

M7: Adjoint, Normal, Hermitian Operators and their Eigensystem

M7.1: Adjoint operators

M7.1.1 Summary Sheet

Adjoint Operators

operator A

$$\langle \Psi | A = \langle \tilde{\Psi} |$$

\updownarrow dual vector
space relation

$$A^\dagger | \Psi \rangle = | \tilde{\Psi} \rangle$$

adjoint operator A^\dagger

Rule:

Bra-ket notation:

$$\langle \phi | A | \Psi \rangle^* = \langle \Psi | A^\dagger | \phi \rangle$$

$$(|\Psi\rangle\langle\phi|)^\dagger = |\phi\rangle\langle\Psi|$$

Coordinate representation (finite dimension):

$$(A^\dagger)_{ij} = A^*_{ji}$$

→ Transposition of matrix
and complex conjugation of entries

$$A \doteq \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1+2i \\ 1-3i & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^\dagger \doteq \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1+3i \\ 1-2i & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note:

in infinite dimensional vector spaces the properties of being *hermitian* and *self-adjoint* are closely related, but distinct notions. The difference occurs when A and A^\dagger have different domains on which they act.

Special cases:

$$A = A^\dagger$$

→ Hermitian (self-adjoint) operator

More details (mostly omitted during lectures):

M7.1.2 Details

M7.1.2.1 Definition and motivation of adjoint operators

Operators map vectors to vectors

$$A|\psi\rangle = |\tilde{\psi}\rangle$$

We use this in expectation value calculations:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \rangle &= \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | \tilde{\psi} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

more generally:

$$\langle \psi | \underbrace{A | \psi \rangle}_{|\tilde{\psi}\rangle} = \langle \psi | \tilde{\psi} \rangle$$

$$(\alpha, \beta) \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = (\alpha, \beta) \begin{pmatrix} a' \\ b' \end{pmatrix}$$

in coordinate representation

$$(\alpha', \beta') \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle \tilde{\psi} | \psi \rangle$$

$$\langle \tilde{\psi} | = \langle \psi | A$$

$$|\tilde{\psi}\rangle = ???$$

Answer:

$$|\tilde{\psi}\rangle = A^+ |\psi\rangle \quad \text{for all vectors } |\psi\rangle$$

we call A^+ the adjoint operator (adjoint to operator A)

M7.1.2.2: Coordinate representation of adjoint operators

Operators A and A^+ are defined by their action on the basis states

==> sufficient to look at their coordinate representation

$$A_{ij} = \langle a_i | A | a_j \rangle$$

$$(A^+)_{ij} = \langle a_i | A^+ | a_j \rangle$$

$$\langle a_i | A | a_j \rangle = \langle \tilde{a}_i | a_j \rangle$$

$$= \langle a_j | \tilde{a}_i \rangle^*$$

$$A_{ij}$$

$$= \langle a_j | A^+ | a_i \rangle^*$$

$$= (A^+)_{ji}^*$$

by reordering we find

$$(A^+)_{ji} = A_{ij}^*$$

complex conjugation

interchange of row and column index: transposition

Example:

Given operator A with coordinate representation

$$A \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1+2i \\ 1-3i & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

then the corresponding adjoint operator is given by

$$A^+ \Leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1+3i \\ 1-2i & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

The coordinate representation of adjoint operator A^+ is connected to the coordinate representation of the original operators A by:

- transposition of the matrix (exchange of column and row indices)
- complex conjugation

\Rightarrow the two actions together are called **hermitian conjugation** and is denoted by the superscript +!

M7.1.2.3 Rules for Hermitian Conjugation

Note: hermitian conjugation is its own inverse!

$$(A^+)^+ = A$$

resulting in

$$\langle \tilde{\psi} | = \langle \psi | A^+$$

$$\Rightarrow |\tilde{\psi}\rangle = A|\psi\rangle$$

Note: from the coordinate representation discussion above we find:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle^* &= \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle^+ \\ &= \langle \psi | A^+ | \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

which should be compared to the earlier relation

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle^* = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle$$

When writing down an operator in bracket notation, we find

$$A = \sum_i \alpha_{ij} |a_i\rangle \langle a_j|$$

$$A^\dagger = \sum_i \alpha_{ij}^* |a_j\rangle \langle a_i|$$

In the simplest case we have

$$(|\psi\rangle \langle \varphi|)^\dagger = |\varphi\rangle \langle \psi|$$

We can extend the notion of hermitian conjugation to complex numbers, bras and kets as follows:

a) complex numbers: \mathbb{C}

$$c^\dagger = c^* \quad (\text{complex conjugation})$$

b) bras: $\langle \psi|$

$$\langle \psi|^\dagger = |\psi\rangle$$

c) kets: $|\psi\rangle$

$$|\psi\rangle^\dagger = \langle \psi|$$

General rule for bra-ket notation:

for any abstract bra-ket expression, we can obtain the hermitian conjugate by

- inverting the sequence of objects
- applying the hermitian conjugation to each object individually

Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} A|\psi\rangle &= |\psi\rangle^\dagger A^\dagger \\ &= \langle \psi| A^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \varphi| A |\psi\rangle^\dagger = \langle \varphi| A^\dagger |\psi\rangle^* = \langle \varphi| A^\dagger |\psi\rangle$$

$$|\psi\rangle \langle \varphi| = |\varphi\rangle \langle \psi|$$

The rule is compatible with the free association (grouping) rule of bra-ket objects!

M7.2 Normal Operators

M7.2.1 Definition

Definition:

Any operator A that has the property that

$$A^\dagger A = A A^\dagger$$

is called *normal*.

Remark: Any Hermitian operator is automatically normal.

M7.2.2 Eigensystem of Normal Operators and Spectral Decomposition

eigensystem of normal operators

Given a normal operator A

with eigenvalues λ_i

and corresponding eigenvectors $|\lambda_i\rangle$

Then the following holds:

eigenvectors belonging to different eigenvalues are orthogonal

$$\langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for } \lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$$

For degenerate eigenvalues, we can always choose the eigenvectors to be orthogonal:

(degenerate case)

$$\lambda_i = \lambda_j$$

we can always choose

$$\langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

Spectral decomposition for normal operators

Given any normal operator A

with eigenvalues λ_i

and eigenvectors $|\lambda_i\rangle$

$$A = \sum_i \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$$

M7.3 Hermitian Operators

M7.3.1 Definition

An operator A is called
Hermitian (**self-adjoint**) if

$$A = A^\dagger$$

in general we have
 $A \neq A^\dagger$

M7.3.2 Eigensystem of Hermitian Operators

Hermitian operators have real-valued eigenvalues

a hermitian operator H

has real valued eigenvalues λ_i

and orthonormal set of eigenvectors $|\lambda_i\rangle$

Proof (omitted in class)

for special case of Hermitian operators:

Part a: eigenvalues are real

$$\langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_i \rangle = \lambda_i \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_i \rangle = \lambda_i$$
$$\Rightarrow \langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_i \rangle^* = \lambda_i^*$$

on the other hand:

$$\langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_i \rangle^* = \langle \lambda_i | A^\dagger | \lambda_i \rangle$$

A hermitian

$$= \langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_i \rangle$$
$$= \lambda_i$$

therefore:

$$\lambda_i = \lambda_i^* \quad \text{eigenvectors are real valued!}$$

Part b: eigenvectors orthogonal for $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$

$$\langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_j \rangle$$
$$(i) = \langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_j \rangle = \lambda_j \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle$$
$$(ii) = \langle \lambda_i | A | \lambda_j \rangle = \lambda_i \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle$$

Note $(A | \lambda_j \rangle)^\dagger = \langle \lambda_j | A^\dagger$
 $(\lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle)^\dagger = \langle \lambda_j | A$

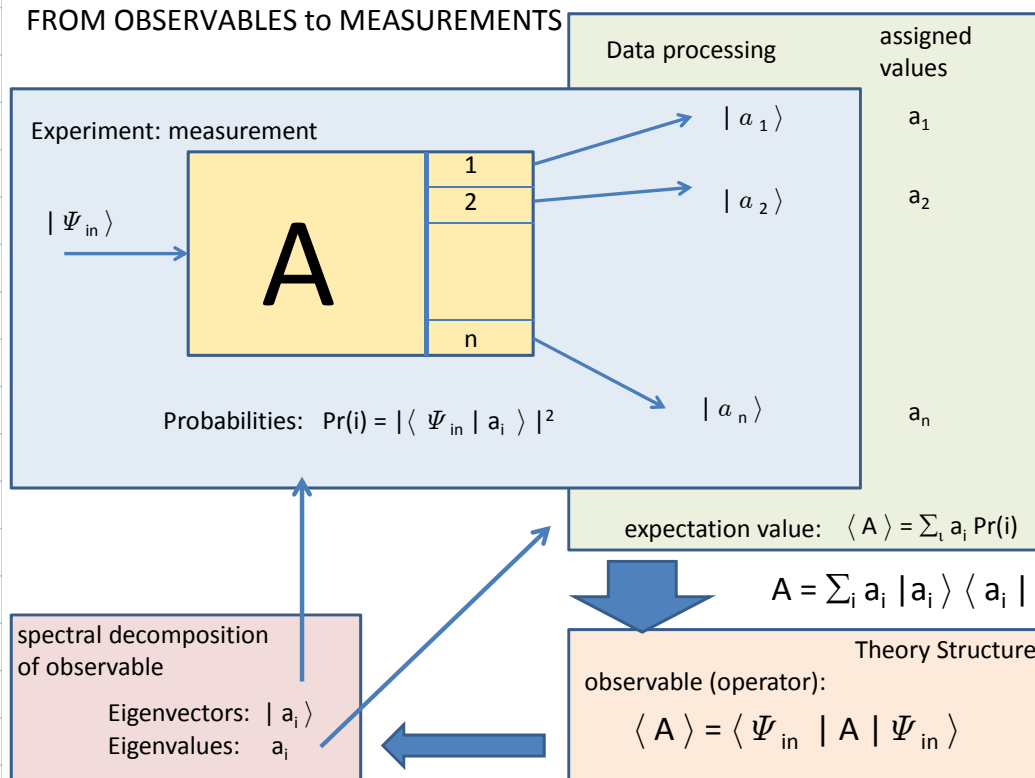
$$\Rightarrow \frac{\langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle}{\langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle} = \lambda_j$$

comparison: (i) & (ii)

$$\lambda_j \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = \lambda_i \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle$$
$$\Rightarrow \langle \lambda_i | \lambda_j \rangle = 0$$

eigenvectors are orthogonal!

4.3 From Observables to Measurement Prescription



In section 4.1 we learned how we can go from an experimental evaluation of a mean value to a theoretical evaluation using observables.

One can actually also go the other way round:

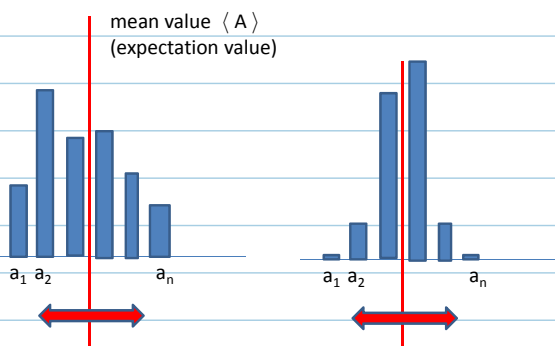
After doing theory on the level of observables, one would like to find an experimental evaluation procedure for a given observable. This is done easily by

- finding the eigensystem of the observable
 - finding a measurement setting that corresponds to the eigenvectors of the observable
 - assigning the eigenvalues of the observables to the outcomes that correspond to the respective eigenvector
- ==> perform the experiment and find the experimental value of the expectation value!

4.4 Uncertainties in Quantum Mechanics

4.4.1 Variances of Probability Distributions

4.4.1.1 Definition



General observable: A distribution of outcomes: $Pr(i)$
 expectation value $\langle A \rangle = \sum_i a_i Pr(i)$

variance of distribution

$$\Delta A = \sqrt{\sum_i Pr(i) |a_i - \langle A \rangle|^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_i Pr(i) (a_i^2 - 2a_i \langle A \rangle + \langle A \rangle^2)}$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_i Pr(i) a_i^2 - 2\langle A \rangle^2 + \langle A \rangle^2}$$

$$\Delta A = \sqrt{\langle A^2 \rangle - \langle A \rangle^2}$$

alternative form

$$\Delta A = \sqrt{\langle (A - \langle A \rangle \mathbb{1})^2 \rangle}$$

second alternative form

the symbol $\mathbb{1}$ denotes the identity operators

4.4.1.2 Examples

Example 1: deterministic outcome

Note: if quantum mechanical system is prepared in an eigenstate of A then we get always the same measurement outcome, which gives a sharp distribution with vanishing variance!

$$A |a\rangle = a |a\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle A \rangle = a$$

$$\langle A^2 \rangle = a^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta A = 0$$

Example 2: Spin component measurements

Input state

Input state $| \psi \rangle = | + \rangle (= | + \rangle_z)$

Measurement of

Measurement of $S_z = \frac{\hbar}{2} (|+\rangle\langle+| - |-\rangle\langle-|)$

$$\langle S_z \rangle = \frac{\langle 2 | S_z | 2 \rangle}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5}{2}$$

$$\langle S_z^2 \rangle = \langle \chi | S_z^2 | \chi \rangle$$

$$= \langle 4 | \left(\frac{1}{4} \right) (|+\rangle\langle+| + |-\rangle\langle-|) | 4 \rangle$$

$$= \frac{t^2}{4}$$

$$= 1$$

identity operator

$$\supset$$

$$\Delta S_z = \sqrt{\langle S_z^2 \rangle - \langle S_z \rangle^2}$$

$$= 0$$

Measurement of

Measurement of $S_x = \frac{\hbar}{2} \left(|+\rangle_x \langle +| - |-\rangle_x \langle -| \right)$

$$\langle S_x \rangle = \langle \psi | S_x | \psi \rangle$$

$$= (1, 0) \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= C(1,0) \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\langle S_x^2 \rangle = (1, 0) \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar^2}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta S_x = \sqrt{\langle S_x^2 \rangle - \langle S_x \rangle^2}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5}{2}$$

4.4.2 Commutator of Operators

Frequently in quantum mechanics, the **commutator** of two observables play a role. For general operators A and B, we define the commutator as the operators

$$[A, B] := AB - BA$$

We say that *two operators A and B commute*
if $[A, B] = 0$

Note 1: If A and B commute and are normal operators, then the two operators share the same eigenvectors, though the eigenvalues may be different.

$$[A, B] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \sum_i \lambda_i^{(A)} |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$$

$$B = \sum_i \lambda_i^{(B)} |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$$

4.4.3 Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation

Consider two (hermitian) observables: A and B
Consider a source of pure states $|\psi\rangle$

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \psi | [A, B] | \psi \rangle|$$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Relation

Example: (uses concepts that will be develop in last parts of the course!!!)

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{1}{2} \hbar$$

position operator

momentum operator

satisfies (see second part of course)

$$[x, p] = i\hbar$$

Cannot prepare a state that is sharp in position AND in momentum!
==> more later