

$$\hat{x}^\dagger = \hat{x} \quad (22)$$

and

$$\hat{p}^\dagger = \hat{p} \quad (23)$$

**Definition:** Operators which are self-adjoint - in other words,  $\hat{A}^\dagger = \hat{A}$  - are called Hermitian.

Who cares about Hermitian operators? YOU DO!

**Fact 1:** All eigenvalues of a Hermitian operator are real.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\hat{A}^\dagger = \hat{A}$ , and  $\hat{A}\phi_a = a\phi_a$ . Then

$$(\hat{A}\phi_a)^* = a^* \phi_a^* \quad (24)$$

$$\int dx (\hat{A}\phi_a)^* \phi_a = \int \phi_a^* \hat{A}\phi_a \quad (25)$$

$$a^* \int dx \phi_a^* \phi_a = a \int \phi_a^* \phi_a \quad (26)$$

So,

$$a^* = a \quad (27)$$

For example,  $\hat{x} = \hat{x}^\dagger$ ,  $\hat{p} = \hat{p}^\dagger$ , and  $\hat{E} = \hat{E}^\dagger$ .

*Since all observables are real, all operators corresponding to observables must be Hermitian.*

**Fact 2:** If an operator  $\hat{A}$  is Hermitian, any function can be expanded as a superposition of eigenfunctions of  $\hat{A}$ . This expansion is unique up to phases.

$$\hat{A}\phi_n = a_n\phi_n \quad (28)$$

$$\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad (29)$$

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n c_n \phi_n(x) \quad (30)$$

Proving Fact 2 is hard; we'll take it as a mathematical fact.

*Example.* Energy eigenstates of the  $\infty$  well.

$$\phi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \quad (31)$$

$$\hat{E}\phi_n = E_n\phi_n \quad (32)$$

$$\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad (33)$$

Ditto the harmonic oscillator:

$$\phi_n = N_n e^{-\frac{x^2}{2a^2}} H_n\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) \quad (34)$$

$$\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad (35)$$

Expanding into eigenstates:

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n c_n \phi_n \quad (36)$$

Ditto position eigenstates:

$$\hat{x}\delta(x - x_0) = x_0\delta(x - x_0) \quad (37)$$

$$\langle \delta(x - x_n) | \delta(x - x_m) \rangle = \delta_{x_n - x_m} \quad (38)$$

Expanding into eigenstates:

$$\psi(x) = \int d\tilde{x} \psi(\tilde{x}) \delta(\tilde{x} - x) \quad (39)$$

Ditto momentum eigenstates:

$$\hat{p} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx} = \hbar k \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx} \quad (40)$$

$$\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx} | \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ik'x} \rangle = \delta_{k-k'} \quad (41)$$

$$\psi(x) = \int dk (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx}) \tilde{\psi}(k) \quad (42)$$

This is Fourier transform.

Another name for Fact 2 is the **Spectral Theorem**. It says that, given  $\hat{A}$ , one can find a basis of functions  $\phi_n$  so that

$$\hat{A}\phi_n = a_n\phi_n \quad (43)$$

$$\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad (44)$$

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n c_n \phi_n(x) \quad (45)$$

for any  $\psi(x)$ . This means we can find some analog of Fourier transform for any operator, not just momentum.

## 3 Dirac Notation

### 3.1 Recall Vector Spaces

- A vector space is a set of vectors:  $\{\vec{v}\} = V$
- You can add vectors to get another vector in  $V$ : Given  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2$ ,

$$\exists (\vec{v}_1 + \vec{v}_2) \in V \quad (46)$$

- Multiplying by a constant gives another vector in  $V$

$$\alpha \vec{v} \in V \quad (47)$$

- You can take a dot product:  $\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = \text{length squared}$ , and

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R} \quad (48)$$

- You can expand any vector in an orthonormal basis:

$$\vec{v} = \sum_n v_n \hat{e}_n \quad (49)$$

and

$$\hat{e}_n \cdot \hat{e}_m = \delta_{nm} \quad (50)$$

so

$$v_n = \hat{e}_n \cdot \vec{v} \quad (51)$$

- Given an orthonormal basis, you can completely specify a vector  $\vec{v}$  by giving its coordinates  $\{v_n\}$ :

$$\{v_n\} \simeq \vec{v} \quad (52)$$

**Key:**  $\vec{v}$  is a geometric object defined without any basis. Like my arm. A basis just lets us identify that object with a list of numbers.

Think about our wavefunctions.

- Can add wavefunctions:

$$\psi_1(x) + \psi_2(x) = \psi(x) \quad (53)$$

- Can multiply by a constant and get a fine wavefunction:

$$e^{i\theta} \psi(x) = \psi'(x) \quad (54)$$

- Can take a dot product:

$$\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int dx \psi_1^*(x) \psi_2(x) \in \mathbb{C} \quad (55)$$

- Can expand any continuous function in an orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions of a Hermitian operator:

$$\psi(x) = \sum_n \phi_n(x) c_n \quad (56)$$

where  $\langle \phi_n | \phi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$ ,  $c_n = \langle \phi_n | \psi \rangle$ ,  $\hat{A} \phi_n = a_n \phi_n$

- Given a continuous function, you can completely specify an abstract object “state” in terms of a set of numbers:  $\psi(x) \simeq$  ”state”

What’s the connection?

### 3.2 Change of Notation

$$\vec{v} \rightarrow |v\rangle \quad (57)$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} \rightarrow \langle v | w \rangle \quad (58)$$

$\langle v | v \rangle =$  “Length squared”

### 3.3 Let coefficients be $\mathbb{C}$ : $\langle v|w\rangle \in \mathbb{C}$

We want  $\langle v|v\rangle$  to be real, because this represents a length squared. Thus, we require:

$$\langle v|w\rangle = (\langle w|v\rangle)^* \quad (59)$$

Translation into this notation, now with a  $\mathbb{C}$  dot product:

- $\{|v\rangle\} = V$
- You can add kets to get another ket in  $V$ : Given  $|v\rangle, |w\rangle$ ,

$$(|v\rangle + |w\rangle) = |v + w\rangle \in V \quad (60)$$

- Multiplying by a constant gives another vector in  $V$

$$\alpha |v\rangle = |\alpha v\rangle \in V \quad (61)$$

- You can take an inner product:

$$\langle v|w\rangle \in \mathbb{C} \quad (62)$$

$$\sqrt{\langle v|w\rangle} = ||v|| = \langle w|v\rangle^* \quad (63)$$

- You can expand any ket in an orthonormal basis:

$$\exists \{|e_n\rangle\} \quad (64)$$

$$\langle e_n|e_m\rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad (65)$$

So,

$$|v\rangle = \sum_n v_n |e_n\rangle \quad (66)$$

$$v_n = \langle e_n|v\rangle \quad (67)$$

- Given  $\{|e_n\rangle\}, \{v_n\} \leftrightarrow |v\rangle$

### 3.4 Infinite-dimensional vector space

Now suppose our vector space is huge, so the basis has an index ( $n$ ) which is  $\mathbb{R}$ , not  $\mathbb{Z}$ . This means  $\sum_n \rightarrow \int dn$ . Rather than write  $v_n$ , it's easier to think of  $v(n)$ , but means the same thing: expansion coefficient of  $|v\rangle$  along  $|e_n\rangle$ :

- $\{|e_n\rangle\} = V$
- You can add kets to get another ket in  $V$ : Given  $|v\rangle, |w\rangle$ ,

$$(|v\rangle + |w\rangle) = |v + w\rangle \in V \quad (68)$$

- Multiplying by a constant gives another vector in V

$$\alpha |v\rangle = |\alpha v\rangle \in V \quad (69)$$

- You can take an inner product:

$$\langle v|w\rangle \in \mathbb{C} \quad (70)$$

$$\sqrt{\langle v|w\rangle} = ||v|| = \langle w|v\rangle^* \quad (71)$$

- Basis:  $\{|e_n\rangle\}$  st  $\langle e_n|e_m\rangle = \delta(n-m)$

$$|v\rangle = \int v(n) |e_n\rangle \quad (72)$$

$$v(n) = \langle e_n|v\rangle = \int dn v(m) \langle e_n|e_m\rangle \quad (73)$$

$$= \int dn v(m) \delta(n-m) = v(n) \quad (74)$$

- Given  $\{|e_n\rangle\}$ ,  $v(n)$ , can define

$$|v\rangle = \int dn v(n) |e_n\rangle \quad (75)$$

### 3.5 Apply to QM

- The state of a system is a vector in a vector space:

$$|\psi\rangle \in V \quad (76)$$

- Given any two states,  $|\psi_1\rangle, |\psi_2\rangle$ , the superposition  $|\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle = |\psi_3\rangle$  is also in V.
- Multiplying by any  $\mathbb{C}$  number gives another state  $\propto |\psi_1\rangle = |\psi_2\rangle$  also in V
- There is a dot product on states,

$$\langle \psi_1|\psi_2\rangle = \langle \psi_2|\psi_1\rangle^* \quad (77)$$

- You can find orthonormal bases on V, eg  $\{|x\rangle\}$  st

$$\langle x_1|x_2\rangle = \delta(x_1 - x_2) \quad (78)$$

$$\psi(x) = \langle x|\psi\rangle \quad (79)$$

The “wavefunction” is the expansion coefficients of state  $|\psi\rangle$  in  $|x\rangle$  basis.



- Given a basis  $\{|x\rangle\}$  and a set of expansion coefficients,  $\psi(x)$ , you can specify the state,

$$|\psi\rangle = \int \psi(x) |x\rangle \quad (80)$$

**Key:** The wavefunction,  $\psi(x)$ , is the expansion of the state,  $|\psi\rangle$  in the position basis,  $\{|x\rangle\}$ .

**Note:**  $|x\rangle$  basis is the eigenbasis of  $\hat{x}$ :

$$\hat{x} |x\rangle = x |x\rangle \quad (81)$$

Via the spectral theorem, we can find an orthonormal basis for any Hermitian operators.

*Example:*

$$\hat{p} |k\rangle = \hbar k |k\rangle \quad (82)$$

$$\langle k_1 | k_2 \rangle = \delta(k_1 - k_2) \quad (83)$$

$$|\psi\rangle = \int dk \tilde{\psi}(k) |k\rangle \quad (84)$$

$$\tilde{\psi}(k) = \langle k | \psi \rangle \quad (85)$$

How does this relate to  $\psi(x)$ ?

$$|\psi\rangle = \int dx \langle x | k \rangle |x\rangle \quad (86)$$

$$\hat{p} |k\rangle = \int dx \hat{P} \langle x | k \rangle |x\rangle = \int dx (-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \langle x | k \rangle) |x\rangle \quad (87)$$

### 3.6 New Object: the “Bra”

Suppose I have a vector  $|v\rangle$  (a “ket”). I can define a “bra”  $\langle v|$  as follows:

$\langle v|$  eats a vector  $|w\rangle$  and spits out a number  $\langle v|w\rangle$ . Or, equivalently,  $\langle v|$  is a function on vectors:  $\langle v| : |w\rangle \rightarrow \langle v|w\rangle$ .

**Note:**

$$(\langle v_1| + \langle v_2|) |w\rangle = \langle v_1|w\rangle + \langle v_2|w\rangle \quad (88)$$

$$= \langle v_1 + v_2 | w \rangle \quad (89)$$

So,

$$\langle v_1 | + \langle v_2 | = \langle v_1 + v_2 | \quad (90)$$

$$\langle \alpha v | w \rangle = \alpha^* \langle v | w \rangle \quad (91)$$

so

$$\alpha^* \langle v | = \langle \alpha v | \quad (92)$$

$\{\langle v | \}$  also form a vector space, called the “dual space”  $V^*$ . The vector space structure of  $V^*$  is inherited from  $V$ .

**Note:**  $|v\rangle = \sum_n v_n |e_n\rangle$  and  $\langle v| = \sum_m \langle e_m| v_m^*$ , so

$$\langle v | v \rangle = \left( \sum_m \langle e_m | v_m^* \right) \left( \sum_n v_n |e_n\rangle \right) \quad (93)$$

$$= \sum_m \sum_n v_m^* v_n \langle e_m | e_n \rangle \quad (94)$$

$$= \sum_m \sum_n v_m^* v_n \delta_{mn} \quad (95)$$

$$= \sum_m v_m^* v_m = \sum_m |v_m|^2 \quad (96)$$

**Note:**  $\langle \hat{A} \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{A} \psi \rangle = \langle A^\dagger \psi | \psi \rangle$ .

### 3.7 Final words

Most QM textbooks use this “bra-ket” notation. It is coordinate-independent, which is useful. Like using  $\vec{v}$  rather than  $\begin{pmatrix} v_x \\ v_y \\ v_z \end{pmatrix}$ . This makes many calculations much easier

and more compact. It generalizes to many systems we’ve not yet studied (you’ll see more of this in 8.05). We will stick with wavefunctions  $\psi(x)$  for the rest of 8.04. But now you should be able to use any QM text.

Enjoy!