

5.73 Lecture #11

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Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, and the Discrete Variable Representation (DVR)

should have read CDTL pages 94-144

Last time:

a "bra" ${}_{\phi}\langle | = \left(a_1^* \quad \dots \quad a_N^* \right)_{\phi}$

a "ket" $| \rangle_{\phi} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{pmatrix}_{\phi}$

$| \rangle \langle |$ an $N \times N$ matrix
 $\langle | | \rangle$ a (complex) #

$$\mathbb{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} = \sum_k |k\rangle \langle k| \quad \text{The "unit" matrix}$$

ψ in $\{\phi\}$ basis set

$$|\psi_i\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{\psi} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_N \end{pmatrix}_{\phi}$$

$$a_j = {}_{\phi}\langle \phi_j | \psi_i \rangle_{\phi}$$

at end of lecture #10 we saw

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \phi_i | \mathbf{AB} | \phi_j \rangle &= \sum_k \langle \phi_i | \mathbf{A} | \phi_k \rangle \underbrace{\langle \phi_k | \mathbf{B} | \phi_j \rangle}_1 \\ &= \sum_k A_{ik} B_{kj} = (\mathbf{AB})_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

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What is the connection between the Schrödinger (wavefunction) and Heisenberg (matrix) representations?

$$\psi_i(x) = \langle x | \psi_i \rangle$$

$$|x_0\rangle = \delta(x, x_0) \text{ eigenfunction of } \mathbf{x} \text{ with eigenvalue } x_0$$

Using this formulation for $\psi(x)$, you can go freely (and rigorously) between the Schrödinger and Heisenberg representations.

Today: **eigenvalues** of a matrix – what are they? how do we get them? (secular equation). Why do we need them?

eigenvectors – how do we get them?

Arbitrary $V(x)$ in Harmonic Oscillator Basis Set (Discrete Variable Representation)

The Schrödinger Equation is an eigenvalue equation

$$\hat{A}\psi = \alpha\psi \quad \text{an eigenvalue}$$

$$\mathbf{A}|\psi_i\rangle = a_i|\psi_i\rangle$$

In matrix language:

$$A^\phi = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_N \end{pmatrix}_\psi$$

$$|1\rangle_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |2\rangle_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

etc...

$$|n\rangle_\psi = \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{n'th position}$$

The ψ representation is special. We want to derive it from a computationally explicit starting point. We compute A^ϕ for a complete ortho-normal basis set $\{\phi\}$.

$$A^\phi = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1N} \\ \vdots & A_{22} & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{NN} \end{pmatrix}_\phi \quad \text{a non-diagonal matrix}$$

The basis set that we choose can be the eigenfunctions for a simplified problem or they can be computationally convenient functions.

How do we find the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of a non-diagonal A^ϕ ?

I am using unconventional notation, ϕ or ψ subscripts or superscripts, which make the meaning of all symbols explicit. (They are like training wheels on a bicycle, discarded as soon as you learn to ride.)

Some notation

$$|i\rangle_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ j \end{pmatrix}_\phi \quad \leftarrow \text{i'th position}$$

$$\mathbf{T}|i\rangle_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} T_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ T_{Ni} \end{pmatrix}_\phi \quad \text{the i'th column of } \mathbf{T}$$

Suppose we have a diagonal matrix, \mathbf{A}^ψ , an eigenvector of \mathbf{A}^ψ is given by

$$\mathbf{A}^\psi |i\rangle_\psi = \mathbf{A}^\psi \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ a_i \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = a_i \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_i$$

The following **Non-Lecture** section is a derivation and discussion of the most important and useful equation in matrix mechanics.

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\phi \mathbf{S} \left(\mathbf{S}^\phi | \right)_\phi = \mathbf{A}^\psi | \right)_\psi$$

The eigenvectors are given by

$$\left(\mathbf{S}^\dagger | \right)_\phi$$

The i-th eigenvector is the i-th column or \mathbf{S}^\dagger

Sometimes, as for a time-dependent wavepacket, you want to know how a non-eigenvector is expressed as a linear combination of eigenkets. These are given by the columns of \mathbf{S} .

$$\mathbf{S} | \right)_\psi = | \right)_\phi$$

Another very useful trick will be to evaluate the elements of \mathbf{S} or \mathbf{S}^\dagger using perturbation theory rather than diagonalization of the full matrix by a computer.

For the exact \mathbf{H} , we use perturbation theory, discussed in Lectures #14 – 17.

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}^{(0)} + \mathbf{H}^{(1)}$$

\uparrow \uparrow
 exactly bad stuff
 solved (not diagonal)
 (diagonal)

$$\left(\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{H} \mathbf{S}\right)_{ii} = \mathbf{H}_i^{(0)} + \sum_{j \neq i} \frac{|\mathbf{H}_{ij}^{(1)}|^2}{E_i^{(0)} - E_j^{(0)}}$$

$$\mathbf{S}_{ij}^\dagger = \frac{\mathbf{H}_{ji}^{(1)}}{E_j^{(0)} - E_i^{(0)}} \quad \text{which is the amount of } |i\rangle_{(0)} \text{ mixed into } |j\rangle$$

where $E_j^{(0)}$ and $E_i^{(0)}$ are two eigen-energies of $\mathbf{H}^{(0)}$

The equation

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\phi \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^\dagger | \rangle_\phi = \mathbf{A}^\psi | \rangle_\psi$$

is the most important equation in matrix mechanics

$| \rangle_\phi$ a complete, ortho-normal set of basis-kets

$| \rangle_\psi$ the complete set of eigen-kets of Hermitian operator \mathbf{A}

\mathbf{A}^ϕ is the $N \times N$ (N can, in principle, be ∞) matrix representation of \mathbf{A} where the elements of \mathbf{A} are

$$A_{ij}^\phi = {}_\phi \langle i | \mathbf{A} | j \rangle_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1N} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ A_{N1} & \cdots & \cdots & A_{NN} \end{pmatrix}_\phi$$

\mathbf{A}^ψ is the diagonal matrix representation of \mathbf{A} in the eigen-basis.

$$A^\psi = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & a_N \end{pmatrix}_\psi$$

\mathbf{A} is Hermitian, which means that $\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{A}$ where $A_{ij}^\dagger = A_{ji}^*$ and all the $\{a_i\}$ are real.

\mathbf{S} is a unitary matrix

$\mathbf{S}^\dagger = \mathbf{S}^{-1}$ is the definition of a unitary matrix

$\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{1}$ unit matrix

$\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}$ is a unitary transformation of \mathbf{A}

We are interested in the unitary transformation that “diagonalizes” \mathbf{A}

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\phi \mathbf{S} = \mathbf{A}^\psi$$

and gives us the eigen-kets of \mathbf{A} ,

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger |j\rangle_\phi = |j\rangle_\psi$$

This means that the j-th column of \mathbf{S}^\dagger is the j-th eigenvector of \mathbf{A} .

$$\sum_i \mathbf{S}_{ij}^\dagger |i\rangle_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{S}_{1j}^\dagger \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{S}_{Nj}^\dagger \end{pmatrix}_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_\psi = |j\rangle_\psi$$

j-th

If $|i\rangle_\phi$ is orthonormal, the unitary transformation preserves the orthonormality of $|i\rangle_\psi$.

Efficient computer programs exist that diagonalize any Hermitian matrix. The diagonalization is done in sequence of 2×2 transformations $\{S_i^\dagger\}$, and the final diagonalizing matrices, \mathbf{S} , \mathbf{S}^\dagger , are expressed as a product of partial diagonalization steps

$$\mathbf{S}^\dagger = \prod_{i=1}^{N_{\max}} S_i^\dagger$$

which means that the computer gives us both the eigenvalues and the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} .

Now where does this come from? Linear Algebra.

This is discussed in elegant detail in Merzbacher, Chapters 10.1 – 10.2, pages 207-212.

Eigenvalue Equation

$$\psi_j = \sum_i c_i^j \phi_i$$

completeness, an eigenstate is obtained from a linear combination of basis functions.

$$\mathbf{A} \sum_i c_i^j \phi_i = a_j \sum_i c_i^j \phi_i$$

left multiply by ϕ_k^* and integrate

$$\int \phi_k^* \mathbf{A} \phi_i d\tau = A_{ki}^{\phi}$$

$$\sum_i c_i^j A_{ki}^{\phi} - a_j c_k^j = 0 \quad \text{a linear homogeneous equation in unknown coefficients } \{c_k^j\}$$

rearrange:

$$\sum_i [c_i^j A_{ki}^{\phi} - a_j \delta_{ki} c_i^j] = 0$$

$$\sum_i c_i^j (A_{ki}^{\phi} - a_j \delta_{ki}) = 0$$

left multiply by $\phi_{k'}^*$, and integrate, get another homogeneous linear equation.

The determinant of the unknown coefficients of the set of $\{c_i^j\}$ must be zero to yield a non-trivial solution: non-zero values of the c_i^j .

$$\left| \mathbf{A}^\phi - a\delta_{ki} \right| = 0$$

The vertical lines denote a determinant.

If we diagonalize \mathbf{A} , then we have an equation that satisfies the determinant of $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$ requirement.

$$\prod_{i=1}^N [A_{ii}^\psi - a] = 0 \quad \text{for each eigenvalue in the set } \{a_j\}$$

For each member of the set of eigenvalues $\{a_j\}$, we get one factor of the N-term product that is zero, which ensures that $|A^\psi - a| = 0$.

Two Useful Properties of Hermitian Matrices

Determinant Invariance

$$|\mathbf{ABC}| = |\mathbf{A}||\mathbf{B}||\mathbf{C}|$$

$$\text{This means } |\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \mathbf{S}| = |\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{S}| |\mathbf{A}| = |\mathbf{A}|$$

$$\text{so } |A^\phi| = |A^\psi| = \prod_{i=1}^N a_i$$

Invariance of the product of eigenvalues

Trace Invariance

$$\sum_{i=1}^N A_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^N a_i$$

Representation of the sum of eigenvalues

End of Non-Lecture

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Can now solve many difficult appearing problems!

Start with a **matrix representation** of *any operator* that is expressible as a function of a matrix.

e.g. $e^{-i\mathbf{H}(t-t_0)/\hbar}$ propagator , $f(\mathbf{x})$ potential curve

prescription example

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{T} f(\underbrace{\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T}}_{\substack{\text{diagonalize } \mathbf{x} - \text{ so } f() \text{ is} \\ \text{applied to each diagonal} \\ \text{element}}} \mathbf{T}^\dagger$$

$$\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & & & 0 \\ & x_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & x_N \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T}) = \begin{pmatrix} f(x_1) & & & 0 \\ & f(x_2) & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & f(x_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

Then perform the inverse transformation, $\mathbf{T} f(\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T}) \mathbf{T}^\dagger$ – undiagonalizes matrix, which gives matrix representation of the desired function of a matrix.

Show that this actually is valid for simple example

$$f(x) = \mathbf{x}^N$$

$$\underline{\underline{f(\mathbf{x}^N)}} = \mathbf{T} \left[\underbrace{(\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T})}_{(1)} \underbrace{(\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T})}_{(2)} \cdots \underbrace{(\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T})}_{(N)} \right] \mathbf{T}^\dagger \quad \text{apply prescription}$$

$$= \mathbf{T} \left[\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x}^N \mathbf{T} \right] \mathbf{T}^\dagger = \mathbf{x}^N \quad \text{get expected result}$$

general proof for arbitrary $f(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow$ expand in power series. Use previous result for each integer power.

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John Light: Discrete Variable Representation (DVR)

General $V(x)$ evaluated in Harmonic Oscillator Basis Set.

we did not do H-O yet, but the general formula for all of the nonzero matrix elements of \mathbf{x} in the harmonic oscillator basis set is:

$$\langle n | \mathbf{x} | n+1 \rangle = \left[\frac{\hbar}{2\omega\mu} \right]^{1/2} (n+1)^{1/2} \quad \omega = (k/\mu)^{1/2}$$

(infinite dimension matrix) $\mathbf{x} = \left[\frac{\hbar}{2\omega\mu} \right]^{1/2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & \dots & \dots \\ \sqrt{1} & 0 & \sqrt{2} & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \sqrt{3} & 0 & \sqrt{4} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \sqrt{4} & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

[CARTOON]

$$\mathbf{x}^2 = \left[\frac{\hbar}{2\omega\mu} \right] \begin{matrix} n = & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & \sqrt{6} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \sqrt{2} & 0 & 5 & 0 & \sqrt{12} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{6} & 0 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{12} & 0 & 9 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 11 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 13 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 15 & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

6 -two off-main diagonal $[n(n+1)]^{1/2}$
-main diagonal $|2n+1\rangle$

etc. matrix multiplication

to get matrix for $f(\mathbf{x})$ diagonalize e.g., 1000×1000 (truncated) \mathbf{x} matrix that was expressed in harmonic oscillator basis set.

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$$\mathbf{T}^\dagger \mathbf{x} \mathbf{T} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & x_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{1000} \end{pmatrix}_x$$

diagonalized- \mathbf{x} basis
 $\{x_i\}$ are eigenvalues.
 They have no
 obvious physical
 significance.

$$\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{x})_x = \begin{pmatrix} V(x_1) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & V(x_2) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & V(x_{1000}) \end{pmatrix}_x$$

next transform back
 from \mathbf{x} -basis to
 H-O basis set

$$\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{x})_{\text{H-O}} = \mathbf{T} \mathbf{V}(\mathbf{x})_x \mathbf{T}^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \text{full} \\ \text{complicated} \\ \text{matrix} \end{pmatrix}_{1000 \times 1000 \text{ H-O}}$$

\mathbf{T} was determined
 when \mathbf{x} was
 diagonalized

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2\mu} + V(\mathbf{x})$$

need matrix for \mathbf{p}^2 , get it from \mathbf{p} (the general formula for all non-zero matrix elements of \mathbf{p})

$$\langle n|p|n+1\rangle = -i \left[\frac{\hbar(\omega\mu)}{2} \right]^{1/2} (n+1)^{1/2}$$

$$\mathbf{p} = -i \left[\frac{\hbar(\omega\mu)}{2} \right]^{1/2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{1} & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -\sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{same structure as } \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{p}^2 = - \left[\frac{\hbar(\omega\mu)}{2} \right] \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ \sqrt{2} & 0 & -5 & 0 & \ddots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ 0 & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

if $H = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} + \frac{1}{2} kx^2 \quad \left(\frac{1}{2} k = \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \mu \right)$

$$H = \frac{\hbar\omega}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 10 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 14 \end{pmatrix} = \hbar\omega \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

but for arbitrary $V(x)$, express \mathbf{H} in HO basis set,

$$\mathbf{H}_{HO} = \frac{\mathbf{P}_{HO}^2}{2\mu} + \frac{\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{x})_{HO}}{\mathbf{T}\mathbf{V}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{T}^\dagger}$$

eigenvalues obtained by $\mathbf{S}^\dagger \mathbf{H}_{HO} \mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} E_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & E_N \end{pmatrix}$

columns of \mathbf{S}^\dagger are eigenvectors in HO basis set!

1. Express matrix of \mathbf{x} in H-O basis (automatic; easy to program a computer to do this), get \mathbf{x}_{HO} .
2. Diagonalize \mathbf{x}_{HO} . Get \mathbf{x}_x and \mathbf{T} .
3. Trivial to write $V(\mathbf{x})_x$ as $V(x_i) = V(\mathbf{x})_x$ in \mathbf{x} basis
4. Transform $V(\mathbf{x})_x$ back to $V(\mathbf{x})_{\text{HO}}$
5. Diagonalize \mathbf{H}_{HO} .

Solve many $V(\mathbf{x})$ problems in this basis set.

1000×1000 \mathbf{T} matrix diagonalizes $\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow 1000$ x_i 's

Save the \mathbf{T} and the $\{x_i\}$ for future use on *all* $V(\mathbf{x})$ problems.

To verify convergence, repeat for new \mathbf{x} matrix of dimension 1100×1100 . There will be no obvious resemblance between

$$\{x_i\}_{1000} \text{ and } \{x_i\}_{1100}.$$

If the lowest energy eigenvalues of \mathbf{H} (i.e. the ones you care about) do not change (by measurement accuracy), converged!

Next: Matrix Solution of Harmonic Oscillator (completely without wavefunctions, starting from the $[\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}]$ commutation rule)

Then (at last) Perturbation Theory

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