# Lecture 7 <br> <br> A Math Primer for Quantum Physics 

 <br> <br> A Math Primer for Quantum Physics}

In this lecture you will learn:

- Vector spaces and Hilbert spaces
- Operators in Hilbert spaces
- Basis sets


## Lessons from Electromagnetism: Basis and Representation

Consider an electric field vector:


Now change the representation basis :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\vec{E} & =E_{x} \vec{e}_{x}+E_{y} \vec{e}_{y}+E_{z} \vec{e}_{z} \\
& =E_{r} \vec{e}_{r}+E_{\phi} \vec{e}_{\phi}+E_{\theta} \vec{e}_{\theta}
\end{aligned}
$$

The same vector can be represented in different ways using different unit vector basis sets for its representation

## Lessons from Electromagnetism: Physics in BasisIndependent Representation

(1) $\nabla \cdot \varepsilon_{0} \vec{E}=\rho$
(2) $\nabla \cdot \mu_{o} \overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{H}}=\mathbf{0}$

Gauss' Law
(3) $\nabla \times \vec{E}=-\frac{\partial \mu_{0} \vec{H}}{\partial \boldsymbol{t}}$
(4) $\nabla \times \overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{H}}=\overrightarrow{\boldsymbol{J}}+\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{0} \vec{E}}{\partial \boldsymbol{t}} \quad$ Ampere's Law


James Clerk Maxwell (1831-1879)

It is better to do physics in a representation-independent way!!

## The Quantum State

A quantum state (of any particle or system) is represented by the state vector $|\psi(t)\rangle$ which is a vector in a Hilbert space

## Vector Spaces and Hilbert Spaces

Vectors (or kets) of dimension $N$ are said to form a Hilbert space $\mathbb{H}$ or belong to a Hilbert space $\mathbb{H}$ if:

1) For any two vectors $|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$ and $|\mathbf{u}\rangle \in \mathbb{H},|\mathbf{v}\rangle+|\mathbf{u}\rangle=|\mathbf{u}\rangle+|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$
2) $|v\rangle+0=0+|v\rangle=|v\rangle$
3) For any vector $|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}, \alpha|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$ ( $\alpha$ is any complex number)
4) For any two vectors $|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$ and $|\mathbf{u}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}, \alpha(|\mathbf{v}\rangle+|\mathbf{u}\rangle)=\alpha|\mathbf{v}\rangle+\alpha|\mathbf{u}\rangle)$

Examples of vectors (or kets): column vectors

$$
|v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] \quad|v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b \\
c \\
d
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Vector Spaces and Hilbert Spaces

Dual vectors (or bras) are defined as:


Vector (or ket)


Vector (or ket)


Dual vector (or bra)


Dual vector (or bra)

Dual vectors (or bras) also form a Hilbert space of their own!

## Inner Product and Norm

An inner product is defined between a vector (ket) and a dual vector (bra) as follows:

Given two vectors $|\mathbf{v}\rangle$ and $|\mathbf{u}\rangle$ belonging to a $\mathbb{H}$ :

$$
|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] \quad|u\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\boldsymbol{c} \\
\boldsymbol{d}
\end{array}\right]
$$

The inner product between these two vectors is defined as:

$$
\langle u \mid v\rangle=(\langle v \mid u\rangle)^{*}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
c * & d^{*}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=c^{*} a+d^{*} b
$$

Two different vectors are said to be orthogonal if there inner product is zero

The norm of a vector is defined as follows and is always non-negative and real:

$$
\| v\rangle \|^{2}=\langle v \mid v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a^{*} & b^{*}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=|a|^{2}+|b|^{2} \geq 0
$$

## Operators

An operator $\hat{O}$ acting in a Hilbert space has the property that it takes a vector in the Hilbert space to some other vector in the same Hilbert space

For a vector $|\mathbf{v}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$, the action of the operator gives another vector $|\mathbf{u}\rangle \in \mathbb{H}$,

$$
|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle=\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle
$$

Example: Operators are represented by matrices in the Hilbert space of column vectors

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad|v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] \\
& |u\rangle=\hat{O}|v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
b \\
a
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Exterior Product

An exterior product between a vector (ket) and a dual vector (bra) is defined as follows:
Given two vectors $|\mathbf{v}\rangle$ and $|\mathbf{u}\rangle$ :

$$
|v\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] \quad|u\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
c \\
d
\end{array}\right]
$$

The exterior product between these two vectors is an operator:

$$
|v\rangle\langle u|=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{ll}
c^{*} & \left.d^{*}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a c^{*} & a d^{*} \\
b c^{*} & b d^{*}
\end{array}\right]
\end{array}\right.
$$

To see why it is an operator, take a third vector $|\mathbf{w}\rangle$ and act upon it with the exterior product:

$$
(|v\rangle\langle u|)|w\rangle=|v\rangle\langle u \mid w\rangle=\langle u \mid w\rangle|v\rangle
$$

## Adjoint Operators

Adjoint Operator: Suppose $\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}$ is an operator then the adjoint of $\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}$, indicated as $\hat{\mathbf{O}}^{\dagger}$, is defined by the equation:

$$
\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle=\left(\langle\boldsymbol{u}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle\right)^{*}
$$

Suppose we define a new vector $|w\rangle$ as:

$$
|\boldsymbol{w}\rangle=\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle
$$

This implies:

$$
\langle\boldsymbol{v} \mid \boldsymbol{w}\rangle=\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle=(\langle\boldsymbol{w} \mid \boldsymbol{v}\rangle)^{*}=\left(\langle\boldsymbol{u}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle\right)^{*}
$$

Therefore the dual vector corresponding to $|w\rangle$ must obey:

$$
|\boldsymbol{w}\rangle=\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle \longrightarrow\langle\boldsymbol{w}|=\langle\boldsymbol{u}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}
$$

## Adjoint Operators

## Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & i \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad|u\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right] \\
& |w\rangle=\hat{O}|u\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
0 & i \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
i b \\
a
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Which gives:

$$
\langle w|=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
-i b^{*} & a^{*}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a^{*} & b^{*}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-i & 0
\end{array}\right]=\langle u| \hat{O}^{\dagger}
$$

This means that the adjoint operator is just the Hermitian conjugate matrix:

$$
\hat{O}^{\dagger}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-i & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Self-Adjoint Operators or Hermitian Operators

An operator is called self-adjoint or Hermitian if it equals its adjoint:

$$
\hat{o}=\hat{o}^{\dagger}
$$

Example:

$$
\hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right]=\hat{O}^{\dagger}
$$

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors of Operators

Suppose $\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}$ is an operator then the eigenvectors and eigenvalues of this operator are defined by the equation:
$\hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\lambda|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle$
$\underset{\uparrow}{\text { Eigenvector }}$
An operator can have a large number of eigenvectors and eigenvalues:

$$
\hat{O}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle=\lambda_{j}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle \quad\{j=1,2,3 \ldots \ldots
$$

## Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
& \lambda_{1}=+1
\end{aligned}\left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{array}{ll}
\lambda_{2}=-1 & \left|v_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-i
\end{array}\right]
\end{array}
$$

## Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues: Hermitian Operators

1) A Hermitian operator (or a self-adjoint matrix) has real eigenvalues:

Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\lambda|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}=\lambda^{*}\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \\
& \Rightarrow\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\lambda^{*}\langle\boldsymbol{v} \mid \boldsymbol{v}\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow\langle\boldsymbol{v}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\lambda^{*}\langle\boldsymbol{v} \mid \boldsymbol{v}\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda\langle\boldsymbol{v} \mid \boldsymbol{v}\rangle=\lambda^{*}\langle\boldsymbol{v} \mid \boldsymbol{v}\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \lambda=\lambda^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues: Hermitian Operators

2) Different eigenvectors of a Hermitian operator are orthogonal

Proof:
Suppose: $\hat{O}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle=\lambda_{\mathbf{1}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle \quad \hat{O}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\rangle=\lambda_{\mathbf{2}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\rangle$
$\hat{O}\left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\lambda_{1}\left|v_{1}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right| \hat{O}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle=\lambda_{\mathbf{1}}\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}} \mid \boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow\left(\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\rangle\right)^{*}=\lambda_{\mathbf{1}}\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}} \mid \boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow\left(\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}\left|\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\rangle\right)^{*}=\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathbf{1}}\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{2}} \mid \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow\left(\lambda_{2}\left\langle v_{1} \mid v_{2}\right\rangle\right)^{*}=\lambda_{1}\left\langle v_{2} \mid v_{1}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow \lambda_{2}\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{2} \mid \mathbf{v}_{1}\right\rangle=\lambda_{1}\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{2} \mid \mathbf{v}_{1}\right\rangle$
$\Rightarrow\left(\lambda_{2}-\lambda_{1}\right)\left\langle\mathbf{v}_{2} \mid v_{1}\right\rangle=0$
$\rightarrow$ If $\lambda_{1} \neq \lambda_{2}$ then the eigenvectors are orthogonal

What we just showed is that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal

What if $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}$ ?
In that case, it can be shown that the two eigenvectors $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ can be chosen to be orthogonal

## Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues: Hermitian Operators

Example:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
\lambda_{1}=+1 & \left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
\lambda_{2}=-1 & \left|v_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-i
\end{array}\right]
\end{array}
$$

## Unity Operator

A unity operator, indicated by $\hat{\mathbf{1}}$, acting upon a vector gives back the same vector:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{1}}|v\rangle=|v\rangle \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { Example: } \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Complete Basis Set

A set of vectors are said to span a Hilbert space and form a complete basis set if any arbitrary vector in the Hilbert space can be expressed as a linear combination (or as a superposition) of the vectors in this basis set

If the vectors $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle \quad(\boldsymbol{j}=1,2,3 \ldots . . N)$ form a complete set then for any vector $|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle$ :

$$
|u\rangle=\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{j}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle
$$

The smallest number of vectors needed in a complete basis set to span a Hilbert space is called the dimension of the Hilbert space

## Complete Basis Set

## Example:

Consider the two-dimensional Hilbert space of column vectors and suppose:

$$
\left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|v_{2}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

You can convince yourself that any vector $\left[\begin{array}{l}a \\ b\end{array}\right]$ can be written as:

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
a \\
b
\end{array}\right]=a\left|v_{1}\right\rangle+b\left|v_{2}\right\rangle
$$

Therefore, the dimensionality of the Hilbert space is 2

## Orthonormal Basis Set

If all the vectors in a basis set are orthogonal to each other and are normalized to unity, then they are said to constitute an orthonormal basis set

If the vectors $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle \quad(\boldsymbol{j}=1,2,3 \ldots . N)$ form an orthonormal basis set then:

$$
\left\langle v_{k} \mid v_{j}\right\rangle=\delta_{k j} \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{j}\right|=\hat{\mathbf{1}}=\text { unity operator }
$$

Any arbitrary vector $|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle$ can be expanded as a linear superposition of the vectors in an orthonormal basis set:

$$
|u\rangle=\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} v_{j}
$$

Multiply both sides by $\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{k}}\right|$ :

$$
\Rightarrow\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{k}} \mid \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle=\alpha_{\boldsymbol{k}}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow \alpha_{\boldsymbol{k}}=\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{k}} \mid \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Alternatively, we can write: } \\
& \qquad \begin{array}{l}
|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle=\hat{\mathbf{1}}|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle \\
=\left(\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right|\right)|\boldsymbol{u}\rangle \\
=\sum_{j=1}^{N}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \mid \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle \quad \\
=\sum_{j} \alpha_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \longrightarrow \alpha_{\boldsymbol{j}}=\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \mid \boldsymbol{u}\right\rangle
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Orthonormal Basis Set

## Example:

Consider the two-dimensional Hilbert space of column vectors with the following orthonormal complete basis set:

$$
\left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|v_{2}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{2}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{j}\right|=\hat{1}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues: Hermitian Operators

Normalized (to unity) eigenvectors of any Hermitian operator form an orthonormal complete basis set

Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
& \lambda_{1}=+1
\end{aligned} \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ll}
\left.v_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \\
\lambda_{2}=-1 & \left|v_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-i
\end{array}\right]
\end{array}\right.
$$

$$
\lambda_{1}=+1 \quad\left|v_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \quad \sum_{j=1}^{2}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{j}\right|=\hat{1}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Matrix Representation of an Operator

Consider an operator $\hat{O}$ belonging to some abstract Hilbert space
And suppose we have a complete basis set in that Hilbert space:

$$
\sum_{j}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right|=\hat{\mathbf{1}}=\text { unity operator }
$$

We can write the operator as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}=\hat{\mathbf{1}} \hat{\boldsymbol{O}} \hat{\mathbf{1}}=\left(\sum_{\boldsymbol{j}}\left|v_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right|\right) \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}\left(\sum_{\boldsymbol{m}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right|\right) \\
& =\sum_{j, \boldsymbol{m}}\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right\rangle\left|v_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right|=\sum_{\boldsymbol{j}, \boldsymbol{m}} \boldsymbol{O}_{\boldsymbol{j} \boldsymbol{m}}\left|v_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{m}}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

An operator is completely defined by these numbers

If two Hilbert spaces have the same dimensionality then one can be chosen to represent the other

## Matrix Representation of an Operator

Can we represent an operator, acting in some abstract Hilbert space of dimension $\mathbf{N}$, using $\mathbf{N x N}$ matrices and the Hilbert space of column vectors of size $N$ ? And, if so, how?

Start from:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\mathbf{O}}=\hat{\mathbf{1}} \hat{O} \hat{1}=\left(\sum_{j}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{j}\right|\right) \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}\left(\sum_{m}\left|v_{m}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{m}\right|\right) \\
& =\sum_{j, m}\left\langle v_{j}\right| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}\left|v_{m}\right\rangle\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{m}\right|=\sum_{j, m} \boldsymbol{o}_{j m}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle v_{m}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

Then make the mapping from the abstract Hilbert space to the Hilbert space of column vectors:
$\left|v_{1}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ . \\ . \\ 0\end{array}\right] \quad\left|v_{2}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ . \\ . \\ 0\end{array}\right]$

$$
\left|v_{3}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
. \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

In this chosen column vector Hilbert space, the operator is the following NxN matrix:

$$
\hat{\mathbf{O}} \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
. & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & \boldsymbol{o}_{(j-1) \boldsymbol{m}} & \cdot & \cdot \\
. & \boldsymbol{o}_{\boldsymbol{j}(m-1)} & \boldsymbol{o}_{\boldsymbol{j m}} & \boldsymbol{o}_{\boldsymbol{j}(m+1)} & \cdot \\
. & \cdot & \boldsymbol{o}_{(j+1) \boldsymbol{m}} & \cdot & \cdot \\
\cdot . & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\
. & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Operator Representation: Switching Basis

Consider the operator in the representation defined by the basis $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{1}}\right\rangle$ and $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\mathbf{2}}\right\rangle$ :

$$
\left|v_{1}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]\left|v_{2}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

The operator has the following eigenvalues and eigenvectors:

$$
\lambda_{1}=+1 \Rightarrow\left|e_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
i
\end{array}\right] \quad \lambda_{2}=-1 \Rightarrow\left|e_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
-i
\end{array}\right]
$$

Suppose we want to switch the representation to the basis $\left|e_{1}\right\rangle$ and $\left|e_{2}\right\rangle$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}=\hat{\mathbf{1}} \hat{\boldsymbol{O}} \hat{1}=\left(\sum_{j=1}^{2}\left|e_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{j}\right|\right) \hat{O}\left(\sum_{m=1}^{2}\left|e_{m}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{m}\right|\right) \\
& =\sum_{j, m}\left\langle e_{j}\right| \hat{O}\left|e_{m}\right\rangle\left|e_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{m}\right|=\lambda_{1}\left|e_{1}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{1}\right|+\lambda_{2}\left|e_{2}\right\rangle\left\langle e_{2}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore in the new representation:

$$
\left|e_{1}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0
\end{array}\right]\left|e_{2}\right\rangle \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1
\end{array}\right] \Rightarrow \hat{O}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
\lambda_{1} & 0 \\
0 & \lambda_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
+1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]
$$

Operator is always diagonal in the representation of its eigenvectors!!

## Commutation Relations

Operator multiplication (like matrix multiplication) generally depends on the order of multiplication

The way to express this fact is using the commutator:

$$
[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]=\hat{A} \hat{B}-\hat{B} \hat{A}
$$

Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{A}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right] \quad \hat{B}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right] \\
& {[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]-\left[\begin{array}{cc}
1 & 0 \\
0 & -1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & -i \\
i & 0
\end{array}\right]=2 i\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right]}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Commutating Operators and Common Set of Eigenvectors

If two operators commute then they both can have the same eigenvectors
Proof:
Suppose: $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]=\hat{A} \hat{B}-\hat{B} \hat{A}=0$
And suppose $\hat{\boldsymbol{B}}$ has the eigenvectors given by: $\hat{\boldsymbol{B}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle=\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle$
Then we need to show that $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle$ are also the eigenvectors of the operator $\hat{\boldsymbol{A}}$, i.e. $\hat{\boldsymbol{A}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle=\boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}^{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{A} \hat{B}-\hat{B} \hat{A}=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \hat{A} \hat{B}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle-\hat{B} \hat{A}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle=0 \\
& \Rightarrow \hat{A} \lambda_{j}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle=\hat{B} \hat{A}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle \\
& \Rightarrow \hat{B}\left(\hat{A}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\right)=\lambda_{j}\left(\hat{A}\left|v_{j}\right\rangle\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The above can be true if $\hat{\boldsymbol{A}}\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle \propto\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle$ and therefore $\left|\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle$ is also an eigenvector of $\hat{\boldsymbol{A}}$
(Proof is a bit more complicated if the operator $\hat{B}$ has a degenerate eigensubspace)

## Hilbert Space of Square Integrable Functions with Zero BC

This space contains all functions $f(x)$, defined over a space interval $L$, that obey:

$$
\int_{0}^{L} d x|f(x)|^{2}<\infty \quad \text { and } \quad f(x) \rightarrow 0 \text { as } x \rightarrow 0, L
$$

Inner product between two different vectors is defined as:

$$
\int_{0}^{L} d x g^{*}(x) f(x)
$$

Vector norm is defined as:

$$
\int_{0}^{L} d x|f(x)|^{2}
$$

The dimension of this Hilbert space is infinite!

Any linear differential operator would be an example of an operator acting in this Hilbert space:

Example: $g(x)=\hat{O} f(x)=\left[a(x) \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x^{2}}+b(x) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}+c(x)\right] f(x)$

## Column Vector Representation of the Hilbert Space of Square Integrable Functions

Suppose we divide the space of length $L$ into $N$ intervals of size $\Delta$ :


And we approximately represent every vector $f(x)$ by its $N$ values, $f_{j}=f\left(x_{j}\right)$, as a column vector in a $\mathbf{N}$-dimensional Hilbert space:


$$
\begin{gathered}
f(x) \\
\curvearrowleft \\
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{1} \\
f_{3}
\end{array}\right]} \\
2
\end{gathered}
$$

## Column Vector Representation of the Hilbert Space of Square Integrable Functions

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { 12 } 12 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . ~ \\
\hline
\end{gathered}
$$

## Inner Product and Norm



Hilbert spaces require a well-defined inner-product

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(x) \\
\Re \\
|f\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{1} \\
f_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\\
f_{N}
\end{array}\right] \begin{array}{l}
1 \\
2 \\
N
\end{array}
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& g(x) \\
& \text { § Inner Product: } \\
& {\left[\begin{array}{c}
g_{1} \\
g_{2} \\
\cdot
\end{array} \xrightarrow{\langle g \mid f\rangle=\left(g_{1}^{*} f_{1}+g_{2}^{*} f_{1}+\ldots \ldots+g_{N}^{*} f_{N}\right) \Delta} \begin{array}{l}
\text { Lt } \Delta \rightarrow 0 \\
\approx \int_{0}^{L} d x g^{*}(x) f(x)
\end{array}\right.} \\
& \text { Vector Norm: } \\
& \| f\rangle \|^{2}=\langle f \mid f\rangle=\int_{0}^{L} d x f^{*}(x) f(x) \\
& =\int_{0}^{L} d x|f(x)|^{2}<\infty
\end{aligned}
$$

## Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Position Basis



Consider the position basis:

$$
\left|x_{1}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\Delta}\left[\begin{array}{l}
1 \\
0 \\
0 \\
. \\
. \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|x_{2}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\Delta}\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
1 \\
0 \\
. \\
.
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|x_{3}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\Delta}\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
1 \\
. \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad \ldots \ldots . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . \quad\left|x_{N}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\Delta}\left[\begin{array}{l}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
0
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Position Basis



## Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Position Basis



$$
\left|x_{1}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
1 / \Delta \\
0 \\
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|x_{2}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
1 / \Delta \\
0 \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad\left|x_{3}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
1 / \Delta \\
. \\
. \\
\\
0
\end{array}\right] \quad \ldots \ldots \ldots . . . . . . . . . . . . \quad\left|x_{N}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
0 \\
0 \\
. \\
. \\
1 / \Delta
\end{array}\right]
$$

Orthogonality:

$$
\left\langle x_{k} \mid x_{j}\right\rangle=\frac{\delta_{k j}}{\Delta}
$$

Completeness:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{N} \Delta\left|x_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{j}\right|=\hat{1}_{\text {Check! }}
$$

How to represent an vector $|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle$ in this position basis?

$$
|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\boldsymbol{f}_{1} \\
\boldsymbol{f}_{2} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
f_{N}
\end{array}\right] \quad \begin{aligned}
& |\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\hat{\mathbf{1}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle \\
& \\
& =\left(\sum_{j=1}^{N} \Delta\left|\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right|\right)|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle \\
& \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{N} \Delta\left|\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\right\rangle \\
& \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{N} \Delta \boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\left|\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

## Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Position Basis



Now take the limit of $\Delta$ goes to 0 and $N$ goes to $\infty$ to get:

Orthogonality: $\quad\left\langle x_{k} \mid x_{j}\right\rangle=\frac{\delta_{k j}}{\Delta} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0}\left\langle x^{\prime} \mid x\right\rangle=\delta\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)$

Completeness: $\quad \sum_{j=1}^{N} \Delta\left|x_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle x_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0} \int d x|x\rangle\langle x|=\hat{1}$
Inner product: $\quad\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\right\rangle=\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{j}} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow \mathbf{0}}\langle\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})$

$$
\left\langle f \mid x_{j}\right\rangle=f_{j}^{*} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0}\langle f \mid x\rangle=f^{*}(x)
$$

Representation: $|f\rangle=\hat{\mathbf{1}}|f\rangle=\left(\int d x|x\rangle\langle x|\right)|f\rangle=\int d x|x\rangle\langle x \mid f\rangle=\int d x f(x)|x\rangle$

## Differential Operator



Recall that an operator takes one vector into another vector in the same Hilbert space:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{O}|f\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{cccccccc}
0 & 1 / 2 \Delta & & & & & & \\
-1 / 2 \Delta & 0 & \mathbf{1 / 2 \Delta} & & & & & \\
& -1 / 2 \Delta & 0 & 1 / 2 \Delta & & & & \\
& & -1 / 2 \Delta & \vdots & \vdots & & & \\
& & & \vdots & \vdots & 1 / 2 \Delta & & \\
& & & & -1 / 2 \Delta & 0 & 1 / 2 \Delta & \\
& & & & & -1 / 2 \Delta & 0 & 1 / 2 \Delta \\
& & & & & & -1 / 2 \Delta & 0
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{1} \\
f_{2} \\
f_{3} \\
\cdot \\
. \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
f_{N}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\frac{f_{j}-f_{j-2}}{2 \Delta} \\
\frac{f_{j+1}-f_{j-1}}{2 \Delta} \\
\frac{f_{j+2}-f_{j}}{2 \Delta} \\
\cdot \\
\cdot \\
\cdot
\end{array}\right] \\
& \Rightarrow\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{j}}\right| \hat{O}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\frac{\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{j}+\mathbf{1}-\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{j}-\mathbf{1}}}^{2 \Delta}}{\underbrace{\text { Lt } \Delta \rightarrow \mathbf{0}}_{\substack{\text { Action of the operator } \hat{O} \\
\text { viewed in the position basis }}} \quad\langle\boldsymbol{x}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Hermitian Differential Operator



Recall that an operator takes one vector into another vector in the same Hilbert space

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Rightarrow\left\langle x_{j}\right| \hat{O}|f\rangle=\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{f_{j+1}-f_{j-1}}{2 \Delta} \quad \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0} \quad\langle x| \hat{O}|f\rangle=\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} \\
& \text { Hermitian differential } \\
& \text { operator!! }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Hermitian Differential Operator

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Definition of a Hermitian operator } \\
& \qquad\langle\boldsymbol{g}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\left(\langle\boldsymbol{f}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}^{\dagger}|\boldsymbol{g}\rangle\right)^{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

Show that this differential operator is Hermitian: $\langle\boldsymbol{x}| \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}}$ Proof:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle g| \hat{O}|f\rangle= & \langle g|\left(\int_{0}^{L} d x|x\rangle\langle x|\right) \hat{O}|f\rangle=\int_{0}^{L} d x g^{*}(x)\left[\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right] f(x) \longrightarrow \text { Integrate by parts } \\
= & \left.g^{*}(x) \frac{\hbar}{i} f(x)\right|_{0} ^{L}-\int_{0}^{L} d x \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial g^{*}(x)}{\partial x} f(x) \\
= & \int_{0}^{L} d x \frac{-\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial g^{*}(x)}{\partial x} f(x) \\
= & {\left[\int_{0}^{L} d x f^{*}(x)\left[\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right] g(x)\right]^{*}=\left(\langle f| \hat{O}^{\dagger}|g\rangle\right)^{*} } \\
& \hat{O}=\hat{O}^{\dagger}
\end{aligned}
$$

Another Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Plane Wave Basis




## Another Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Plane Wave Basis



| $\left\|k_{1}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c} e^{i k_{1} x_{1}} \\ e^{i k_{1} x_{2}} \\ e^{i k_{1} x_{3}} \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ e^{i k_{1} x_{N}} \end{array}\right]$ | $\left\|k_{2}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c} e^{i k_{2} x_{1}} \\ e^{i k_{2} x_{2}} \\ e^{i k_{2} x_{3}} \\ \cdot \\ e^{i k_{2} x_{N}} \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\|k_{3}\right\rangle=\left[\begin{array}{c} e^{i k_{3} x_{1}} \\ e^{i k_{3} x_{2}} \\ e^{i k_{3} x_{3}} \\ \cdot \\ e^{i k_{3} x_{N}} \end{array}\right.$ | $\ldots \ldots \ldots . . . . . . . . . . . . .\left\|\boldsymbol{k}_{\boldsymbol{N}}\right\rangle=$ | $\begin{gathered} e^{i k_{N} x_{1}} \\ e^{i k_{N} x_{2}} \\ e^{i k_{N} x_{3}} \\ \cdot \\ e^{i k_{N} x_{N}} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

$k_{n}=\frac{2 \pi}{L} n \quad\left\langle k_{n} \mid k_{m}\right\rangle=L \delta_{n m} \quad\left\langle x_{m} \mid k_{n}\right\rangle=e^{i k_{n} x_{m}} \quad \sum_{j} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1}$
$\{n=-N / 2, \ldots-1,0,1, \ldots \ldots . N / 2-1 \quad N$ different $k$ values are possible => $N$ different basis vectors

## Another Complete Orthornormal Basis Set: Plane Wave Basis

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 12 \text {....................................................................... N } \\
& 0 \\
& \text { L } \\
& {\left[e^{i k x_{1}}\right] \quad \begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\text { Orthogonality: }
\end{array}\left\langle k_{n} \mid k_{m}\right\rangle=L \delta_{n m} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0} \begin{array}{l}
L \\
\left\langle k^{\prime} \mid k\right\rangle=2 \pi \delta\left(k-k^{\prime}\right)
\end{array}} \\
& \text { Completeness: } \sum_{j} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d k}{2 \pi}|k\rangle\langle k|=\hat{1} \\
& \text { Inner product: }\left\langle x_{j} \mid k_{n}\right\rangle=e^{i k_{n} x_{j}} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0}\langle x \mid k\rangle=e^{i k x} \\
& \text { Representation: } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
|f\rangle=\hat{\mathbf{1}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d \boldsymbol{k}}{2 \pi}|\boldsymbol{k}\rangle\langle\boldsymbol{k}|\right)|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d \boldsymbol{k}}{2 \pi}|\boldsymbol{k}\rangle\langle\boldsymbol{k} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d \boldsymbol{k}}{2 \pi} f(\boldsymbol{k})|\boldsymbol{k}\rangle \\
\Rightarrow\langle\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d \boldsymbol{k}}{2 \pi} f(\boldsymbol{k})\langle x \mid k\rangle
\end{array} \\
& \Rightarrow f(x)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d k}{2 \pi} f(k) e^{i k x} \\
& \longrightarrow \text { Fourier Transform!! }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Plane Wave Basis Completeness Relation: Proof

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \xrightarrow{L t \Delta \rightarrow 0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d k}{2 \pi}|k\rangle\langle k|=\hat{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \\
& \Rightarrow \sum_{j} \frac{\Delta k}{\Delta k} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{\mathbf{1}} \\
& \Rightarrow \sum_{j} \frac{\Delta k}{\left(\frac{2 \pi}{L}\right)} \frac{1}{L}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \\
& \Rightarrow \sum_{j} \frac{\Delta k}{2 \pi}\left|k_{j}\right\rangle\left\langle k_{j}\right|=\hat{1} \\
& \Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d \boldsymbol{k}}{2 \pi}|k\rangle\langle k|=\hat{\mathbf{1}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Operator Representations

The action of operators look very different in different basis!

Consider this operator (discussed earlier):

$$
\langle x| \hat{O}|f\rangle=\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}
$$

We need to find how the action of the operator appears in the plane wave basis:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \langle\boldsymbol{k}| \hat{O}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=? \\
& =\langle\boldsymbol{k}| \hat{\mathbf{1}} \hat{\boldsymbol{O}}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle \\
& =\langle\boldsymbol{k}| \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d \boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{x}\rangle\langle\boldsymbol{x}| \hat{O}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle \\
& =\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{d x}\langle\boldsymbol{k} \mid \boldsymbol{x}\rangle\langle\boldsymbol{x}| \hat{O}|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d x \mathrm{e}^{-i \boldsymbol{k} x} \frac{\hbar}{\boldsymbol{i}} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}} \\
& =\hbar \boldsymbol{k} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d x \mathbf{e}^{-i \boldsymbol{k} x} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) \\
& =\hbar \boldsymbol{k} \quad \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{k})=\hbar \boldsymbol{k}\langle\boldsymbol{k} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

## How to Think About Things When Doing Quantum Physics

Consider a function $f(x)$ :


1

$k= \pm \frac{2 \pi}{W}$
$f(k)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d x e^{-i k x} f(x)=W \frac{\sin (k W / 2)}{k W / 2}$
Consider Fourier Transform of $f(x)$ :

The way you should think about this is to consider $f$ a vector in a Hilbert space:
$|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle$
The vector $|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle$ is the real deal. Everything else is a representation of $|\boldsymbol{f}\rangle$ in different basis:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{k})=\langle\boldsymbol{k} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle \\
& \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})=\langle\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{f}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

## Delta Functions in 1D and 3D

A delta function in 1D has the following property:

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d x f(x) \delta\left(x-x_{0}\right)=f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$



Integration of plane waves over all space (in 1D):

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d x e^{i\left(k-k^{\prime}\right) x}=2 \pi \delta\left(k-k^{\prime}\right)
$$

A delta function in 3D has the following property:

$$
\int d^{3} \vec{r} f(\vec{r}) \delta^{3}\left(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{0}\right)=f\left(\vec{r}_{0}\right) \quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\delta^{3}\left(\vec{r}-\vec{r}_{\mathrm{o}}\right)= \\
\delta\left(x-x_{0}\right) \delta\left(y-y_{0}\right) \delta\left(z-z_{0}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Integration of a plane waves over all space (in 3D):

$$
\int d^{3} \vec{r} e^{i\left(\vec{k}-\vec{k}^{\prime}\right) \cdot \vec{r}}=(2 \pi)^{3} \delta^{3}\left(\vec{k}-\vec{k}^{\prime}\right)
$$

