

Linear transformation (continued)

① Linear transformation was defined as.

$$\psi \rightarrow \psi' = A\psi$$

and is explicitly seen as

$$\begin{aligned} (\phi, A\psi) &= (e_i x_i, A e_j y_j) \\ &= x_i^* y_j (e_i, A e_j) \\ &= x_i^* y_j (e_i, e_k A_{kj}) \\ &= x_i^* y_j A_{kj} (e_i, e_k) \\ &= x_i^* y_j A_{kj} \delta_{ik} \\ &= x_i^* A_{ij} y_j \end{aligned}$$

$$A e_i = e_k A_{ki}$$

②

Adjoint operator :	$(\phi, A\psi) = (A^\dagger \phi, \psi)$	
Hermitian operator :	$(\phi, A\psi) = (A\phi, \psi)$	$\Rightarrow A = A^\dagger$
Unitary operator :	$(U\phi, U\psi) = (\phi, \psi)$	$\Rightarrow U U^\dagger = I$
Projection operator :	$P_\phi \psi = \phi (\phi, \psi)$	

③

Theorem:

Hermitian operators have real eigenvalues. If the eigenvalues are distinct, the associated eigenvectors are orthogonal.

Proof: $\underline{i} \rightarrow$ no summation

$$A \psi_i = \lambda_i \psi_i$$

$$(\psi_j, A \psi_i) = \lambda_i (\psi_j, \psi_i)$$

$$(A \psi_i, \psi_j)^* = \lambda_i (\psi_j, \psi_i)$$

$$(\psi_i, A \psi_j)^* = \lambda_j (\psi_j, \psi_i)$$

$$(\psi_i, \lambda_j \psi_j)^* = \lambda_j (\psi_j, \psi_i)$$

$$\lambda_j^* (\psi_j, \psi_i) = \lambda_j (\psi_j, \psi_i)$$

$$(\lambda_j^* - \lambda_j) (\psi_j, \psi_i) = 0$$

$$\text{if } i=j \quad \lambda_i = \lambda_j^* \Rightarrow \lambda_i \text{ is real.}$$

$$\text{if } i \neq j \quad (\psi_j, \psi_i) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{eigenvectors are orthogonal.}$$

④

What if the eigenvalues are degenerate?

Let λ_i be degenerate with d independent eigenvectors,

$\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_d$. Thus, a vector

$$\phi = \sum_{n=1}^d x_n \psi_n$$

will also be an eigenvector. This allows us to

choose an orthogonal set of basis vectors.

⑤ Schmidt orthogonalization

Let $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \dots$ be independent vectors.

→ Construct $\phi_1 = N_1 \psi_1$
 choose N_1 such that $(\phi_1, \phi_1) = 1$.

→ Construct $\phi_2 = N_2 [\psi_2 - P_{\phi_1} \psi_2]$
 $= N_2 [\psi_2 - \phi_1 (\phi_1, \psi_2)]$

Choose N_2 such that $(\phi_2, \phi_2) = 1$.

Note that $(\phi_1, \phi_2) = N_2 [(\phi_1, \psi_2) - (\phi_1, \phi_1) (\phi_1, \psi_2)] = 0$

→ Construct $\phi_3 = N_3 [\psi_3 - P_{\phi_1} \psi_3 - P_{\phi_2} \psi_3]$
 $= N_3 [\psi_3 - \phi_1 (\phi_1, \psi_3) - \phi_2 (\phi_2, \psi_3)]$

Choose N_3 such that $(\phi_3, \phi_3) = 1$

Note that $(\phi_1, \phi_3) = (\phi_2, \phi_3) = 0$.

→ ...

⑥ Thus, we can always find an orthonormal set of
 eigenvectors as a base set of vectors for our linear
 vector space.

⑦ In the orthonormal basis our matrix is diagonal.

$$(\psi, A\psi) = x_i^* A_{ij} x_j \rightarrow \lambda_i y_i^* y_i$$

$$A \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \ddots \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

In geometry this is the transformation of a
quartic form (a quartic surface) to principal axis, eg:
 $a x_1^* x_1 + b x_1^* x_2 + c x_2^* x_1 + d x_2^* x_2 \rightarrow \lambda_1 y_1^* y_1 + \lambda_2 y_2^* y_2$.

⑧ Let $P_i \equiv P_{\psi_i}$ be the projection operator along
an orthonormal base set, $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$ of an
operator A . Then,

$$A = \lambda_i P_i$$

Proof. We are given that $A \psi_i = \lambda_i \psi_i$.
We recognize that $\psi = \sum_i \psi_i (\psi_i, \psi) = \sum_i P_i \psi$.

$$\begin{aligned} A \psi &= A \sum_i P_i \psi \\ &= A \sum_i \psi_i (\psi_i, \psi) \\ &= \sum_i \lambda_i \psi_i (\psi_i, \psi) \\ &= \sum_i \lambda_i P_i \psi \\ &= \lambda_i P_i \psi \quad (\text{summation convention}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \lambda_i P_i$$

⑨

$$A = \lambda_i P_i$$

$$P_i^n = P_i$$

$$A^2 = \lambda_i^2 P_i$$

$$A^n = \lambda_i^n P_i$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(A) &= a_0 + a_1 A + a_2 A^2 + \dots \\ &= \left[a_0 + a_1 \lambda_i + a_2 (\lambda_i)^2 + \dots \right] P_i \\ &= \sum_i f(\lambda_i) P_i \end{aligned}$$

⑩

Unitary operator : eigenvalues and eigenvector

Let $U \psi_i = \lambda_i \psi_i$

Using $(U \psi_i, U \psi_j) = (\psi_i, \psi_j)$

$$(\lambda_i \psi_i, \lambda_j \psi_j) = (\psi_i, \psi_j)$$

$$\lambda_i^* \lambda_j (\psi_i, \psi_j) = (\psi_i, \psi_j)$$

$$\lambda_i^* \lambda_j (\psi_i, \psi_j) = (\psi_i, \psi_j)$$

$$(\lambda_i^* \lambda_j - 1) (\psi_i, \psi_j) = 0$$

if $i = j \Rightarrow |\lambda_i|^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda_i^* = \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \Rightarrow \lambda_i = e^{i\phi_i}$

if $i \neq j \Rightarrow (\psi_i, \psi_j) = 0 \Rightarrow$ eigenvectors are orthogonal.

$$U \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\phi_1} & & 0 \\ & e^{i\phi_2} & \\ 0 & \ddots & \\ & & e^{i\phi_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

② A unitary operator can be expressed in terms of a Hermitian operator.

$$U = \frac{1+iA}{1-iA} = (1+iA)(1-iA)^{-1} = (1-iA)^{-1}(1+iA) \quad A = A^\dagger$$

$$U^\dagger = (1+iA)^{-1}(1-iA) = (1-iA)(1+iA)^{-1}$$

$$U U^\dagger = (1+iA)(1-iA)^{-1}(1-iA)(1+iA)^{-1} = I$$

$$-\frac{i}{2} \ln U = -\frac{i}{2} \ln \frac{1+iA}{1-iA} = \tan^{-1} A$$

$$\ln U = i 2 \tan^{-1} A$$

$$U = e^{iH}$$

where $H = 2 \tan^{-1} A$

⑫ Theorem:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \psi_i = a_i \psi_i \\ B \psi_i = b_i \psi_i \end{array} \right\} \iff [A, B] = 0$$

$\rightarrow A$ & B can be diagonalized simultaneously.

Proof: (i) Let LHS be true.

$$A \psi_i = a_i \psi_i \Rightarrow B A \psi_i = a_i B \psi_i = a_i b_i \psi_i$$

$$B \psi_i = b_i \psi_i \Rightarrow A B \psi_i = b_i A \psi_i = b_i a_i \psi_i$$

$$\Rightarrow (AB - BA) \psi_i = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow [A, B] = 0.$$

(ii) Let R.H.S. be true, that is $AB = BA$.
Let ψ_i be eigenvector of B , that is $B \psi_i = b_i \psi_i$.

$$B \psi_i = b_i \psi_i$$

$$AB \psi_i = b_i A \psi_i$$

$$B(A \psi_i) = b_i (A \psi_i)$$

$$\therefore AB = BA.$$

Thus, $(A \psi_i)$ is an eigenvector of B with eigenvalue b_i . There are two possibilities

(a) b_i are non-degenerate

$$\Rightarrow A \psi_i = a_i \psi_i$$

(b) b_i are degenerate.

⑬ If b_i is degenerate,

we can construct

$A \psi_i =$ linear combination of ψ_i belonging to b_i .

$$= \sum_{\beta=1}^d \psi_{i,\beta} A_{\beta\alpha}^{(i)}$$

Thus, the matrix representation in this basis set is

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & 0 & & 0 \\ 0 & b_1 & & 0 \\ & & b_2 & 0 & 0 \\ & & 0 & b_2 & 0 \\ 0 & & 0 & 0 & b_2 \\ & & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & 0 & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}^{(1)} & A_{12}^{(1)} & & 0 & 0 \\ A_{21}^{(1)} & A_{22}^{(1)} & & 0 & 0 \\ & & A_{11}^{(2)} & A_{12}^{(2)} & A_{13}^{(2)} \\ & & A_{21}^{(2)} & A_{22}^{(2)} & A_{23}^{(2)} \\ & & A_{31}^{(2)} & A_{32}^{(2)} & A_{33}^{(2)} \\ & & & & \ddots \\ 0 & & 0 & & & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, we can diagonalize the subspaces of A separately, $S_{\text{subspace}}^{(i)} A_{\text{subspace}}^{(i)} S_{\text{subspace}}^{(i)-1} = A_D^{(i)}$, which will leave the form of B invariant.

- (14) There may still be degeneracy after A and B are diagonalized. Then, find a third operator C

$$[C, A] = [C, B] = 0$$

to make the base set unique.

Example: Hydrogen atom states are made unique by n, l, m, s for $A, \vec{L}, L_z$ and spin.

- (15) In general we have.

$$S A S^{-1} = A_D$$

S - diagonalising matrix
 A_D - diagonalized matrix.

Also, if A is Hermitian, then S is Unitary. That is, Hermitian matrices are diagonalized by Unitary operators.

- (16) Secular equation : $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} (A' - \lambda I) &= (S A S^{-1} - \lambda I) \\ &= S (A - \lambda I) S^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A' - \lambda I) &= (\det S) \det(A - \lambda I) \det S^{-1} \\ &= \det(S S^{-1}) \det(A - \lambda I) \\ &= \det(A - \lambda I) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\det(A - \lambda I)$ is invariant under diagonalization process.

(17)

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = (-\lambda)^n + (-\lambda)^{n-1}(\operatorname{tr} A) + \dots + (\det A)$$

Since $\det(A - \lambda I)$ is invariant for arbitrary λ , each coefficient in the polynomial has to be zero. Thus, we have $(\operatorname{tr} A)$ and $(\det A)$ to be invariant under the diagonalization process.