

Hermitian Operator

In QM we use three types of mathematical objects.

- (1) complex numbers : c
- (2) state vectors (kets) : $|arb\rangle$
- (3) Operators : \hat{A}

For (1) & (2), we have "partner" ^{or "dual"} objects :

- (1) $c \rightarrow c^*$ complex conjugation
- (2) bra vectors : $\langle arb|$

⊗

There is also a "partner" object for operators. It is called the "Hermitian Conjugate Operator", and written as \hat{A}^\dagger . So we have

<u>Mathematical object</u>	<u>"partner"</u>	
number: c	c^*	} these are the objects we use in QM.
vector: $ arb\rangle$	$\langle arb $	
operator: \hat{A}	\hat{A}^\dagger	

We can write the laws of QM in terms of the "objects" or their "partners". They both describe the same thing. For example, the TDSE is

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \Psi(x,t)$$

but we could also write

$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi^*(x,t)}{\partial t} = H^* \Psi^*(x,t) \leftarrow \text{this describes the same physics.}$$

We will define ~~the~~ the meaning of \hat{A}^\dagger in a minute, but first let's discuss why it is important. Basically, when an operator is equal to its Hermitian conjugate, we say that the operator is "Hermitian".

If $\hat{A} = \hat{A}^\dagger$, we say " \hat{A} is Hermitian".

This situation is the moral equivalent of a real number, except for the case of an operator.

"Hermitian operators" are important ^{for two reasons.} ~~because~~ ~~that~~

① They always have real eigenvalues. Since observable quantities must be real, we modify Postulate I:

Postulate I For every observable A , there is a Hermitian operator \hat{A} for which $\hat{A} |n\rangle = a_n |n\rangle$
Eigenvalue Eq. in Dirac Notation

② Hermitian operators have eigenfunctions, which are orthogonal. \Rightarrow IF ~~the~~ $\{ |n\rangle \}$ are eigenvectors of \hat{A} , and $\hat{A} = \hat{A}^\dagger$, then $\langle m | n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$.

The meaning of A^\dagger

Loosely speaking, if \hat{A} is an operator which can be applied to a ket vector, then A^\dagger is the equivalent operator which should be applied to the partner bra vector:

$$\hat{A} |a\rangle \iff \langle a| \hat{A}^\dagger$$

↙ applied to the right
↘ applied to the left

Strict definition: if $|a\rangle$ and $|\beta\rangle$ are two ket vectors, ~~\hat{A} and \hat{A}^\dagger can operate on them~~

~~\hat{A}^\dagger is the operator which satisfies~~

$$\langle a | \hat{A}^\dagger | \beta \rangle \equiv \langle a | \hat{A} | \beta \rangle$$

↙ defined
↘ to the right

For all $|a\rangle$ & $|\beta\rangle$

Example 1 Let \hat{D} be $\frac{d}{dx}$ in position space.

What is \hat{D}^\dagger ?

Evaluate $\langle a | (\hat{D} | \beta \rangle)$ in position space:

$$\langle a | (\hat{D} | \beta \rangle) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_a^*(x) \frac{d}{dx} \psi_\beta(x) dx = \left(\psi_a^*(x) \psi_\beta(x) \right)_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\frac{d}{dx} \psi_a^*(x) \right) \psi_\beta(x) dx$$

0-0, if ψ_a & ψ_β are normalizable.

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{d}{dx} \psi_a^*(x) \right) \psi_\beta(x) dx$$

$$\equiv \langle a | \hat{D}^\dagger | \beta \rangle \text{ by definition of } \hat{D}^\dagger$$

The def. is confusing because it is legal to apply a Hermitian conjugate to a ket state: $A^\dagger | \beta \rangle$ is legal. But the def. of A^\dagger , it sets up what to the bra: $\langle a | A^\dagger$ is applied, we sometimes move the operator inside the bra or ket symbol. To keep track of which way the operator is applied, we sometimes move the operator inside the bra or ket symbol. $A^\dagger | \beta \rangle \equiv \langle A^\dagger \beta \rangle$ $\langle a | A^\dagger \equiv \langle A^\dagger a |$

partners

$$\therefore \hat{D}^+ = -\frac{d}{dx} \iff \hat{D} = \frac{d}{dx}$$

Since $\hat{D}^+ \neq \hat{D}$, \hat{D} is not Hermitian, and it cannot represent an observable.

~~The result~~

The momentum operator \hat{p} includes a factor of (i) so it will be Hermitian. $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} = \hat{p}^+$.

Example 2 IF \hat{A} = multiplication by a number c ,

Then \hat{A}^+ = multiplication by c^* .

Proof: $\langle \alpha | \hat{A} | \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha | (c | \beta \rangle) = c \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle$
 $= c \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{\alpha}^*(x) \psi_{\beta}(x) dx$
 $= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (c^* \psi_{\alpha}(x))^* \psi_{\beta}(x) dx$

by def. of \hat{A}^+
 $\equiv \langle \alpha | \hat{A}^+ | \beta \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\psi_{\alpha}(x) \hat{A}^+)^* \psi_{\beta}(x) dx$

$\therefore \hat{A}^+$ = multiplication by c^* .

Now we prove the two important consequences of an operator being Hermitian:

Important Property

① IF $\hat{A} = \hat{A}^+$, then the eigenvalues of \hat{A} are real; $\hat{A} |n\rangle = a_n |n\rangle$, where $a_n = a_n^*$, and $|n\rangle =$ eigenvector of \hat{A}

Proof

Evaluate $\langle n | \hat{A} | n \rangle = \langle n | a_n | n \rangle = a_n \langle n | n \rangle$ by $\hat{A} |n\rangle = a_n |n\rangle$
 || by def of \hat{A}^+ $= \int (\hat{A} \psi_n(x))^* \psi_n(x) dx = \int a_n^* \psi_n(x)^* \psi_n(x) dx = a_n^* \langle n | n \rangle$
 $\langle n | \hat{A}^+ | n \rangle = \int \psi_n^*(x) \hat{A}^+ \psi_n(x) dx = \int a_n^* \psi_n^*(x) \psi_n(x) dx = a_n^* \langle n | n \rangle$

$\therefore a_n = a_n^*$, and $a_n = \text{real number}$.

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Important Property (2)

and $\hat{A} = \hat{A}^\dagger$

If $|n\rangle$ & $|m\rangle$ are eigenvectors of \hat{A} , then

$\langle m|n\rangle = \delta_{mn}$ ← the eigenvectors are orthogonal.

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Proof: $\hat{A}|n\rangle = a_n|n\rangle$ and $\langle n|\hat{A} = a_n\langle n|$ by I.P. ①.
 $\hat{A}|m\rangle = a_m|m\rangle$ and $\langle m|\hat{A} = a_m\langle m|$

Therefore $\langle m|\hat{A}|n\rangle = \langle m|(\hat{A}|n\rangle) = a_n\langle m|n\rangle$

$\langle m|\hat{A}|n\rangle = a_m\langle m|n\rangle$

$\therefore a_m\langle m|n\rangle = a_n\langle m|n\rangle$

$(a_m - a_n)\langle m|n\rangle = 0$.

Three

two cases (1) $a_m \neq a_n$. Then $\langle m|n\rangle = 0$.

(2) $a_m = a_n$:

(1) $m = n$. Thus we have $(a_m - a_m)\langle m|m\rangle = 0$

If $|m\rangle$ is normalized, $\langle m|m\rangle = 1$.

(2) $m \neq n$, $a_m \neq a_n$. Thus

$(a_m - a_n)\langle m|n\rangle = 0$
 $\times 0 \quad \underbrace{\quad}_0$

$\langle m|n\rangle = 0$

(3) $m \neq n$, but $a_m = a_n$.

In this case two different states $|m\rangle$ & $|n\rangle$ have the same eigenvalue. We call this situation "degenerate eigenstates"

In the case of degenerate eigenstates, it turns out that we can make linear combinations of the states which are orthogonal. We'll ignore this detail and jump straight to the conclusion.

$\langle m | n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$ For ~~any~~ the eigenstates of a Hermitian operator

Orthogonal

The Uncertainty Principle

In Quantum Mechanics, we have compatible observables & incompatible observables.

Compatible Observables can have eigenstates in common.
Measuring the eigenvalues for these states does not ~~obscure~~ disturb them.

Ex: Momentum & Energy of the free particle

$$\text{If } \psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx}, \text{ then } p = \hbar k \text{ \& } E = \frac{(\hbar k)^2}{2m}$$

Algebraically, it doesn't matter which operator we apply first:

no uncertainty

$$\hat{p} \hat{H}_{\text{free}} |k\rangle = p E |k\rangle = \hat{H}_{\text{free}} \hat{p} |k\rangle$$

$$\hat{p} \hat{H}_{\text{free}} - \hat{H}_{\text{free}} \hat{p} = [\hat{p}, \hat{H}_{\text{free}}], \text{ then } [\hat{p}, \hat{H}_{\text{free}}] |k\rangle = 0$$

If we
define

the
commutator

In fact, on Exam #1 you proved that

$$[\hat{p}, \hat{H}_{\text{free}}] = 0 \text{ always}$$

Incompatible Observables can never have an eigenfunction in common.

Ex: position & momentum.

If we measure x , p becomes infinitely uncertain

$$\psi(x) = \delta(x-x'), \quad \phi(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ikx'} \quad \uparrow \text{all } k.$$

If we measure p , x becomes infinitely uncertain:

$$\phi(k) = \delta(k - k'), \quad \psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{ik'x}$$

all x from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$.

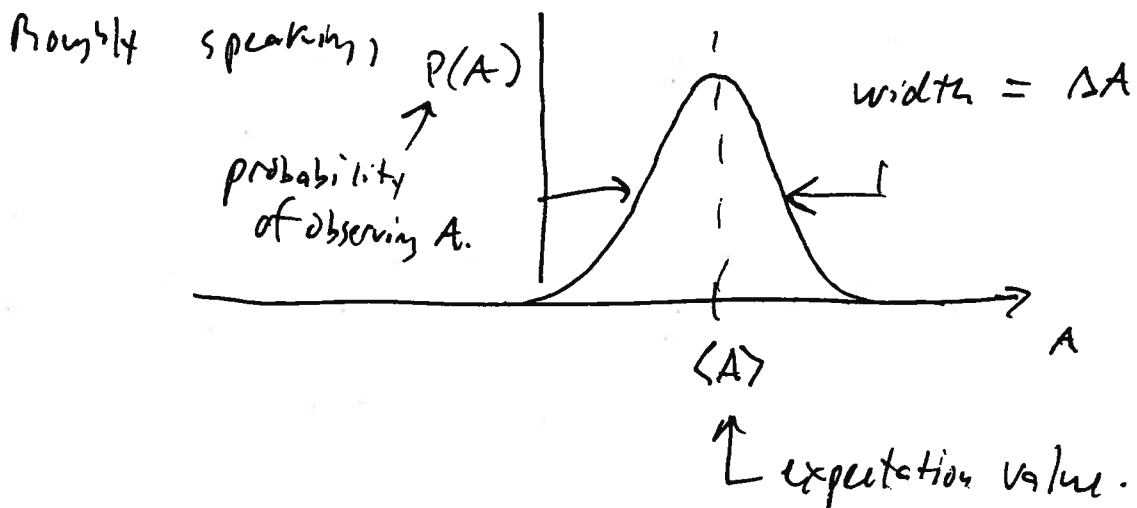
(This is Homework #4 Question #1)

Algebraically, applying \hat{x} to a function followed by \hat{p} is not the same as \hat{p} followed by \hat{x} .

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = \hat{x}\hat{p} - \hat{p}\hat{x} = i\hbar \text{ from Homework #4} \neq 0.$$

For any two incompatible observables, there will be an uncertainty relation in QM which states how well you can minimize the combined "spread" in the two variables.

Notation Recall that we use σ_A or ΔA to represent the RMS spread in variable A .



$$\Delta A = \sqrt{\langle A^2 \rangle - \langle A \rangle^2}$$

In QM, for a state $|\psi\rangle$, $\langle A \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle$ by postulate II

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

So $\Delta A = \sqrt{\langle \psi | \hat{A}^2 | \psi \rangle - (\langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle)^2}$ in QM.

Similarly, for a second ~~variable~~ observable B,

$$\Delta B = \sqrt{\langle \psi | \hat{B}^2 | \psi \rangle - \langle \psi | \hat{B} | \psi \rangle^2}$$

Multiply ΔA & ΔB and you will get

Generalized Uncertainty Principle $\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \hat{C} \rangle|$, where $\hat{C} = [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]$

For position & momentum, this says $\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$
Recall $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar$ $\langle \psi | i\hbar | \psi \rangle$

$$(\Delta x)(\Delta p) \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \psi | i\hbar | \psi \rangle| = \frac{1}{2} |i\hbar| = \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

Comment

① The uncertainty principle says that

$(\Delta A)(\Delta B)$ cannot be smaller than some value, given by $\frac{1}{2} |\langle [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \rangle|$.

For a typical ~~wavefunction~~, $(\Delta A)(\Delta B)$ will be larger than the minimal value.

For the x - p uncertainty principle, only the Gaussian wavefunction satisfies the minimum uncertainty between x & p . All other wavefunctions will have $\Delta x \Delta p$ larger than $\hbar/2$.

(2) Mathematically, the "greater than" symbol in the uncertainty principle comes from the so-called "Cauchy-Schwartz" Inequality:

$$|\langle \psi | \phi \rangle| \leq \|\psi\| \|\phi\| = \sqrt{|\langle \psi | \psi \rangle| |\langle \phi | \phi \rangle|}$$

For ordinary three-vectors, this statement is:

$$|\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}| \leq |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}|$$

This is true for ordinary vectors because

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos \theta_{ab} \quad \& \quad \cos \theta_{ab} \leq 1.$$

The Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality ^{written above} generalizes this to the bras & kets of QM.

(3) If two operators commute, then $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0$,

$$\& \quad \Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \rangle| = 0.$$

Thus the observables are compatible, and there is no uncertainty principle.