

2.20. Spin

Definition: Spin- s particles

Assume $s \in \{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots\}$.

* The wave-function of a spin- s particle is a $(2s+1)$ -component function on $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$:

$$\psi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{C}^{2s+1}).$$

Then $\|\psi\|^2 = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} dx \sum_{\sigma=1}^{2s+1} |\psi_{\sigma}(x)|^2$.
one uses

* Most of the time ψ a labeling $\{-s, -s+1, \dots, s\} = \mathbb{I}$ i.e.:

a) for spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particles: $\{-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\}$ or $\{\downarrow, \uparrow\}$ or $\{-, +\}$

b) for spin-1 particles: $\{-1, 0, 1\}$
 ...

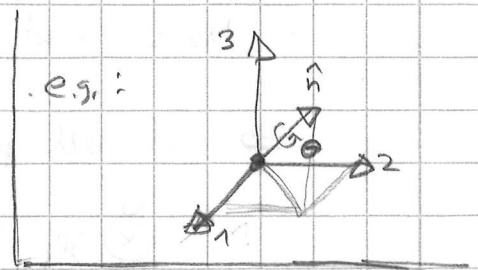
$$* L^2(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{I}}) \cong \bigoplus_{\sigma \in \mathbb{I}} L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \cong L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \otimes \mathbb{C}^{\mathbb{I}}$$

(See Ex. 3.5.a)

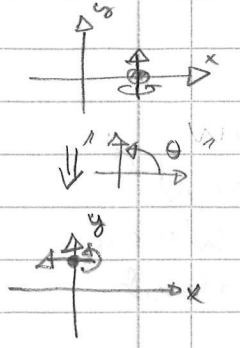
* Spin-components transform nontrivially under rotations of \mathbb{R}^3 (unless $s=0$):

Example: A rotation of \mathbb{R}^3 of "angle" θ around

a direction $\hat{n} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ ($|\hat{n}|=1$) acts on a wave-function $\psi \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{C}^2)$ of a spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ particle by the rule $\psi \mapsto \tilde{\psi}$



Original motivation:



with
$$\tilde{\psi}_{\sigma}(x) := \sum_{\sigma' \in \{\pm \frac{1}{2}\}} D(\hat{n}, \theta)_{\sigma\sigma'} \psi_{\sigma'}(R(\hat{n}, \theta)^{-1}x),$$

 $x \in \mathbb{R}^3, \sigma \in \{\pm \frac{1}{2}\}$

where
$$D(\hat{n}, \theta) := e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2} \sum_{j=1}^3 \hat{n}_j \sigma_j}$$
 and $\sigma_j \in \mathbb{R} \uparrow \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$

$\hat{\sigma}_j, j=1,2,3$, are called the Pauli matrices, defined by $\hat{\sigma}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \hat{\sigma}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \hat{\sigma}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$R(\hat{n}, \theta)$ denotes the corresponding rotation map which transforms vectors $v \mapsto \tilde{v}$

with $\tilde{v}_i := \sum_{j=1}^3 R(\hat{n}, \theta)_{ij} v_j$ where

$R(\hat{n}, \theta) \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ is the orthogonal matrix

$$R(\hat{n}, \theta) := e^{\theta \sum_{j=1}^3 \hat{n}_j \hat{A}_j}$$

and $\hat{A}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \hat{A}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \hat{A}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$.

(note: " \hat{A}_j " corresponds to " $-\frac{i}{2} \hat{\sigma}_j$ ")

* Exercise: show that $R(\hat{n}, \theta + 2\pi) = R(\hat{n}, \theta)$ but $D(\hat{n}, \theta + 2\pi) = -D(\hat{n}, \theta)$.

* Exercise: Show that the map $\psi \mapsto \tilde{\psi}$ is unitary.

2.21. Multiparticle states

Consider N particles, where particle k has spin S_k , and thus its wave function belongs to $\mathcal{H}_k := L^2(\mathbb{R}^3, \mathbb{C}^{2S_k+1})$. ($k=1, \dots, N$)

Def. The total wave function of the system of N particles is an element in $\bigotimes_{k=1}^N \mathcal{H}_k$.

* Note that $\bigotimes_{k=1}^N \mathcal{H}_k \cong L^2(\mathbb{R}^{3N}, \mathbb{C}^{\prod_{k=1}^N (2S_k+1)}) \cong \prod_{k=1}^N \mathbb{C}^{2S_k+1}$.

\Rightarrow if all particles have the same spin:

$$\bigotimes_{k=1}^N \mathcal{H}_k \cong L^2(\mathbb{R}^{3N}, \mathbb{C}^{(2S+1)^N})$$

However, not all states are always "physical". (For instance, for bosons and fermions which have extra symmetry requirements. More about them later...)

3. Bounded operators: $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$

* As in the general case in 2.2., we define for $V = \mathcal{X}$ the space

$$\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) = \{ T: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X} \mid T \text{ linear and } \|T\| < \infty \}$$

$$\text{with } \|T\| = \sup \{ \|T\mathcal{u}\| \mid \mathcal{u} \in \mathcal{X}, \|\mathcal{u}\| = 1 \}.$$

* An operator on \mathcal{X} is a linear mapping

$$A: D \rightarrow \mathcal{X}, \text{ with } D \subset \mathcal{X} \text{ subspace.}$$

$$D = D(A) = \text{domain of } A.$$

$$R(A) = \{ A\mathcal{u} \mid \mathcal{u} \in D \} = \text{range of } A.$$

$$\text{Ker}(A) = \{ \mathcal{u} \in D \mid A\mathcal{u} = 0 \} = \text{null space or kernel of } A$$

* $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ is also called the set of bounded operators. Note that $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ implies $D(T) = \mathcal{X}$. (However, by Ex. 2.4., if $D(T)$ is dense, it has a unique extension to $\bar{T} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$.)

* $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) = \{ \text{the set of continuous linear transformations of } \mathcal{X} \}$ (by Ex. 2.1.)

* $\mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ is a Banach space, since \mathcal{X} is complete.

* The following yields an important classification of bounded linear and sesquilinear functionals on \mathcal{X} :

3.1. Thm: a) Suppose $\Lambda: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is linear and bounded. Then $\exists!$ $\mathcal{u}_0 \in \mathcal{X}$ s.t.

$$\Lambda\mathcal{u} = (\mathcal{u}_0, \mathcal{u}) \quad \forall \mathcal{u} \in \mathcal{X}.$$

b) Suppose $\Gamma: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is bounded and sesquilinear; that is, assume that



$$(i) \quad \begin{aligned} \Gamma(\phi, \alpha\psi_1 + \beta\psi_2) &= \alpha\Gamma(\phi, \psi_1) + \beta\Gamma(\phi, \psi_2), \\ \Gamma(\alpha\phi_1 + \beta\phi_2, \psi) &= \alpha^*\Gamma(\phi_1, \psi) + \beta^*\Gamma(\phi_2, \psi) \\ \forall \phi, \phi_1, \phi_2, \psi, \psi_1, \psi_2 \in \mathcal{X}, \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}. \end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \quad \exists C \geq 0 \text{ s.t. } |\Gamma(\phi, \psi)| \leq C\|\phi\|\|\psi\| \quad \forall \phi, \psi \in \mathcal{X}.$$

Then $\exists! T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$ s.t. $\forall \phi, \psi \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\Gamma(\phi, \psi) = (\phi, T\psi)$$

and $\|T\| = \sup \{ |\Gamma(\phi, \psi)| \mid \|\phi\| = 1 = \|\psi\| \} \leq C.$

Pf: a) Boundedness of Λ means that (compare to 2.2.)

$$\|\Lambda\| := \sup \{ |\Lambda\psi| \mid \psi \in \mathcal{X}, \|\psi\| = 1 \} < \infty.$$

Let us start with uniqueness: If $\psi_0, \psi'_0 \in \mathcal{X}$ s.t. $(\psi_0, \psi) = (\psi'_0, \psi) \quad \forall \psi \Rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} (\psi_0 - \psi'_0, \psi) &= 0 \quad \forall \psi \Rightarrow \\ 0 &= (\psi_0 - \psi'_0, \psi_0 - \psi'_0) = \|\psi_0 - \psi'_0\|^2 \\ \Rightarrow \psi'_0 &= \psi_0. \text{ Thus } \psi_0 \text{ is unique.} \end{aligned}$$

If $\Lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \Lambda\psi = 0 = (0, \psi) \quad \forall \psi \Rightarrow \psi_0 = 0$

is ok. If $\Lambda \neq 0$, let $M = \text{Ker}(\Lambda)$

$$:= \{ \psi \in \mathcal{X} \mid \Lambda\psi = 0 \}. \text{ Since } \Lambda \text{ is bounded}$$

$\Rightarrow \Lambda$ continuous $\Rightarrow M = \Lambda^{-1}(\{0\})$ is closed.

It is also obviously a subspace. By Thm. 2.11.

$\mathcal{X} = M \oplus M^\perp$. Now $M^\perp \neq \{0\}$ since else $M = \mathcal{X}$ which would mean $\Lambda = 0$. Thus $\exists \phi \in M^\perp, \phi \neq 0$.

However, then for any $\psi \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\Lambda((\Lambda\psi)\phi - (\Lambda\phi)\psi) = (\Lambda\psi)(\Lambda\phi) - (\Lambda\phi)(\Lambda\psi) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\Lambda\psi)\phi - (\Lambda\phi)\psi \in M. \text{ Then by } \phi \in M^\perp$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{(\Lambda\psi)(\phi, \phi)}_{\neq 0} - (\Lambda\phi)(\phi, \psi) = 0$$

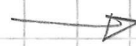
$$\Rightarrow \Lambda\psi = \frac{\Lambda\phi}{\|\phi\|^2} (\phi, \psi) = (\psi_0, \psi)$$

for $\psi_0 = \frac{(\Lambda\phi)^*}{\|\phi\|^2} \phi$. This proves a) \blacktriangleright

b) is a corollary of a): For any $\psi \in \mathcal{X}$

by (i), (ii) the map $\Lambda_\psi: \phi \mapsto \Gamma(\phi, \psi)^*$ is

linear, and $|\Lambda_\psi\phi| \leq C\|\psi\|$ if $\|\phi\| = 1$.



Thus by a), $\exists! \nu_0 \in \mathcal{X}$ s.t. $\bigwedge \nu \phi = (\nu_0, \phi) \forall \phi \in \mathcal{X}$.

We denote the map $\nu \mapsto \nu_0$ by T , when

$$\forall \phi, \nu \in \mathcal{X} : (T\nu, \phi) = \bigwedge \nu \phi = \Gamma(\phi, \nu)^*$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(\phi, \nu) = (\phi, T\nu).$$

By linearity of $\Gamma(\phi, \cdot) \Rightarrow$

$$\forall \phi \in \mathcal{X} : (\phi, T(\alpha\nu_1 + \beta\nu_2)) = \Gamma(\phi, \alpha\nu_1 + \beta\nu_2)$$

$$= \alpha(\phi, T\nu_1) + \beta(\phi, T\nu_2).$$

$$\Rightarrow T(\alpha\nu_1 + \beta\nu_2) = \alpha T\nu_1 + \beta T\nu_2.$$

thus T is linear. Also

$$\|T\nu\|^2 = (T\nu, T\nu) = \Gamma(T\nu, \nu) \leq C \|T\nu\| \|\nu\|.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{if } \|\nu\|=1, \|T\nu\| \leq C \Rightarrow \|T\| \leq C < \infty.$$

$\Rightarrow T \in \mathcal{B}_0(\mathcal{X})$ and, as for any $\phi \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\|\phi\| = \sup \{ |(\phi', \phi)| \mid \phi' \in \mathcal{X}, \|\phi'\|=1 \}$$

(Proof: Cauchy-Schwarz),

we also have

$$\|T\| = \sup \{ \|T\nu\| \mid \|\nu\|=1 \}$$

$$= \sup \{ |(\phi, T\nu)| \mid \|\nu\|=1 = \|\phi\| \}$$

$$= \sup \{ |\Gamma(\phi, \nu)| \mid \|\nu\|=1 = \|\phi\| \} \leq C.$$

For uniqueness: if $T' \in \mathcal{B}_0(\mathcal{X})$ is s.t.

$$\Gamma(\phi, \nu) = (\phi, T'\nu) \forall \phi, \nu \Rightarrow$$

$$0 = (\phi, T'\nu - T\nu) \forall \phi, \nu \Rightarrow T'\nu = T\nu \forall \nu$$

$$\Rightarrow T' = T. \quad \square$$

* "a)" is called "Riesz lemma" or "Riesz representation theorem" (e.g. Wikipedia). It implies that the dual of \mathcal{X} is \mathcal{X} itself.

3.2. Adjoint of a bounded operator

If $T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X})$, for all $\phi, \nu \in \mathcal{X}$

$$|(\phi, T\nu)| \stackrel{\text{C-S}}{\leq} \|\phi\| \|T\nu\| \leq \|T\| \|\phi\| \|\nu\|$$

since $\|T\nu\| \leq \|T\| \|\nu\|$, (if $\nu=0 \Rightarrow T\nu=0$

$$\Rightarrow \|T\nu\| = 0 = \|T\| \|\nu\|. \text{ Else } \|T\nu\| = \|T\| \frac{\nu}{\|\nu\|} \|\nu\|$$

$$\leq \|T\| \|\nu\|, \text{ by definition of } \|T\|. \quad \left(\frac{\nu}{\|\nu\|} \right)_{\|\cdot\|=1}$$

therefore, $\Gamma(\phi, \nu) = (T\phi, \nu) = (\nu, T\phi)^*$
satisfies the assumptions of Th. 3.1, b).

=> \exists! T^* \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) s.t. (T\phi, \psi) = (\phi, T^*\psi) \forall \phi, \psi.

Also it follows that \|T^*\| = \{ |(T\phi, \psi)| \mid \|\phi\|=1, \|\psi\|=1 \} = \{ |(\psi, T\phi)| \mid \|\phi\|=1, \|\psi\|=1 \} = \|T\|.

* The operator T^* is called the adjoint of T.

* The adjoint mapping T \mapsto T^* defines an involution ((T^*)^* = T) on \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) which makes it into a C^*-algebra:

3.3. Thm: For all T, S \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}), \alpha \in \mathbb{C}

- a) (T+S)^* = T^* + S^*
- b) (\alpha T)^* = \alpha^* T^*
- c) (ST)^* = T^* S^*
- d) T^{**} = T
- e) \|T^* T\| = \|T\|^2

(Notations: ST := S \circ T and T^{**} := (T^*)^*)
Pf. Exercise \square

3.4. Definitions

An operator T \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{X}) is called

- a) self-adjoint if T^* = T
- b) unitary if T^* T = 1 = T T^*
(=> unitary also in the general Hilbert-space-isomorphism-sense)
- c) normal if T^* T = T T^*
- d) projection if T^2 = T.

If also R(T) = Ker(T)^\perp, T is called an orthogonal projection.

* Note: P and Q in Theorem 2.16. are orthogonal projections.