

Linear Algebra,

①

$V(F)$ is a vector space over the field F

Field $\therefore$ Field is a ring whose nonzero elements form commutative group.

Ring is an algebraic structure (consisting a set together with two binary operations (addition and multiplication), ring axioms require addition is commutative, addition multiplication are associative, distributive.

★ consider $W(F)$

Point 1

Let $S = \{ \text{~~the~~ } |w_1\rangle, |w_2\rangle, \dots, |w_d\rangle \}$ be subset of W .

S is said to be linearly dependent if there exists scalars a_i with $a_i \neq 0$ for at least one i such that

$$\boxed{\sum_{i=1}^d a_i |w_i\rangle = 0} \quad - \textcircled{1}$$

If $\textcircled{1}$ holds true if $a_i = 0 \ \forall i$ then S is linearly independent subset of W

Example

a) $W = \mathbb{R}^3$

Let $S = \{(a, b, c)\}$ at least one of a, b, c is non zero

S is linearly independent subset of W

$$\boxed{\because c_1(a, b, c) = (0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow c_1 = 0}$$

dimensions should be same

b) $W = \mathbb{R}$

$S = \{a, b\} \quad a \neq 0 \quad b \neq 0$

$$c_1 a + c_2 b = 0$$

$$\boxed{c_1 = -c_2 \frac{b}{a}} \quad \therefore S \text{ is linearly dependent}$$

c) $V = \mathbb{R}^2$

$S = \{u, v\}$

$u = (a, 0) ; v = (0, b)$

$c_1(a, 0) + c_2(0, b) = (0, 0)$

$(c_1 a, c_2 b) = (0, 0)$

$c_1 = c_2 = 0$

$\therefore S$ is linearly independent

d) $V = \mathbb{R}^2$

②

$S = \{u, v\}$

$u = (1, 1) \quad v = (1, 0)$

$(c_1 + c_2, c_1) = (0, 0)$

$c_1 + c_2 = 0$

$c_1 = 0$

$c_2 = 0$

Point 2

$W(F)$ is a vector space

$|w_1\rangle \dots |w_d\rangle$ be any elements $\in W$

$a_1 \dots a_d$ be any scalars $\in F$

$\sum_{i=1}^d a_i |w_i\rangle = \text{Linear combination of } |w_1\rangle \dots |w_d\rangle$

Linear span, $\rightarrow$ collection^(set) of all linear combinations

let S be a linear span of W then

$S = \{|p\rangle, |q\rangle, \dots\}$

where $|p\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d a_i |w_i\rangle$ $|q\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d b_i |w_i\rangle$ and so on

Theorem : linear span S forms subspace of W

Proof can be seen by adding p and q and saying

$a_i + b_i \in F \quad p+q \in S$

Point 3

③

~~Basis~~ Let $W(F)$ be a vector space

Let $S = \{ |w_1\rangle, |w_2\rangle, \dots, |w_d\rangle \}$ be subset of W

Then S is said to be a basis of W if

① S is a linearly independent subset of W ✓

② Linear span of S must be equal to W ✓

ie ① $\sum_{i=1}^d a_i |w_i\rangle = 0$ if and only if $a_i = 0 \quad \forall i$

② I can create all other elements of vector space W by some linear combination of the elements of S

If S is a basis, then elements can be called as basis vectors/elements

example (for real fields)

a) $W = \mathbb{R}$ $S = \{ \alpha_0 \text{ where } \alpha_0 \in W \& \alpha_0 \neq 0 \}$

S is a basis

b) $W = \mathbb{R}^2$, $F = \mathbb{R}$ $S = \{ (1,1), (1,0) \}$

i) $(c_1 + c_2, c_1) = (0,0)$

$$\boxed{c_1 = c_2 = 0}$$

ii) also $(c_1 + c_2, c_1) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ if $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$
ie linear span $\boxed{W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2}$ (W is subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$)

Also/ vector space $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$

for any element $(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2$

$$(a,b) = (c_1 + c_2, c_1) \quad c_1 = b \quad c_2 = a - b$$

$$(a,b) = b(1,1) + (a-b)(1,0) \quad \boxed{\in W}$$

$\boxed{\mathbb{R}^2 \subset W}$

Point 4

(4)

Let there be two vector spaces $V(F)$ & $W(F)$. Consider the mapping T from V into W such that for any

$$\langle v_1 \rangle, \langle v_2 \rangle \in V \quad C \in F$$

T is linear transformation of

$$T(C\langle v_1 \rangle + \langle v_2 \rangle) = C T(\langle v_1 \rangle) + T(\langle v_2 \rangle)$$

- two variables
- a) Don't change the vectors
 - b) Change the vectors themselves

$$\text{where } T(\langle v_1 \rangle) = \langle w_1 \rangle \in W$$
$$T(\langle v_2 \rangle) = \langle w_2 \rangle$$

if $V = W$ then T is linear operator on V

Point 5 (structure adding.) This structure associates each pair of vectors with a scalar quantity. Intuitive geometrical notations such as length of vector, angle between the vectors

Consider $V(F)$. The inner product defined in V is a scalar valued function which maps every ordered pair vectors

of V into ^a scalar on F such that following conditions are satisfied. (For example consider ^{trace} for matrices (vectors) integration for continuous function (vector))

For every $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in V$ & $C \in F$

(Note: we demand these conditions for application purposes)

$$① \quad \langle \alpha + \beta, \gamma \rangle = \langle \alpha, \gamma \rangle + \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle$$

$$② \quad \langle C\alpha, \beta \rangle = C \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle$$

$$③ \quad \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \overline{\langle \beta, \alpha \rangle} \quad \text{complex conjugate (conjugate symmetry)}$$

$$④ \quad \langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{for } \alpha \neq 0 \quad (\text{positive definiteness})$$

$$⑤ \quad \langle \alpha, C\beta + \gamma \rangle = \overline{C} \langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + \langle \alpha, \gamma \rangle$$

Note: vector space equipped with inner product is inner product space. Hilbert space is inner product space with field F as complex.

A linear functional or linear form is a linear map or linear transformation from a vector space $V(F)$ to its field of scalars F .

[For example in $\mathbb{R}^n$, if you consider vectors as column vectors then functionals are row vectors. (considering mapping as matrix multiplication)]

The set of all linear functionals from $V(F)$ to F is itself a vector space over F . This space is called the dual space of $V(F)$ denoted by $V^0(F)$

- * For every Linear Vector Space there exists a unique dual
- * For $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^2, \mathbb{R}^n$ the Dual LVS is itself.

Consider a $V(F) = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$

"Consider a ^{special} vector ψ_i and associate a scalar with the ordered pair $[(\psi_i, \psi_j \in V) = \text{scalar}]$ "

$(\psi_1, \psi_i \in V) = S_{\psi_1} [\psi_i]$ such that the properties of IPS are satisfied

similarly

$$(\psi_2, \psi_i \in V) = S_{\psi_2} [\psi_i]$$

Linear functionals

Here ψ_1, ψ_2 are mapping ψ_i s to a scalar $\in F$

$\psi_1, \psi_2 \in V^0$ and denoted by $\langle \psi_1 |, \langle \psi_2 |$

It can be seen that the postulates for ~~EN~~ inner product suggest us to take row and column matrices and do the required algebra 4(b)

3) consider $\mathbb{R}^n$ $\mathbb{F} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} |\alpha\rangle &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \\ |\beta\rangle &= (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{(row representation)}$$

$$\bullet \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle = \langle \alpha | \beta \rangle \equiv (x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} \\ = \sum_{i=1}^n \bar{x}_i y_i$$

~~$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle$~~

$$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 = (\text{length})^2$$

Now for infinite dimensional LVS

$$\langle \alpha | \alpha \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^2 < \infty \quad \text{is demanded}$$

called LVS of square summable called l_2

for Point 6 (The norm)

one can define $\|\alpha\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |x_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$ then the vector space will be l_p and its dual $l_p^* = l_q$ where

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

Note: only for $p=2$ q is 2 and dual LVS is same besides probabilistic interpretation demands square summable spaces

for example

① $V = \mathbb{R}^n$

$F \in \mathbb{R}$

$V = \mathbb{R}^n$

$\alpha = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \overline{y_i}$

$\beta = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$

$\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$

② Let V be a space of all complex valued continuous functions

$V = C[0, 1]$

Let f and g be any two elements (vectors) $\in V$

$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 \overline{f(x)} g(x) dx$

Point 6

Norm is defined as a scalar valued function on a vector space $V(F)$ defined as for any $\alpha \in V$ the (+) square root of $\langle \alpha, \alpha \rangle$ as known as norm denoted by $\|\alpha\|$

Point 7

We consider a vector $|v_i\rangle \in V(F)$ as a normalised if $\| |v_i\rangle \| = 1$. In quantum mechanics we use the basis which are orthonormal

for example

consider $V(F)$

$S = \{ |v_1\rangle, \dots, |v_n\rangle \}$ represent the basis (ie LI and LS forms vector space)

then by using Gram-Schmidt procedure we create another set B from the elements of S such that B contains orthonormal basis vectors

$$B = \{ |e_1\rangle, |e_2\rangle, \dots, |e_d\rangle \}$$

$$S = \{ |v_1\rangle, |v_2\rangle, \dots, |v_d\rangle \}$$

$$\left[|e_{k+1}\rangle = \frac{|v_{k+1}\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^k \langle e_i | v_{k+1} \rangle |e_i\rangle}{\| |v_{k+1}\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^k \langle e_i | v_{k+1} \rangle |e_i\rangle \|} \right] \text{ for } 1 \leq k \leq d$$

$$|e_1\rangle = \frac{|v_1\rangle}{\| |v_1\rangle \|}$$

Review point 4

Point 8

Matrix representation of linear transform

Let T be a L.T from $V(F) \rightarrow W(F)$ where
 $\dim V$ (number of basis) = n and $\dim W = m$

Let

$B_V = \{ |e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_n\rangle \}$ be orthonormal basis of V

$B_W = \{ |\omega_1\rangle, \dots, |\omega_m\rangle \}$ " " " " W

$$|\omega_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} |v_j\rangle \quad (|v\rangle \text{ is transformed to } W) \quad \begin{bmatrix} \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \\ \vdots \\ \omega_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{m1} & A_{m2} & \dots & A_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\alpha\rangle_V = \sum_{k=1}^n \lambda_k |v_k\rangle \quad \Rightarrow T(|\alpha\rangle_V)$$

$$T(|\alpha\rangle_V) = |\alpha\rangle_W$$

thus

$$\boxed{T(|\alpha\rangle_V) = A |\alpha\rangle_V}$$

$$A |\alpha\rangle_V = |\alpha\rangle_W$$

← Plug in any vector you want

$$[T(\alpha)]_{B_W} = A\alpha = A[\alpha]_{B_V}$$

(7)

Here A is known as matrix representation of T relative to orthogonal basis B_V and B_W . A is an $m \times n$ matrix. In Quantum Mechanics $A|V_i\rangle$ is a linear transformation from $V(F) \rightarrow V(F)$. It is called operator

Also V, W, X be the vector spaces defined over the field F

$A: V \rightarrow W$ and $B: W \rightarrow X$ are linear

then we use BA to denote composition of B with A defined by $BA|V\rangle$.

[So what is an operator. Consider the rotation matrix and see it is an operator which maps vector from one space to rotated space. But an operator can also change a vector]

Point 9

The linear transform can also be represented by $A \equiv |\kappa\rangle\langle\alpha|$ where $|\kappa\rangle \in V(F)$ $\langle\alpha| \in V^D$

Thus $A|\psi\rangle = |\kappa\rangle\langle\alpha|\psi\rangle = \langle\alpha|\psi\rangle|\kappa\rangle$ (another vector)

if $|\kappa\rangle$ column vector $\langle\alpha|$ is a row vector then

the $|\kappa\rangle\langle\alpha|$ is a matrix itself (Matrix mechanics)

Now $|e_i\rangle\langle e_i|$ (Provided $|e_i\rangle$ is orthonormal basis)
is a special type of operator known as Projection operator.

lets say

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |e_i\rangle$$

now operate $P_3 = |e_3\rangle\langle e_3|$ on $|\psi\rangle$

$$P_3 |\psi\rangle = \lambda_3 |e_3\rangle \quad \text{i.e component of } |\psi\rangle \text{ along } |e_3\rangle$$

$$P_i^2 = P_i$$

There are two important properties of orthonormal bases

★ $\langle e_i | e_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ (orthonormality)

★ $\sum_i |e_i\rangle\langle e_i| = \mathbb{1}$ (completeness)

(try applying on any general vector $|\psi\rangle$ and you will get $|\psi\rangle$ again)

consider $V(F)$ $B = \{|e_1\rangle, |e_2\rangle\}$

it has can be shown that $|e_1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|e_2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

now $\langle e_i | e_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

$$|e_1\rangle\langle e_1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|e_1\rangle\langle e_2| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |e_2\rangle\langle e_1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|e_2\rangle\langle e_2| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

thus any matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_{12} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_{21} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + a_{22} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Matrix element $A = \sum_{ij} a_{ij} |e_i\rangle\langle e_j|$

$\rightarrow \langle e_i | A | e_j \rangle = a_{ij}$

$|e_i\rangle\langle e_j|$ form the basis of operators

8(a)

$$A = \sum_{ij} a_{ij} |e_i\rangle\langle e_j|$$

$a_{ij} = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}$ then we get diagonalisable matrices

Applications

a) Allows us to write an operator in any set of desirable basis of / general (completeness)

~~A =~~

eg $A: V(F) \rightarrow V(F)$ and $B = \{|v_i\rangle\}$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \mathbb{1} A \mathbb{1} \\ &= \sum_{ij} |v_i\rangle\langle v_i| A |v_j\rangle\langle v_j| \\ &= \sum_{ij} \langle v_i | A | v_j \rangle |v_i\rangle\langle v_j| \end{aligned}$$

$A: V(F) \rightarrow W(F)$

$$A = \sum_{ij} \langle w_i | A | v_j \rangle |w_i\rangle\langle v_j|$$

b) Cauchy Schwarz inequality

$$\langle v | v \rangle \langle w | w \rangle \geq |\langle v | w \rangle|^2$$

Proof Let $|e_i\rangle$ be set of orthonormal basis with $|e_1\rangle = \frac{|w\rangle}{\|w\|}$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i \langle v | e_i \rangle \langle e_i | v \rangle \langle w | w \rangle &\geq \frac{\langle v | w \rangle \langle w | v \rangle}{\langle w | w \rangle} \langle w | w \rangle \\ &= |\langle v | w \rangle|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Point 10

(9)

consider a vector space $V(F)$. A scalar $C \in F$ is called eigen value corresponding of an existing linear transform on $V(F)$, if there exists a nonzero vector $\alpha \in V(F)$ such that

$$T(\alpha) = C\alpha$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T \text{ is an operator (L.T)} \\ \alpha \text{ is an eigen vector} \\ \text{w.r.t operator} \\ C \text{ is eigen value w.r.t} \\ \alpha \text{ eigen vector} \end{array} \right.$

in Quantum Mechanics

$$\hat{H}|n\rangle = E_n|n\rangle$$

Eigenspace: ~~to~~ Eigen space corresponding to an eigen value C is a set of vectors having same eigen value C .
Eigenspace is subspace of $V(F)$.

in Quantum Mechanics we have degenerate levels

Diagonalisable operators: Operators having diagonal representation

Relation of different representation of operator A:

(10)

Consider $\hat{A} : V(F) \rightarrow V(F)$ [A over $V(F)$]
[Consider Hilbert space]

Consider basis $B_1 = \{|e_1\rangle, |e_2\rangle, |e_3\rangle\}$

Consider a matrix

$$A(|e_i\rangle) = \sum_j A_{ji} |e_j\rangle$$

$$\hat{A} \equiv \begin{matrix} & |e_1\rangle & |e_2\rangle & |e_3\rangle \\ \begin{matrix} \langle e_1| \\ \langle e_2| \\ \langle e_3| \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Diagonalisable matrix

Consider another basis $B_2 = \{|e'_1\rangle, |e'_2\rangle, |e'_3\rangle\}$

such that $T : B_1(F) \rightarrow B_2(F)$ [Transformation operator]

$$T \equiv \begin{matrix} & |e'_1\rangle & |e'_2\rangle & |e'_3\rangle \\ \begin{matrix} \langle e_1| \\ \langle e_2| \\ \langle e_3| \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} T_{11} & T_{12} & T_{13} \\ T_{21} & T_{22} & T_{23} \\ T_{31} & T_{32} & T_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$$T = \sum_{ij} T_{ij} |e'_j\rangle \langle e_i|$$

But now $\hat{A}$ as matrix is

$$\hat{A} = \begin{matrix} & |e'_1\rangle & |e'_2\rangle & |e'_3\rangle \\ \begin{matrix} \langle e'_1| \\ \langle e'_2| \\ \langle e'_3| \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ A_{31} & A_{32} & A_{33} \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

The operator sure looks different but the characteristic function is same. example translation matrix

consider $B_1 = \{|e_1\rangle, |e_2\rangle, |e_3\rangle\}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \sum_i a_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|$$

By definition eigen value / eigen vector w.r.t A can be found using equation (10)

$$\hat{A} |d_i\rangle = \lambda_i |d_i\rangle$$

one can see if $A = \sum_i a_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|$ then $|d_i\rangle = |e_i\rangle$ and $\lambda_i = a_i$ (orthonormal basis are eigenvectors of A is diagonal)

now consider Matrix representation

$$AX = \lambda X$$

→ eigen vector equation for matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} (a_1 - \lambda) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & (a_2 - \lambda) & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & (a_3 - \lambda) \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$(\lambda - a_1)(\lambda - a_2)(\lambda - a_3) = 0$$

$$\lambda = a_1, a_2, a_3 \equiv \text{eigen value}$$

also $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ corresp. to a_1

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ corresp. to a_2

$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ corresp. to a_3

thus $|e_1\rangle \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$|e_2\rangle \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$|e_3\rangle \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

in matrices

Definitions

a) $A: V(F) \rightarrow V(F)$

then there exists an unique linear transform $A^\dagger$ such that

$$\langle V | A | W \rangle^* = \langle W | A^\dagger | V \rangle$$

defined by Hermitian conjugate

b) Hermitian operators $A^\dagger = A$

c) ~~Prove~~ consider $P: V(F) \rightarrow W(F)$ where $W \subseteq V$

$$B_V = \{ |1\rangle, |2\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle \}$$

$$W = \{ |1\rangle, |2\rangle, \dots, |k\rangle \}$$

thus $P = \sum_{i=1}^k |i\rangle \langle i|$

(It can be shown that $P = P^\dagger$)

P is called projector on W . W is thus known as 'vector space' P .

There exists orthogonal complement of P , known as Q

$$Q = I - P$$

it projects onto another vector space $X(F) \subseteq V(F)$

such that

$$X = \{ |k+1\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle \}$$

d) $A: V(F) \rightarrow V(F)$ is normal if (13)
 $AA^\dagger = A^\dagger A \Rightarrow$ Hermitian operator is normal

Spectral decomposition theorem: An operator is normal operator iff and only if it is diagonalizable.

one can prove that Normal matrix is hermitian if eigen values are real. (if A is normal $\rightarrow$ it is diagonalisable thus if complex conjugate of T is same $a_i^* = a_i$ thus a_i is real)

$$A = \sum_i a_i |i\rangle\langle i|$$

$$A^\dagger = \sum_i a_i^* |i\rangle\langle i|$$

$$A = A^\dagger \quad a_i^* = a_i = \text{real}$$

e) Matrix is unitary if

$$U^\dagger U = I$$

They preserve inner products

$$|\alpha\rangle = U|\beta\rangle$$

$$\langle\alpha| = \langle\beta|U^\dagger$$

$$\langle\beta|U^\dagger U|\beta\rangle = \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = \langle\beta|\beta\rangle$$

we can find an elegant representation for unitary operator. Say $|v_i\rangle$ are certain orthonormal basis

$$U|v_i\rangle = |w_i\rangle$$

$$\text{thus } U = \sum_i |w_i\rangle\langle v_i|$$

g) A subclass of Hermitian operators is called (19)
positive operators such that

$$\langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle \geq 0$$

(non negative number)

(Any positive operator is automatically a hermitian)

break

Sequence Space: Is a vector space whose elements are infinite sequence of real or complex numbers.

It can also be supposed ^(equivalently) to be a functional space whose elements are functions (from natural number to field K)

ℓ^p spaces are the sequence spaces consisting of p -power summable sequences with the p -norm.

$$\sum_n |x_n|^p < \infty$$

$$\|x_n\|_p = \left(\sum_n |x_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

ℓ^p is a complete metric space w.r.t the norm. Schwarz inequality and triangle inequalities are followed.

L^p spaces are sequence space consisting of p -power integrable functions (as elements?)

$$\int_a^b |f(x)|^p dx < \infty$$

$L^p [a, b]$ is defined

For Quantum Mechanics $p=2$, thus we use L^2 and ℓ^2 spaces

consider $L_2(-1, 1)$

(16)

$$\int_{-1}^1 dx |f(x)|^2 < \infty$$

for any polynomial function (any element in L_2 space)

let $B = \{a_1 x^0, a_2 x + b, a_3 x^2 + a_4 x + a_5 \dots\}$ [Basis as monomials]

now lets cook orthonormal basis by using gram-schmidt

$$|e_1\rangle = \frac{a_1 x^0}{\|a_1 x^0\|} \quad \|a_1 x^0\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 a_1^2 dx = a_1^2 \cdot 2$$

$$|e_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|e_2\rangle = \frac{a_2 x + b - \left[\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (a_2 x + b) dx \right] \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}{\| \cdot \|}$$

$$= \frac{a_2 x}{\|a_2 x\|} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} x$$

now consider $L_2(-\infty, \infty)$

$$\text{there} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\mu(x) \phi_n^*(x) \phi_m(x) = A_n \delta_{nm}$$

↓
measure that
ensures the
finiteness

$$d\mu(x) = e^{-x^2} dx \quad \{ \text{Hermite polynomials} \}$$

for $L_2(0, \infty)$

$$d\mu(x) = e^{-x} dx \quad \{ \text{Laguerre polynomials} \}$$

consider the fourier transforms

17

$$f(x+2L) = f(x)$$

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

where $\cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$ and $\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$ form orthogonal basis vectors

also this equation can be converted to

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} c_n e^{i\frac{n\pi x}{L}}$$

c_n is the scalar $\in \mathbb{C}$ and $e^{i\frac{n\pi x}{L}}$ are basis vectors

$$c_n = \langle e_n | \psi \rangle$$

$$\text{thus } c_n = \int_0^{2L} e^{-i\frac{n\pi x}{L}} f(x) dx$$

for non periodic $f(x)$ $(-\infty, \infty)$

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}(k) e^{ikx} dk$$

let there be L_2 space with $f_n(x)$ $[n=1, 2, \dots]$ (countable functions)

Then orthonormality $\Rightarrow \int_a^b f_n^*(x) f_m(x) dx = \delta_{nm}$ $[\langle e_n | e_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}]$

completeness $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n^*(x) f_n(x') = \delta(x-x')$ $[\sum_n |e_n\rangle \langle e_n| = I]$

justification of completeness

we have to find an operator which when operated on the function produces the function itself. now $\delta(x-x')$ is used $x, x' \in (a, b)$

$$\int_a^b \delta(x-x') g(x') dx' = g(x)$$

from the definition we can see that

$$\sum_n f_n(x) \int_a^b f_n^*(x') g(x') dx' = \sum_n f_n(x) c_n = g(x)$$

thus

$$\int_a^b \sum_n f_n(x) f_n^*(x') g(x') dx' = \int_a^b \delta(x-x') g(x') dx'$$

$$\boxed{\delta(x-x') = \sum_n f_n(x) f_n^*(x')}$$

The operations of operator is defined by

$$LQ(x) = \int_a^b K(x, x') Q(x') dx'$$

$K(x, x')$ is kernel

Define Adjoint of operator as

$$(Q, LQ) = (L^{\text{adj}} Q, Q)$$

$$\int_a^b Q^*(x) LQ(x) dx = \int_a^b Q^*(x) \int_a^b K(x, x') Q(x') dx' dx$$

$$= \int_a^b Q(x') \int_a^b Q^*(x) K(x, x') dx dx'$$

$$\text{RHS} = \int_a^b \left(L^{\text{adj}} Q^*(x) \right)^* Q(x) dx = \int_a^b Q(x) \left[\int_a^b F(x, x') Q^*(x') dx' \right]^* dx$$

$$= \int_a^b Q(x) \left[\int_a^b F^*(x, x') Q^*(x') dx' \right] dx$$

$$F^*(x, x') = K(x', x)$$

$$L^{\text{adj}} = \int_a^b dx' K^*(x', x)$$