

Foundations of QM

• Basic Postulates

- States in QM are vectors in a complex vector space with an inner product (called Hilbert space).

• Note: start with finite dimensionality

Make sure you review properties of vector spaces or inner products

• We write any vector as a ket $| \psi \rangle$, $| \phi \rangle$, etc.

+ This will contain all information about the physical state of the system

+ A ket is an abstract mathematical object but can be represented different ways

• The inner product takes 2 vectors $| \psi \rangle$, $| \phi \rangle$ and gives a complex number $\langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \phi \rangle^*$

+ The norm of $| \psi \rangle$ is $\sqrt{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = | | \psi \rangle |$ b/c $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle > 0$.

+ We call the LH argument of an inner product a bra $\langle \phi |$. Mathematically, it is a dual vector and means "take the inner product of $| \psi \rangle$ with the vector to the right"

• Physical states / vectors that represent physical systems

+ Have unit norm $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$

+ Are equivalent under multiplication by a complex phase.

This is, $| \psi \rangle$ is physically the same as $e^{i\theta} | \psi \rangle$

(must be an overall phase)

• We can represent vectors as matrices

+ Suppose we have N orthonormal vectors $| e_i \rangle$

$$\langle e_i | e_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \text{ and there are no more.}$$

Then our Hilbert space has N dimensions and the set $\{ | e_i \rangle \}$ is an orthonormal basis

- + We can write any vector $|\psi\rangle$ in terms of the basis

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N (\langle e_i | \psi \rangle) |e_i\rangle \equiv \sum_i \psi_i |e_i\rangle$$
 We can call the ψ_i components of $|\psi\rangle$

- + Represent each basis vector as a column

$$|e_1\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, |e_2\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \dots, |e_N\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow |\psi\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- + If $|\psi\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_N \end{bmatrix}$, $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \psi_1^* \psi_1 + \dots + \psi_N^* \psi_N$ (show it!)
 so a bra is the Hermitian adjoint (transpose conjugate) of a ket

$$\langle \psi | \equiv (|\psi\rangle)^\dagger \approx [\psi_1^* \ \psi_2^* \ \dots \ \psi_N^*] \text{ + matrix multiplication}$$

- + One Hilbert space has different orthonormal basis sets, so we can write one vector

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum \psi_i |e_i\rangle = \sum \psi'_i |e'_i\rangle$$

$$\approx \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_N \end{bmatrix} \text{ wrt 1st basis} \approx \begin{bmatrix} \psi'_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi'_N \end{bmatrix} \text{ wrt 2nd}$$

The inner product lets you find components for any basis

- Observable quantities are given by Hermitian operators in the Hilbert space. Any measurement gives an eigenvalue of the operator.

- An operator A is a linear map of a vector to a vector $|\phi\rangle = A|\psi\rangle$

- + Choose an orthonormal basis, then write A as a matrix

+ W

$$A \approx \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{M1} & \dots & \dots & A_{MN} \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } A_{ij} = \langle e_i | A | e_j \rangle$$

+ Then

$$A|\psi\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{M1} & \dots & A_{MN} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_N \end{bmatrix} \text{ (show this!)}$$

- + We call the inner product $\langle \phi | A | \psi \rangle$ a general matrix element

- The Hermitian adjoint A^\dagger is like "acting to the left"

Define

$$\langle \phi | A^\dagger | \psi \rangle = (\langle \psi | A | \phi \rangle)^*$$

+ In matrix form $A^\dagger = (A^T)^*$ = transpose conjugate

Show this using the definition!

+ A Hermitian operator has $A = A^\dagger$.

A unitary operator has $A^\dagger = A^{-1}$.

- An eigenvector of A is a nonzero vector $|\lambda\rangle$ s.t.

$A|\lambda\rangle = a|\lambda\rangle$ where a is a scalar called the eigenvalue ($a=0$ is allowed)

+ We usually label the eigenvector by the e' value $|\lambda\rangle = |a\rangle$ so a is a scalar + a label.

+ Because $(A - a\mathbb{1})|a\rangle = 0$, $(A - a\mathbb{1})$ has no inverse. Then the characteristic eqn

$$\det(A - a\mathbb{1}) = 0$$

is an N^{th} order polynomial eqn to find e' values

More than one
e' vector can have
the same e' value

+ For a Hermitian operator, the e' values are all real and the set of eigenvectors can form an orthonormal basis. (Prove this yourself!)

+ Compatible ^{Herm.} operators $A + B$ share an eigenbasis. This happens when they commute $[A, B] = AB - BA = 0$.

+ In terms of its own eigenbasis, an operator A is a diagonal matrix.

- Operators can be written as sums of dyads $|\phi\rangle\langle\psi|$

+ In terms of matrices, this is

(column) \times (row) = square matrix

+ Any orthonormal basis has the completeness relation

$$\mathbb{1} = \sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle\langle e_i|$$

You can use this to write $|\psi\rangle = \sum \psi_i |e_i\rangle$, change basis, etc

+ Any operator in a given basis is

$$A = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} |e_i\rangle\langle e_j| \quad (\text{show!})$$

and a Hermitian operator in its own e'basis is

$$A = \sum_n a_n |a_n\rangle \langle a_n|$$

- Important Example Finite-Dim States

• Spin (Angular Momentum) States

- + The operators S^2 and S_z are compatible, have e'values $s(s+1)\hbar^2$ and $m\hbar$ (s and m are quantum numbers)
- + s can be any non-neg. half-integer and $-s \leq m \leq s$ (with m changing in steps of 1). \hbar is 2011 units.

+ Then $s = 1/2$ has 2 states, $m = \pm 1/2$. Then basis is

$$|1/2, 1/2\rangle \equiv |\uparrow\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1/2, -1/2\rangle \equiv |\downarrow\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

+ In this basis, the spin operators are Pauli matrices

$$\vec{S} = \hbar/2 \vec{\sigma}, \quad \sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

They do not commute, so e'basis of S_x and S_y is

+ different

+ For any fixed

* $s = 1$ has 3 states, $|1, 1\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $|1, 0\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $|1, -1\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
and corresponding matrix spin operators

+ For any fixed s , there is a $(2s+1)$ -dim Hilbert space

• Qubits (aka qbits) are states in any 2D Hilbert space (this is the simplest example)

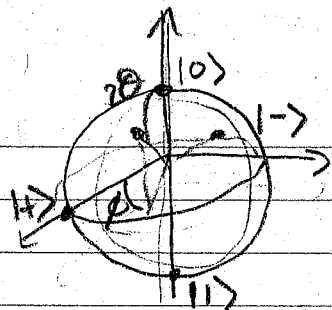
+ The "canonical" orthonormal basis is $|0\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
but other useful states are

$$|\pm\rangle = (|0\rangle \pm |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \pm 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ in original basis}$$

+ A general qubit is $|\psi\rangle = \cos\theta |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\theta |1\rangle$
for $0 \leq \phi < 2\pi$ and $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$.

This is normalized, and we chose an overall phase to make the coefficient of $|0\rangle$ real + positive

- + A qubit is a point on the surface of the Bloch sphere. The poles are where one of the terms vanishes, so ϕ becomes physically meaningless



- + Can have "qutrits" or "qudits"
- Lattice positions: Suppose a particle is stuck to one of N possible positions X_n

$$x_1 \quad x_2 \quad \dots \quad x_N \rightarrow x$$

- + One basis is e 's states of position operator $X : X|x_n\rangle = x_n|x_n\rangle$
If x_n are evenly spaced $x_n = na$, we might call $|x_n\rangle = |n\rangle$

- + We can also define a "translation operator" T_j such that $T_j|n\rangle = |n+j\rangle$. (Need b.c. such as $|N+1\rangle \equiv |1\rangle$, etc)
What's the matrix form of T_j ? Is this Hermitian? Unitary?

- When the system has state $|\psi\rangle$, the probability for a measurement of observable A to give eigenvalue a_n is $P_n = |\langle a_n | \psi \rangle|^2$ (or the sum of these for all operators with that value)

- Probability is the frequency of a given result in many experimental trials

- + In QM, this is many measurements on a large ensemble of identically prepared systems, not repeated measurements of 1 system

- + Normalization of states means probabilities add to 1:

$$1 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \sum_n \langle \psi | a_n \rangle \langle a_n | \psi \rangle = \sum_n P_n$$

- + An overall phase $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\theta}|\psi\rangle$ leaves P_n unchanged

- We can describe a probability distribution by its moments
+ The 1st is the expectation value (mean):

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \rangle &= \sum_n a_n P_n = \langle \psi | \left(\sum_n a_n |a_n\rangle \langle a_n| \right) | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

This is a "diagonal matrix element"

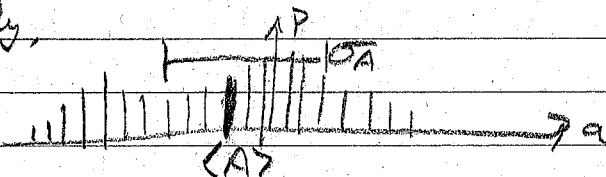
+ The 2nd moment, or width, of the distribution is the uncertainty (standard deviation)

$$\sigma_A = \sqrt{\langle (\Delta A)^2 \rangle} \quad \text{for } \Delta A = A - \langle A \rangle$$

This is easiest to calculate as

$$\sigma_A^2 = \langle A^2 \rangle - \langle A \rangle^2 \quad (\text{Remind yourself of derivation})$$

+ Graphically,



+ The uncertainty principle (Heisenberg) follows from linear algebra and states

$$\sigma_A \sigma_B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \Psi | [A, B] | \Psi \rangle|$$

for any 2 observables A & B , where $[A, B] = AB - BA$ is the commutator. (Remind yourself of the proof.)

• According to standard QM (known as the "Copenhagen interpretation"), measurement collapses the wavefunction

+ At the instant of a measurement that gives a value a_n for observable A , the state becomes $|a_n\rangle$ (or $\sum_i |a_i\rangle \langle a_i | \Psi \rangle$ for all $|a_i\rangle$ w/ a value a_n)

+ The collapse of the wavefunction is logically problematic (why isn't the measuring device or observer quantum?). We'll discuss alternatives later once we learn more.

- Time-dependence of a state $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ follows the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\Psi(t)\rangle = H |\Psi(t)\rangle$$

where $H =$ Hamiltonian operator. T

• The Hamiltonian is often the total energy of the system, and it is Hermitian. Its eigenvalues are

+ The eigenstates of the Hamiltonian are stationary states:

If $|\Psi(t)\rangle = f(t)|E_n\rangle$ where $|E_n\rangle$ is an energy/Hamiltonian eigenstate,
the Schrödinger eqn is

$$df/dt = (-iE_n/\hbar)f \Rightarrow f(t) = e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

for a normalized state. This is change only by an overall phase.

+ In general, we can write any state in the energy e' basis

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_n c_n(t)|E_n\rangle \Rightarrow c_n(t) = c_n^0 \exp(-iE_n t/\hbar)$$

So if we know the energy e' states, we can find the evolution of any state. Because

+ Because the complex exponentials are oscillatory, a general state has oscillatory properties

• Ehrenfest's Theorem: expectation values have classical time evolution

+ Consider the expectation of an operator $A(t)$ w/ explicit time dependence $\langle A(t) \rangle \equiv \langle \Psi(t) | A(t) | \Psi(t) \rangle$

+ Then

$$d\langle A \rangle / dt = \frac{i}{\hbar} \langle [H, A] \rangle + \langle \partial A / \partial t \rangle$$

The 1st term is due to Schr. eqn + The 2nd is from the explicit time dependence

+ Remind yourself of the derivation

• We can re-write a general state

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_n c_n e^{-iE_n t/\hbar} |E_n\rangle = \sum_n c_n e^{-iHt/\hbar} |E_n\rangle \\ = e^{-iHt/\hbar} |\Psi(0)\rangle$$

+ Define $U(t) = \exp(-iHt/\hbar)$ as the time evolution operator
Note that

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = U(t) |\Psi(0)\rangle \text{ solves the Schr. eqn.}$$

+ You can check by expanding that it is unitary $U^\dagger U = 1$
(proof is the same as for normal exponentials)
so time evolution is unitary

+ Any operator takes a state to a vector. But time evolution (or rotation of reference frame, etc) must take a state to a state (normalized).

So if $|4'\rangle = U|4\rangle$,

$$\langle 4'|4'\rangle = \langle 4|U^\dagger U|4\rangle = \langle 4|4\rangle = 1$$

for all states only when $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$. So it's good that time evolution is unitary \leftarrow probability is conserved!

+ We are working in the Schrödinger picture where operators are time-independent and the state evolves. Instead, we could have

1) Physical state $|\Psi\rangle \equiv |\Psi(0)\rangle$ time independent

2) Observable operators evolve as

$$A(t) = U^\dagger(t) A(0) U(t)$$

Expectation values come out the same. This is Heisenberg picture (There are other pictures, too)

+ Note: (In Schr. picture) operators + therefore their e'states are time independent. It is the actual state of the system that evolves in time, so it looks different in terms of any basis at different times.

- Time Dependence + Measurement Example: Neutrino Oscillations
This basic QM process won the 2015 Nobel in Physics

* Flavor vs Mass

+ Subatomic "matter" comes in 3 families, copies that are identical except for mass. We say that corresponding particles in different families have different flavor

+ The 1st family of leptons are electrons + electron neutrinos (very light neutral particles).

The other families are "muon flavor" and "tau flavor"

+ The masses are $m_e < m_\mu < m_\tau$, but we don't know about neutrinos, except they are all very light. In fact, a given flavor does not have definite mass!

+ Standard Model interactions always create or measure neutrinos with definite flavor but not mass

• Neutrino Hamiltonian: Consider neutrinos moving in vacuum, so we can ignore any interactions

+ The relativistic kinetic energy is

$$H_K = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 c^2 + (mc^2)^2} \approx |\vec{p}|c + m^2 c^3 / (2|\vec{p}|) + \dots$$

for very energetic particles.

(Compare to nonrelativistic expansion)

+ In transit, \vec{p} is conserved, but there are 3 types of neutrinos of different mass eigenvalues, so

$$H_K = |\vec{p}|c \mathbb{1} + \frac{c^3}{2|\vec{p}|} \begin{bmatrix} m_1^2 & & 0 \\ & m_2^2 & \\ 0 & & m_3^2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ in mass basis}$$

+ The flavor e'states are not mass e'states. They are related by

$$|\nu_a\rangle = \sum_i U_{a i} |\nu_i\rangle \quad \text{for } i = e, \mu, \tau \text{ flavor}$$

and $a = 1, 2, 3$ for mass e'states

U = "PMNS matrix" ← you can prove it is unitary

• Time evolution in a 2-neutrino model:

$$\begin{aligned} + \text{In general, } |\nu_e\rangle &= \cos\theta |\nu_1\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\theta |\nu_2\rangle \\ \text{and } |\nu_\mu\rangle &= -e^{-i\phi} \sin\theta |\nu_1\rangle + \cos\theta |\nu_2\rangle \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{like} \\ \text{qubits!} \end{array} \right\}$$

But we can redefine the states by overall phases so set $\phi \rightarrow 0$. θ = mixing angle

$$\text{In mass basis matrix form } |\nu_e\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\nu_\mu\rangle \approx \begin{bmatrix} -\sin\theta \\ \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

+ If $|\Psi(0)\rangle = |\nu_e\rangle$ is the state when neutrino is created, Ψ is

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle \approx e^{-i p c t / \hbar} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \exp(-i m_1^2 c^3 t / (2 p \hbar)) \\ \sin\theta \exp(-i m_2^2 c^3 t / (2 p \hbar)) \end{bmatrix}$$

(for when measured)

+ The probability of measuring μ flavor (ν_{μ}) is

$$P_{\mu} = |\langle \nu_{\mu} | \Psi(t) \rangle|^2 = \left| \begin{bmatrix} -\sin\theta \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \exp(-iE_1 t) \\ \sin\theta \exp(-iE_2 t) \end{bmatrix} \right|^2$$
$$= \sin^2\theta \cos^2\theta \left| e^{-im_1^2 c^3 t / 4p\hbar} - e^{-im_2^2 c^3 t / 4p\hbar} \right|^2$$

$$= \sin^2(2\theta) \sin^2 \left[\frac{(m_2^2 - m_1^2) c^3 t}{4p\hbar} \right]$$

If neutrinos oscillate, they have different masses.
(This is what the Prize was about)

+ This is often written in terms of energy $E = pc$
and distance of travel $L = ct$

$$P_{\mu} = \sin^2(2\theta) \sin^2 \left[\frac{\Delta m^2 c^3 L}{4E\hbar} \right]$$

+ This is just one example of oscillation that is ubiquitous in QM.