

# Quantum Operators

A quantum state can be represented by a ket vector  $|\psi\rangle$ , or its Hermitian conjugate (dual vector)  $\langle\psi|$ , known as a bra vector.

If an operator  $A$  maps  $|\psi\rangle$  to  $|\phi\rangle$ ,

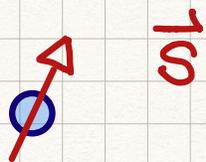
$$|\phi\rangle = A|\psi\rangle \quad \begin{pmatrix} i \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ -2i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

its Hermitian conjugate  $A^\dagger$  maps  $\langle\psi|$  to  $\langle\phi|$

$$\langle\phi| = \langle\psi| A^\dagger \quad (-i \ 0) = (0 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

## example

## spin-1/2 operators



electron

$$q = -e$$

$$s = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$S_x = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S_y = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S_z = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pauli matrices  
 $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$

It's easy to see that  $S_i^\dagger = S_i$   $i=x,y,z$  are Hermitian matrices. It turns out all observables in quantum mechanics can be represented by Hermitian matrices  $\ddot{O}$

Let's try to diagonalized  $S_y$ .

$$\begin{vmatrix} 0-\lambda & -\frac{i\hbar}{2} \\ \frac{i\hbar}{2} & 0-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \quad \lambda^2 - \frac{1}{4}\hbar^2 = 0 \quad \lambda = \pm \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

Eigenequation

$$S_y |\Delta_y\rangle = \Delta_y |\Delta_y\rangle$$

$$\frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \pm \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-ib = \pm a \quad \rightarrow \quad b = \pm ia$$

REAL eigenvalues

$$\begin{aligned} |\Delta_y = \frac{\hbar}{2}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \\ |\Delta_y = -\frac{\hbar}{2}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

orthonormal basis

Quantization of spin

$$S_y = -\frac{\hbar}{2}, \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

# Orthonormal Eigenbasis

The Hamiltonian of a quantum system can be represented by a Hermitian matrix  $H = H^\dagger$ .

Its eigenvalues are energies  $\ddot{u}$

$$H|n\rangle = E_n |n\rangle \rightarrow \langle n|H^\dagger = \langle n|E_n \bar{\phantom{E_n}} \quad \text{Complex conjugate}$$

Now we would like to show that  $E_n$  is real.

$$\langle n|H|n\rangle = E_n \langle n|n\rangle$$

$$\langle n|H^\dagger|n\rangle = \bar{E}_n \langle n|n\rangle$$

$$\rightarrow (E_n - \bar{E}_n) \underbrace{\langle n|n\rangle}_{\text{positive}} = \langle n|H - H^\dagger|n\rangle$$

Thus, it leads to the relation  $E_n - \bar{E}_n = 0$ !

Now we would like to show that

$$\langle n|m\rangle = \delta_{nm} \quad \text{for } E_n \neq E_m$$

The "normalization" part is easy - just rescale the eigenvector so that  $\langle n|n\rangle = 1$ .

Now, let's work out the "orthogonal" part. 4.

$$H|n\rangle = E_n|n\rangle \rightarrow \langle m|H|n\rangle = E_n\langle m|n\rangle$$

$$\langle m|H = \langle m|E_m \rightarrow \langle m|H|n\rangle = E_m\langle m|n\rangle$$

Upon subtraction, it leads to the relation:

$$\underbrace{(E_n - E_m)}_{\text{non-zero}} \langle m|n\rangle = 0 \rightarrow \langle m|n\rangle = 0$$

orthogonal ☺

### Note

For  $E_n = E_m$  case, the eigenstates  $|m\rangle, |n\rangle$  are not necessarily orthogonal. But, for Hermitian matrices, it is always possible to construct  $\langle m|n\rangle = 0$  so that the eigenstates form an orthonormal basis!

## Commutators

The commutator of two operators  $A, B$  is

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

If the commutator vanishes,  $[A, B] = 0$ , we call that "A, B commute".

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

The proof is straightforward ~

$$\begin{aligned} [A+B, C] &= (A+B)C - C(A+B) \\ &= (AC - CA) + (BC - CB) \\ &= [A, C] + [B, C] \end{aligned}$$

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

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

PROOF:

$$\begin{aligned} [AB, C] &= (AB)C - C(AB) \\ &= ABC - ACB + ACB - CAB \\ &= A(BC - CB) + (AC - CA)B \\ &= A[B, C] + [A, C]B \end{aligned}$$

# Baker–Campbell–Hausdorff formula

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

In [mathematics](#), the **Baker–Campbell–Hausdorff formula** is the solution for  $Z$  to the equation

$$e^X e^Y = e^Z$$

for possibly [noncommutative](#)  $X$  and  $Y$  in the [Lie algebra](#) of a [Lie group](#). There are various ways of writing the formula, but all ultimately yield an expression for  $Z$  in Lie algebraic terms, that is, as a formal series (not necessarily convergent) in  $X$  and  $Y$  and iterated commutators thereof. The first few terms of this series are:

$$Z = X + Y + \frac{1}{2}[X, Y] + \frac{1}{12}[X, [X, Y]] - \frac{1}{12}[Y, [X, Y]] + \dots,$$

where " $\dots$ " indicates terms involving higher commutators of  $X$  and  $Y$ . If  $X$  and  $Y$  are sufficiently small elements of the Lie algebra  $\mathfrak{g}$  of a Lie group  $G$ , the series is convergent. Meanwhile, every element  $g$  sufficiently close to the identity in  $G$  can be expressed as  $g = e^X$  for a small  $X$  in  $\mathfrak{g}$ . Thus, we can say that *near the identity* the group multiplication in  $G$ —written as  $e^X e^Y = e^Z$ —can be expressed in purely Lie algebraic terms. The Baker–Campbell–Hausdorff formula can be used to give comparatively simple proofs of deep results in the [Lie group–Lie algebra correspondence](#).

IF  $[X, Y]$  commutes with  $X, Y$ ,

$$[X, [X, Y]] = 0, \quad [Y, [X, Y]] = 0$$

the BCH formula simplifies,

$$e^X e^Y = e^{X+Y+\frac{1}{2}[X, Y]}$$

**Note**

The exponential operator  $e^A$  is defined by its Taylor expansion

$$e^A = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n$$

$$= 1 + A + \frac{1}{2!} A^2 + \frac{1}{3!} A^3 + \dots$$

## Momentum Operators

In quantum mechanics, the operators  $x$ ,  $p$  satisfy the canonical commutator,

$$[x, p] = i\hbar \quad \hbar \equiv \frac{h}{2\pi} \text{ (h-bar)}$$

From the commutator, it can be shown that the momentum operator is represented as

$$p = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

Choose  $A = x$ ,  $B = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \sim$

$$[A, B] |\psi\rangle = (AB - BA) |\psi\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} [x \psi(x)] \\ = \cancel{x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}} - \psi(x) - \cancel{x \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}} = -1 \cdot \psi(x) \end{aligned}$$

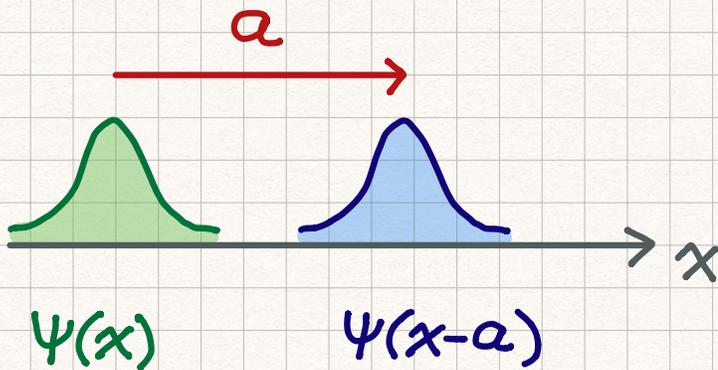
Because  $\psi(x)$  is arbitrary,

$$\left[ x, \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right] = -1 \quad \rightarrow \quad \left[ x, -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right] = i\hbar$$

By comparison, the momentum op is  $p = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$

# Displacement Operator

Let's study an interesting operator  $D(a)$



$$D(a) \psi(x) = \psi(x-a)$$

displacement op.

Shift the particle to the right by  $a$ .

Making use of Taylor expansion,

$$\psi(x-a) = \psi(x) + \psi'(x)(-a) + \frac{1}{2!} \psi''(x)(-a)^2 + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-a)^n}{n!} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)^n \psi(x)$$

the conceptual power of operator

$$= e^{-a \frac{\partial}{\partial x}} \psi(x)$$

By comparison, the displacement op. is

$$D(a) = e^{-a \frac{\partial}{\partial x}} = e^{-iap/\hbar}$$

The displacement op.  $D(a)$  is related to the momentum op.  $p$ :

$$p = i\hbar \left. \frac{dD}{da} \right|_{a=0}$$