



COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

HOMER L. DODGE

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS AND ASTRONOMY

The UNIVERSITY *of* OKLAHOMA

Math Methods in Physics

CH. 3 VECTORS & MATRICES LECTURE NOTES

STUDENT

Taylor Larrechea

PROFESSOR

Dr. Kieran Mullen



Numerics

Our Euler Lagrange equations yield ODE & PDE. These are not all easy to solve.

① Classical Mechanics : $L = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{\vec{x}}^2 - U(\vec{x})$, $\ddot{\vec{x}} = -\vec{\nabla}U(\vec{x})$ Initial value P.

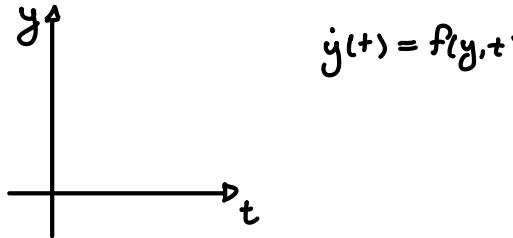
② Electro Magnetism : $\int(\vec{\nabla}\phi)d^2x$, but $\phi(x) \Big|_{\vec{x}=\vec{\lambda}=\text{curve}} = f(\vec{x})$ Boundary value P.

③ Field problem : Extremization might yield $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\psi + V(\vec{x})\psi = E\psi(\vec{x})$ Eigenvalue P.

In general ① IVP is of the form : $\dot{x}_1 = f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$
 $\dot{x}_2 = f_2(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$

For 2nd order : $\dot{x}_1 = x_2$, $\dot{x}_2 = f(x)$ \rightarrow Any order ODE can be handled this way

without loss of generality (wLOG) we can focus on a 1D problem



we discretize time

$$t_i = i\Delta t, \quad i = \text{integer}$$

Then we represent the derivatives : $\frac{dy}{dt} \approx \frac{y(t+\Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t}$

Q : How accurate is this ?

A : For a well behaved $y(t)$

$$y(t+\Delta t) = y(t_i) + \dot{y}(t_i)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{y}(t_i)\Delta t^2$$

$$\frac{y(t+\Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t} = \dot{y}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{y}\Delta t$$

Given our ordinary differential equation, $y_{i+1} = y_i + f(y_i)\Delta t \rightarrow$ we know all of our quantities on the RHS
 \rightsquigarrow Explicit method

$$\frac{y_{i+1} - y_i}{\Delta t} = f(y_i, t), \quad \text{we could choose } f(y_{i+1}, t_{i+1})$$

\rightsquigarrow Implicit method

Backwards Euler

We can choose a mid-point method

$f(y_{i+1}, t_{i+1}) \rightarrow y_{i+1} = y_i + \frac{\Delta t}{2} (f_{i+1} + f_i) \rightarrow$ often the best behaved approach

$$\frac{y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)}{\Delta t} :$$

$$\frac{y_{i+1} - y_{i-1}}{2\Delta t} = \dot{y}(t) + \frac{2\Delta t}{2} \ddot{y} + \frac{2\Delta t^2}{3!} \dddot{y}, \quad \frac{y_{i+2} - y_{i-2}}{4\Delta t} = \dot{y}(t) + \frac{4\Delta t}{2} \ddot{y} + \frac{(4\Delta t)^2}{3!} \dddot{y}$$

↳ A ↳ B

$$2A - B = \dot{y}(t) - \frac{4}{3} \Delta t^2 \ddot{y}$$

5-pt formula \rightarrow errors in Δt^2

$$\dot{y}_i = \frac{\frac{1}{4} y_{i+2} + y_{i+1} - y_{i-1} + \frac{1}{4} y_{i-2}}{\Delta t} - \frac{4}{3} \Delta t^2 \ddot{y}$$

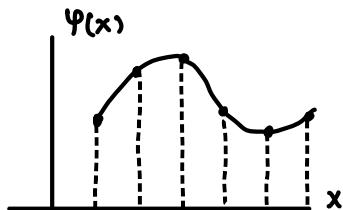
A very common package \sim Predictor or corrector codes that evaluate the derivatives at multiple Δt 's

10 - 11 - 21

Boundary Value Problems

Typically 2nd order ODE or PDE

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \varphi(x) = 0, \quad \frac{\partial^2 \varphi}{\partial x^2} = f(x) \quad \text{with specific BVs} \quad \varphi(0) = 1, \quad \varphi(\pi) = 0$$



$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(x_{j+1}) &= \varphi(x_j + \Delta x) = \varphi(x_j) + \varphi'(x_j) \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \varphi''(x_j) \Delta x^2 + \\ &\quad \frac{1}{3!} \varphi'''(x_j) \Delta x^3 + \frac{1}{4!} \varphi''''(x_j) \Delta x^4 \end{aligned}$$

$$\varphi_{j+1} = \varphi_j + \varphi'(x_j) \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \varphi''(x_j) \Delta x^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \varphi'''(x_j) \Delta x^3 + \frac{1}{4!} \varphi''''(x_j) \Delta x^4$$

$$\varphi_{j-1} = \varphi_j - \varphi'(x_j) \Delta x - \frac{1}{2} \varphi''(x_j) \Delta x^2 - \frac{1}{3!} \varphi'''(x_j) \Delta x^3 - \frac{1}{4!} \varphi''''(x_j) \Delta x^4$$

$$\varphi_{j+1} + \varphi_{j-1} = 2\varphi_j + \varphi''(x_j) \Delta x^2 + \frac{1}{4!} \varphi'''' \Delta x^4$$

$$\frac{\varphi_{j+1} + \varphi_{j-1} - 2\varphi_j}{\Delta x^2} = \varphi''(x_j) + \frac{1}{12} \Delta x^2 \varphi''''(x_j), \quad \text{How can I use this?}$$

$$\varphi(x) \rightarrow \varphi(x_j) \rightarrow \varphi_j = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_0 \\ \varphi_1 \\ \varphi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \rightarrow D_{ij}^2$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} - 2 \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} + \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_{j-1} \\ \varphi_j \\ \varphi_{j+1} \\ \vdots \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ \varphi''_{j-1} \\ \varphi''_j \\ \varphi''_{j+1} \\ \vdots \end{array} \right)$$

$$D^2 = \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

Boundary Conditions

Let's be specific, $0 \leq x \leq L$, $\Delta x = L/N$, $N = 6$

① Zero - Value B.C., $\varphi(0) = \varphi(L) = 0$

Q: How many unknowns are there?

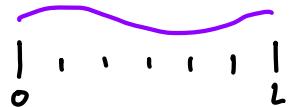
A: For zero value boundary conditions, number of unknowns = $N-1$

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc} \frac{-2}{\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{2}{\Delta x^2} & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\Delta x^2} - \frac{2}{\Delta x^2} \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \varphi_1 \\ \varphi_2 \\ \varphi_3 \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_n \end{array} \right)$$

$j=1$

What if $\varphi_0 = c_0$

② Zero... derivative boundary conditions

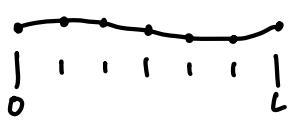


Q: How many unknowns are there?

A: We have $N+1$ unknowns

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} -2 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \quad \varphi'_0 = \frac{\varphi_1 - \varphi_{-1}}{2\Delta x} = 0$$

③ Periodic Boundary Conditions



There are N unknowns

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x^2} \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} -2 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & -2 \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} \varphi_1 \\ \varphi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_N \end{array} \right)$$

10-13-21

Discretizing ODE : we can turn an equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \cos(x) \psi(x) = 0 \quad \text{w/ Boundary Conditions } \psi(0) \dots \psi(2\pi) = C$$

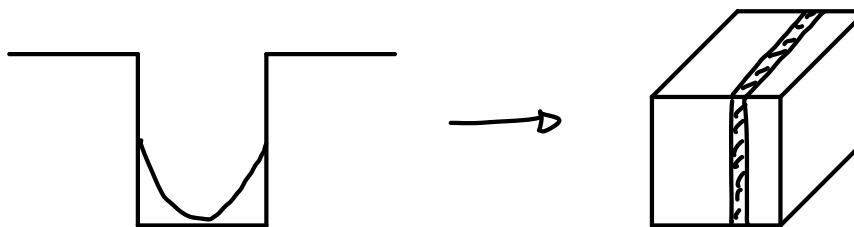
we can turn this into a matrix equation, $M_{ij} \psi_j = b_i$

Similarly we can turn Eigenvalue DE's \rightarrow Matrix eigenvalue equations

Turning a Physics problem \rightarrow numerical problem

Example : $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi + \frac{1}{2} kx^2 \psi = E \psi$

Let's say this is an electron in a box with a width of this $V(x)$



computers do not understand units.

\rightsquigarrow Using MKS units can lead to accuracy problems

\rightsquigarrow Lose intuition on what is going on

You want to go to dimensionless units, change from dimension-full variables to dimensionless.

$$x = \underbrace{l s <}_{\text{dimensionless}} \text{Length we choose for convenience}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{l^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi + \frac{1}{2} k l^2 s^2 \psi = E \psi$$

We want to choose l s.t. our equation becomes simpler. Do not make $l < 0$ or imaginary.

IF solution $\sim e^{iksl}$

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2m l^2} = \frac{1}{2} k l^2 \quad \therefore \quad l^2 = \frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{km}} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{km}{\hbar}}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{m}} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_0$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \psi + s^2 \psi = \frac{2E}{\hbar \omega_0} \psi \quad : \quad E = \underbrace{\epsilon E_0}_{\substack{\text{Dimension-Full} \\ \text{Dimensionless}}} \quad \text{Set } E_0 = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_0$$

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \gamma + s^2 \gamma = E \gamma : \gamma(0) = \gamma(L) = 0$$

Aside: A differential equation is not well posed without Boundary Conditions : $\gamma(\pm\infty) = 0$

We are now working in a box of finite width and this will change the true answers. $x=L$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{L^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \gamma + \frac{1}{2} k L^2 s^2 \gamma = E E_0 \gamma, \text{ Do either } \frac{\hbar^2}{2mL^2} = E_0 \text{ or } \frac{1}{2} k L^2 = E_0$$

$\frac{\hbar^2}{2mL^2} \rightarrow, k = \frac{n\pi}{L}$: Energy of a particle in a box, KE

$\frac{1}{2} k L^2 \rightarrow$: Max potential energy

$$-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \gamma + \frac{1/2 k L^2}{\hbar^2/2mL^2} s^2 \gamma : -\frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} \gamma + \frac{1}{2} s^2 \gamma : \xrightarrow{s \rightarrow \text{Large}} \text{HO approx is good!} \\ \xrightarrow{s \rightarrow \text{Small}} \text{KE dominates}$$

10-18-21

Groups

A group is a set of elements and binary operations such that the operation only yields other members of the group.

$\forall a, b \in G$; If $a \circ b = c$ then $c \in G \rightarrow$ closure

(1) The operation is associative

$$\forall a, b, c \in G \quad (a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$$

(2) \exists an identity element e such that

$$a \circ e = e \circ a = a \quad \forall a \in G$$

(3) $\forall a \in G \exists a^{-1} \in G$ (For all a is G then exists a^{-1} in G)

$$a \circ a^{-1} = a^{-1} \circ a = e$$

If $a \circ b = b \circ a$ for all $a, b \in G$ then we say that this an Abelian Group

Quiz! Is it a Group?

(1) Integers under addition \therefore Abelian Group

(2) Integers under multiplication \therefore Not a Group

(3) Real numbers under multiplication \therefore Not a Group

(4) " excluding zero " \therefore Abelian Group

(5) Rotation about \hat{k} axis \therefore Abelian Group

(6) General 3D rotation \therefore Group, not Abelian Group

(7) Rules of chess \therefore Not a Group

10-20-21

Groups

Representations: We can have different representations, because it is truly defined by its table of binary operations.

Example: Rotate a 2D vector about the origin

$$R(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\alpha) & -\sin(\alpha) \\ \sin(\alpha) & \cos(\alpha) \end{pmatrix} \text{ form a group.}$$

The set of complex numbers of unit modulus

$$|z|=1, z = e^{i\theta} : z_1, z_2 = e^{i\theta_1}, e^{i\theta_2} = e^{i(\theta_1 + \theta_2)}$$

Consider numbers & 2D rotation that have the same binary operation

$$\text{IF } R(\alpha_1) R(\alpha_2) = R(\alpha_3) : e^{i\theta_1} e^{i\theta_2} = e^{i\theta_3}$$

These are both representations of $U(1)$. The unitary group in 1D.

Field: A field has two operations and a set of elements F ($F, +, \cdot$) that satisfy

(1) $(F, +, \cdot)$ is an Abelian group with identity "0"

(2) Let F' be the set F without "0" then $\{F', \cdot\}$ form a group with identity "e"

(3) For $a, b, c \in F$ then $a \cdot (b+c) = a \cdot b + a \cdot c$

Real numbers, with "+" & " \times " are a field. : need two operations for field

2D vectors? NO! 3D vectors? NO!

Vector Space is defined over a field F & consists of a set of elements $V(F)$ such that

(1) There exists an operation "o" such that $\{V(F), "o"\}$ form an Abelian group

(2) For all $\alpha, \beta \in F$ and $x \in V(F)$ that $\alpha \vec{x} \in V(F)$

$$(a) \alpha(\beta\vec{x}) = \alpha\beta\vec{x}$$

$$(b) \text{There is an identity element } \mathbf{1}. \quad \mathbf{1}\vec{x} = \vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x} \in V(F)$$

$$(c) \alpha(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = \alpha\vec{x} + \alpha\vec{y}$$

$$(d) (\alpha + \beta)\vec{x} = \alpha\vec{x} + \beta\vec{x}$$

Ex: F is the real numbers \mathbb{R} , $V(F)$ = all 3D vectors, F is the complex numbers \mathbb{C}
 $V(F)$ Span complex 2×2 -vectors

F is a complex number

$$V(F) = \mathbb{Z}_1 \mathbf{1} + i \mathbb{Z}_x \hat{\sigma}_x + i \mathbb{Z}_y \hat{\sigma}_y + i \mathbb{Z}_z \hat{\sigma}_z \text{ where } \mathbf{1}, \hat{\sigma} \text{ are } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices}$$

Is the space of polynomials a vector space? Yes!

10-22-21

Isomorphism: Given groups G with binary operation " \circ " & H with operation $*$ if there exists a one-to-one mapping $\psi(g_i) = h_i$ and $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$ if $g_1 \circ g_2 = g_3$ then $h_1 * h_2 = h_3$, then the two groups are isomorphic.

G are the + reals with operation " \times " H the reals mapping $h_i = \text{Im}(g_i)$
 $g_1 \times g_2 = g_3$

Linear Transformations: A linear transformation or linear operation A on a vector space $V(F)$ is a correspondence that exists to every $x, y \in V(F)$ the vectors $A(x) \in A(y)$ such that $A(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha Ax + \beta Ay$ for scalars $\alpha, \beta \in F$.

Q: Is it a linear operation?

Rotation of vectors? yes. Differentiation of polynomials? yes.

Transformation of vectors:

$$\Gamma \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{x} + \vec{v}_0, \text{ where } \vec{v}_0 \text{ is constant}$$

$$\Gamma \vec{x} + \Gamma \vec{y} = \vec{x} + \vec{v}_0 + \vec{y} + \vec{v}_0 \neq \Gamma(\vec{x} + \vec{y}), \Gamma'(a) f(x) = f(x+a)' \quad G$$

Linear operations look like multiplication but they might not commute

$$A, A_2 x \stackrel{?}{=} A_2 A_1 x$$

Big Question: IF $Ax = y$ and we know y and A , can we find x ? Does A have an "inverse" operator? If & only if A possesses the following properties.

(A) IF $x \neq y$ then we know (or this implies) $Ax \neq Ay$

(B) $\forall y \in V(F) \exists x \in V(F)$ such that $Ax = y$ then A^{-1} exists such that
 $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = \mathbb{I}$

Note, even if $AB = \mathbb{I}$ this does not mean that A^{-1} exists

D derivatives $Dp(x) = \frac{d}{dx} p(x)$, $\int p(x) dt$, $DB = \mathbb{I}$ but $BD \neq \mathbb{I}$

When can we use A ? Often = "when can we solve problems":

Matrices & Matrix Representations

Recall that the vector \vec{x} exists independent of our basis - if we write
 $x = x_1 \hat{e}_1 + x_2 \hat{e}_2 + x_3 \hat{e}_3 = x^1 \hat{i} + x^2 \hat{j} + x^3 \hat{k}$ then $(x, y \in \mathbb{Z}) = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$

Similarly if I write $Ax = y$, w, that of A on a matrix. How do I find the matrix representation of A ?

To start we need a basis - Let's call it $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$ (B $\notin F$ use " x_i " but I find that confusing)

Then $x = \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i$, $y = \beta_i \mathbf{u}_i$, we also must define A in terms of this basis - For each \mathbf{u}_i in basis we need to know how A acts on \mathbf{u}_i .

$A\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \alpha_j \mathbf{u}^{(j)}$, then the equation $Ax = y \sum \beta_i \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = A \sum_j \alpha_j \mathbf{u}^{(j)} = \sum_j \alpha_j \alpha_{ij} \mathbf{u}^{(i)}$
 or subtract $\sum (\beta_i - \alpha_j \alpha_{ij}) \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = 0 \therefore \beta_i = \alpha_j \alpha_{ij}$

Return to our Question from chapter 1. How will A look in a different basis?
 \rightarrow What will change? \rightarrow What doesn't change?

Let B be a linear operator: It has the representation b_{ij} w.r.t $\{\mathbf{u}^{(i)}\}$
 b'_{ij} w.r.t $\{\mathbf{v}^{(i)}\}$

That is - $B\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = b_{ij} \mathbf{u}^{(i)}$, $B\mathbf{v}^{(j)} = b'_{ij} \mathbf{v}^{(i)}$

Finally - Let A transform $\mathbf{u}^{(i)} \rightarrow \mathbf{v}^{(i)}$, $A\mathbf{u}^{(i)} = \mathbf{v}^{(i)}$

$$B\mathbf{v}^{(i)} = B A \mathbf{u}^{(i)} = B \sum_k a_{kj} \mathbf{u}^{(k)} = \sum_k a_{kj} B\mathbf{u}^{(k)} = \sum_k a_{kj} \sum_i b_{ik} \mathbf{u}^{(i)}$$

$$\sum_k b_{kj} \mathbf{v}^{(k)} = \sum_k \sum_i b_{kj} a_{ik} \mathbf{u}^{(i)}, \sum_k b_{ik} a_{kj} = \sum_k a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

$$[B]_u [A]_{u \rightarrow v} = [A]_{u \rightarrow v} [B]_v, [B]_u = [A]_{u \rightarrow v} [B]_v [A]_{u \rightarrow v}^{-1}$$

\hookrightarrow Similarity transformation

10-25-21

Given B in U and V representations and A that maps $U \rightarrow V$

$$[B]_u [A]_{u \rightarrow v}^{-1} = [B]_v [A]_{u \rightarrow v}, B = a_{ii}^{-1} B_a \rightarrow \text{Similarity transformation}$$

why do we care?

→ Communication . . .

→ Simplification

\mathbb{B}' might be diagonal, \mathbb{B}' might be block diagonal

Given \mathbb{B} how do we find a_{11} ?

Eigenvectors

If there is a non-zero vector x such that $Ax = \lambda x$ when λ is a scalar then x is an eigenvector of a_{11} with eigenvalue λ .

To find λ , $(Ax - \lambda I)x = 0$, $(A - \lambda I)x = 0$. These are linear operators → Some basis $(a_{11} - \lambda I)x = 0$.

This has a non-trivial solution $(a_{11} - \lambda I)$ is a singular matrix or $\det[a_{11} - \lambda I] = 0$.

Numerically / computationally, if λ is a variable. $\det(a_{11} - \lambda I)$ is a N^{th} order polynomial if $\dim a_{11}$ is $N \times N$

It is easy to find the zeros of this polynomial by searching numerically. To find the end points of the vector. → Power method — Assume $y^{(i)}$ is a radial vector.

I can expand it in the eigenvectors of a_{11}

$$y^{(i)} = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 + c_3 x_3 + \dots$$

$$= c_i x_i$$

$$a_{11} y = c_1 \lambda_1 x_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 x_2 + \dots$$

$$a_{11}^2 y = c_1 \lambda_1^2 x_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^2 x_2 + \dots$$

$$a_{11}^n y = c_1 \lambda_1^n x_1 + c_2 \lambda_2^n x_2 + \dots$$

Largest eigenvalue grows fastest so $y^{(p)} = \frac{a_{11} y^{(p-1)}}{a_{11}^{-1} y^{(p-1)}}$

→ Flow to largest eigenvalue & its eigenvector, $a_{11}^{-1} y$ → Flow to smallest

$$a_{11} y^{(p+1)} = y^{(p)}$$

Byron & Fuller prove $\det(a_{11}\mathbb{B}) = \det(a_{11})\det(\mathbb{B})$, Then

$$\det(\mathbb{B}) = \det(a_{11}^{-1} a_{11}) = \det(a_{11}^{-1}) \det(a_{11})$$

have inverse determinants

Similar matrices

$$\hookrightarrow \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{S}$$

$$\text{then } \det(\mathbf{B}) = \det(\mathbf{S}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{S}) = \det(\mathbf{A}_{11})$$

Q: Can we find an \mathbf{S} that gives a simple \mathbf{B} given \mathbf{A}_{11} ?

A: Yes! Assume that we know all of the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A}_{11}

$$A_{11} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} = \lambda^{(i)} \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \quad a_{11jk} \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)} = \lambda^{(i)} \mathbf{x}_k^{(i)}$$

Construct a square matrix \mathbf{X}_{jk} for the eigenvectors

$$\mathbf{X}_{jk} = \mathbf{x}_j^{(k)} \text{ so that } (\mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{X})_{ik} = \sum_j a_{11ij} \mathbf{x}_j^{(k)} = \lambda^{(k)} \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} = \sum_j \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} (\lambda^{(j)} \delta_{ik})$$

$$\mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{A}_{11} \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{D}(\lambda^{(i)}) \longrightarrow \text{Diagonalizes } \mathbf{A}_{11}$$

Since the determinant of \mathbf{D} is the product of its elements, $\det(\mathbf{A}_{11}) = \prod \lambda^{(i)}$. This is true for the trace of \mathbf{A}_{11} as well

$$\det(\mathbf{A}_{11}) = \epsilon_{abc} a_{1a} a_{2b} a_{3c}$$

10-27-21

Kronecker products are useful when you have two separate vector spaces that you want to describe jointly.

If we have a Hamiltonian. As for \mathbf{S} and H_σ for a σ^i , how do we write the Hamiltonian.

$$H_{\text{simplified}} = H_S \otimes \mathbb{1}_\sigma + H_\sigma \otimes \mathbb{1}$$

Given two linear operators $A \notin B$ with matrix representations $a \in b$. The Kronecker product

$$a \otimes b = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}b & a_{12}b & a_{13}b \\ a_{21}b & \dots & \dots \\ a_{31}b & ; & ; \end{pmatrix}$$

A simple example

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = x_1 \hat{i} + x_2 \hat{j} + x_3 \hat{k}, \quad \hat{\mathbf{y}} = y_1 \hat{i} + y_2 \hat{j} + y_3 \hat{k}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}} \otimes \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 y_1 & x_1 y_2 & x_1 y_3 \\ x_2 y_1 & x_2 y_2 & x_2 y_3 \\ x_3 y_1 & x_3 y_2 & x_3 y_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad H_\sigma = \begin{pmatrix} E_+ & A \\ A & E_- \end{pmatrix}, \quad H_S = \begin{pmatrix} E_+ & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & E_0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & E_- \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H = H_\sigma \otimes \mathbb{1}_S + \mathbb{1}_\sigma \otimes H_S = \begin{pmatrix} E_+ \mathbb{1} & \Delta \mathbb{1} \\ \Delta \mathbb{1} & E_- \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{1} H_S & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbb{1} H_S \end{pmatrix}$$