

## ① Dual space and bra :

Suppose we are given a vector space  $V$  defined over a field  $F$  ( $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ). Take all the linear operators  $\Omega: V \rightarrow F$ . The collection of all such  $\Omega$ 's satisfy the vector space axioms. So, this collection of all  $\Omega$ 's such that  $\Omega: V \rightarrow F$  itself forms a vector space. It is called the Dual space of  $V$  and denoted by  $V^*$ .

Suppose we have a vector field  $V$  defined over  $\mathbb{C}$ . Take any vector,  $|v\rangle$ , from it. It has an associated 'dual' or 'bra' with it, defined as the operator  $\Omega: V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  s.t.

$$\Omega|f\rangle = \langle v|f \rangle \quad \forall |f\rangle \in V.$$

$[\langle v|f \rangle$  is the inner product of  $|v\rangle$  and  $|f\rangle]$

Clearly,  $\Omega$  is an element of  $V^*$ .

$\Omega$  is also denoted as  $\langle v|$ .

$V^*$  is also called the corresponding bra space of the vector or 'ket' space  $V$ .

This, bra and ket formalism is due to Dirac.

## Basis for Dual space:

Consider that our vector space  $V$  has an orthonormal basis  $\{|e_1\rangle, |e_2\rangle, \dots, |e_n\rangle\}$ . We claim that set of its duals, i.e.  $\{\langle e_1|, \langle e_2|, \dots, \langle e_n|\}$  provide a basis for  $V^*$ .

**Pf:** Suppose  $\Omega \in V^*$  and so  $\Omega: V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ .

Take any vector  $|v\rangle \in V$  and suppose

$$|v\rangle = \sum_i v_i |e_i\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega|v\rangle &= \sum_i \Omega v_i |e_i\rangle \\ &= \sum_i v_i (\Omega|e_i\rangle)\end{aligned}$$

Since our choice of  $v_i$ 's are arbitrary, the action of  $\Omega$  on  $|v\rangle$  depends on the action of  $\Omega$  on each  $|e_i\rangle$ ,  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Suppose  $\Omega|e_i\rangle = a_i$ , where  $a_i \in \mathbb{C}$  for  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Then,  $\Omega = \sum_j a_j |\langle e_j|$ , because

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega|e_i\rangle &= \sum_j a_j |\langle e_j|e_i\rangle \\ &= \sum_j a_j \delta_{ij} \\ &= a_i\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\{\langle e_1|, \langle e_2|, \dots, \langle e_n|\}$  span  $V^*$  and sufficient for it. So, it provides a basis for  $V^*$ .

## ⑥ Matrix representation of bra:

Suppose  $\alpha|v\rangle = |av\rangle$   $[\alpha \in \mathbb{C}]$

Then,  $\langle \alpha v | = \langle v | \alpha^*$ .

Pf :-  $\langle g | \alpha v \rangle = \alpha \langle g | v \rangle$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \alpha v | g \rangle = \alpha^* \langle v | g \rangle \quad [\text{Taking conjugates}]$$

$$\Rightarrow (\langle \alpha v |) |g\rangle = (\langle v | \alpha^*) |g\rangle \quad \forall |g\rangle \in V.$$

$$\therefore \langle \alpha v | = \langle v | \alpha^*. \quad [\text{Proved}]$$

Now, suppose  $|v\rangle = \sum v_i |e_i\rangle$  and  $|f\rangle = \sum f_i |e_i\rangle$

clearly,  $\langle v | = \sum \langle e_i | v_i^*$ .

And,  $\langle v | f \rangle = \sum v_i^* f_i$

$$= (v_1^* \ v_2^* \ \dots \ v_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\begin{pmatrix} f_1 \\ \vdots \\ f_n \end{pmatrix}$  is column matrix representation of  $|f\rangle$ ,  
so  $(v_1^* \ v_2^* \ \dots \ v_n^*)$  is the row matrix representation of  $\langle v |$ .

So,  $\langle v |$  is the transpose conjugate of  $|v\rangle$ .

Key take-away:-

We can view inner product as a 'bra' acting on a 'ket'.

- ① Bra followed by ket gives a scalar (inner product).
- ② Ket followed by bra gives an operator (outer product).

$$|v\rangle \langle w| \quad (\text{crossed out})$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} (w_1^* \ w_2^* \ \dots \ w_n^*)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} v_1 w_1^* & v_1 w_2^* & \dots & v_1 w_n^* \\ v_2 w_1^* & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & & & \\ v_n w_1^* & \dots & \dots & v_n w_n^* \end{pmatrix}$$

③ Note:

$$|v\rangle = \sum_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| v \rangle$$

$$= \left( \sum_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| \right) |v\rangle$$

clearly,  $I = \sum_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|$  (Identity)

The operator  $P_i = |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|$  is the  $i^{th}$  projector operator

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } (AB)_{ij} &= \langle e_i | AB | e_j \rangle = \langle e_i | A | B | e_j \rangle \\ &= \langle e_i | A \left( \sum_k |e_k\rangle \langle e_k| \right) B | e_j \rangle \\ &= \sum_k \langle e_i | A | e_k \rangle \langle e_k | B | e_j \rangle \end{aligned}$$

## Adjoint:

If  $\Omega|v\rangle = |\Omega v\rangle$  then the operator that transforms  $\langle v|$  to  $\langle \Omega v|$  is  $\Omega^+$  (adjoint of  $\Omega$ ).

$$\langle \Omega v| = \langle v| \Omega^+ \text{ (NOTE the order)}$$

**Ex:** Matrix corresponding to  $\Omega^+$  is the transpose conjugate of  $\Omega$ , i.e.  $(\Omega^+)^*_{ij} = \Omega_{ji}^*$ .

[HINT: Expand everything in terms of matrix]

$$\text{Ex: } (\Omega \Lambda)^+ = \Lambda^+ \Omega^+$$

## Hermitian and Anti-hermitian operator:

① An operator  $\Omega$  is hermitian if  $\Omega = \Omega^+$

② An operator  $\Omega$  is anti-hermitian if  $\Omega = -\Omega^+$ .

## Unitary operator:

① An operator  $U$  is unitary if  $UU^+ = U^+U = I$ .

**Thm:** An operator  $U$  is unitary iff it preserves inner product.

**Pf:** Suppose  $U$  acts on all  $|v\rangle$  of  $V$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\langle v_1 | v_2 \rangle &= \langle UV_1 | UV_2 \rangle \\ &= \langle v_1 | U^+U | v_2 \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

True for all  $|v_1\rangle, |v_2\rangle \in V$ , iff  $U^+U = I$ .

[Proved]

 **Thm:** If  $A$  is a transformation matrix of orthonormal bases then  $A$  is unitary.

**Pf:**  $\{|\mathbf{e}_1\rangle, \dots, |\mathbf{e}_n\rangle\} \xrightarrow{\text{A}} \{|\mathbf{f}_1\rangle, \dots, |\mathbf{f}_n\rangle\}$ .

$$|\mathbf{f}_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} |\mathbf{e}_j\rangle$$

$$\langle \mathbf{f}_k | = \sum_{l=1}^n A_{lk}^* \langle \mathbf{e}_l |$$

$$\langle \mathbf{f}_k | \mathbf{f}_i \rangle = \sum_{l=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \langle \mathbf{e}_l | A_{lk}^* A_{ij} | \mathbf{e}_j \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta_{ki} = \sum_{l=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{lk}^* A_{ij} \delta_{lj}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} A_{jk}^*$$

$\Rightarrow AA^+ = I$ . Similarly,  $A^+A = I$ . Thus,  $A$  is unitary.

[Proved]

**Normal operators:**

$N$  is normal if  $NN^+ = N^+N$ .

Clearly,  ~~$N$  is normal~~.

Hermitian, Anti-hermitian and unitary operators are normal operators.

## Basis transformation:

Suppose we transform from one orthonormal basis  $\{|e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_n\rangle\}$  to  $\{|f_1\rangle, \dots, |f_n\rangle\}$  using the unitary operator  $A$ .

$$\text{Now, } |f_i\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} |e_j\rangle \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Suppose vector  $|v\rangle$  is expressed in the earlier basis  $\{|e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_n\rangle\}$  and the transformed basis  $\{|f_1\rangle, \dots, |f_n\rangle\}$  as follows:

$$|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i |e_i\rangle \Rightarrow |v\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n v_j |e_j\rangle$$

$$|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n v'_i |f_i\rangle$$

What is the relation between the old and transformed coordinates?

$$\text{Now, } \sum_{j=1}^n v_j |e_j\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n v'_i |f_i\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^n v_j |e_j\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n v'_i \left( \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} |e_j\rangle \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^n \left( v_j - \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ij} v'_i \right) |e_j\rangle = 0$$

Since the basis is orthonormal, so each term in bracket is zero.

$$\therefore v_j = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ij} v'_i$$

$$\text{So, if } v = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}, v' = \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ v'_2 \\ \vdots \\ v'_n \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then } v = A v'$$

$$\Rightarrow A^+ v = A^+ A v'$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{v' = A^+ v} \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} \text{As } A \text{ is} \\ \text{unitary, so} \\ A A^+ = I \end{array} \right)$$

## What about transformation of operator matrix?

Suppose  $\Omega: V \rightarrow V$ .

Let  $\Omega|v\rangle = |w\rangle$

Now, suppose in old <sup>basis</sup> representation, the matrix of  $\Omega$  is  $\Omega$ .

Then,  $\Omega v = w$ , where  $v$  and  $w$  are the column matrices of old coordinates.

If modified coordinates of the vector are the column matrices are  $v'$  and  $w'$  then,

$$v' = A^+ v \Rightarrow v = A v'$$

$$w' = A^+ w \Rightarrow w = A w'$$

$$\therefore \Omega(Av') = Aw'$$

$$\Rightarrow w' = (A^+ \Omega A) v' \quad [A \text{ is unitary, so } A^+ = A^{-1}]$$

Thus, matrix changes from  $\Omega$  to  $A^+ \Omega A$ .

### WORD OF CAUTION

The vectors and operators are abstract objects that have a particular representation in a given orthonormal basis. The representation changes when we shift the basis. The abstract objects remain the same.

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors:

$(|v\rangle \neq |0\rangle)$

If  $\Omega|v\rangle = \omega|v\rangle$  for some  $|v\rangle \in V$  and scalar  $\omega$ ,  $\omega$  is called an eigenvalue and  $|v\rangle$  the corresponding eigenvector.

If  $\alpha$  is an arbitrary scalar,

$$\Omega(\alpha|v\rangle) = \alpha\Omega|v\rangle = \alpha\omega|v\rangle = \omega(\alpha|v\rangle)$$

Thus,  $\alpha|v\rangle$  is also a corresponding eigenvector.

All eigenvectors corresponding to an eigenvalue form an eigen space.

If  $\dim = 1$ , it is non-degenerate.

If  $\dim > 1$ , it is degenerate.

Now,  $\Omega|v\rangle = \omega|v\rangle$

$$\Rightarrow (\Omega - \omega I)|v\rangle = |0\rangle$$

Assuming  $(\Omega - \omega I)^{-1}$  exists, operating it on both sides,

$$|v\rangle = (\Omega - \omega I)^{-1}|0\rangle, \text{ impossible since } |v\rangle \neq |0\rangle.$$
$$= |0\rangle$$

Thus,  $|\Omega - \omega I| = 0$ .

↳ characteristic eq<sup>n</sup> for determining eigenvalues.

Eg. Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ -7 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$ . Find its eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

$$\rightarrow |A - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} -5-\lambda & 2 \\ -7 & 4-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda+5)(\lambda-4) + 14 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 + \lambda - 6 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = -3, 2$$

$\therefore$  Eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 = -3, \lambda_2 = 2$ .

$$\lambda_1 = -3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ -7 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = -3 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -5x + 2y \\ -7x + 4y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3x \\ -3y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-5x + 2y = -3x$$

$$-7x + 4y = -3y \Rightarrow x = y$$

$\therefore$  Eigenvectors are  $t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $t$  is an arbitrary scalar.

$$\lambda_2 = 2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -5 & 2 \\ -7 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -5x + 2y \\ -7x + 4y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x \\ 2y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-5x + 2y = 2x$$

$$-7x + 4y = 2y \Rightarrow \frac{x}{y} = \frac{2}{7}$$

$\therefore$  Eigenvectors are  $t \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $t$  is an arbitrary scalar.

Ex. Consider  $\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . ( $\Omega: \mathbb{R}^3 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ )

$$\rightarrow |\Omega - \lambda I| = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - 2)^2 \lambda = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 0, 2, 2 \quad (\text{Degenerate})$$

$$\lambda = 0$$

Corresponding eigenvector =  $t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$\lambda = 2,$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$$

$$-x + z = 0 \quad \textcircled{i}$$

$$0 = 0 \quad \textcircled{ii}$$

$$x - z = 0 \quad \textcircled{iii}$$

The conditions  ~~$x_1 = x_3$  and  $x_2 = 0$~~   $x = z$  and  $y = \text{arbitrary}$   
 defines an ensemble of vectors orthogonal to  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .  
 Two-fold degeneracy leads us to two-dimensional eigenspace.

We can take two orthogonal eigenvectors,

$$t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We have produced 3 orthogonal eigenvectors,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ spanning the domain } \mathbb{R}^3.$$

Ex.  $\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, (\Omega: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2)$

$\rightarrow \text{Find } \det(\Omega - \lambda I) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 4-\lambda & 1 \\ -1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (4-\lambda)(2-\lambda) + 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 9 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda - 3)^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 3, 3$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4x_1 + x_2 = 3x_1 +$$

$$-x_1 + 2x_2 = 3x_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x_1}{x_2} = -1$$

$\therefore$  Only one eigenvector of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . It does not span the domain  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

**Ex:** If  $\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  (Field is  $\mathbb{C}$ ), what are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

**Thm:** An operator is Hermitian iff its eigenvalues are real.

**Pf:** Suppose  $\Omega|\omega\rangle = \omega|\omega\rangle \Rightarrow \langle \omega | \Omega | \omega \rangle = \omega \langle \omega | \omega \rangle$   
 $\Rightarrow \langle \omega | \Omega^+ = \langle \omega | \omega^*$   
 $\Rightarrow \langle \omega | \Omega^+ | \omega \rangle = \langle \omega | \omega^* | \omega \rangle$   
 $= \omega^* \langle \omega | \omega \rangle$

Now,  $\omega = \omega^*$  iff  $(\omega - \omega^*) \langle \omega | \omega \rangle = 0$  [ $\because \langle \omega | \omega \rangle > 0$   
 $\nexists |\omega\rangle \neq 0$ ]  
 $\Rightarrow \langle \omega | \Omega - \Omega^+ | \omega \rangle = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow \Omega = \Omega^+$ , i.e.  $\Omega$  is hermitian (Proved)

Thm: Eigenvectors of normal operator with distinct eigenvalues are different. (Requires to prove if  $N$  is normal and if  $N|\lambda\rangle = \lambda|N\rangle$ , then  $N^*|\lambda\rangle = \lambda^*|N\rangle$ )

Diagonalization:

Spectral theorem: If  $N$  is a  $n \times n$  normal matrix, i.e.  $NN^* = N^*N$  then  $\exists$  an eigenbasis in which  $N$  is diagonal.  $[N: V^n \rightarrow V^n]$

Pf: The  $n^{\text{th}}$  degree polynomial eq",  $|N - \lambda I| = 0$  must have at least one solution  $\in \mathbb{C}$ .

Suppose a solution is  $\lambda_1$ . Let corresponding eigenvector be  $|\lambda_1\rangle$ , i.e.  $N|\lambda_1\rangle = \lambda_1|\lambda_1\rangle$ .

Consider the vector <sup>sub-</sup>space  $\perp$  to  $|\lambda_1\rangle$ .

Suppose  $|\lambda_1\rangle$  is normalized to unity  $[\langle \lambda_1 | \lambda_1 \rangle = 0]$ .

If a basis of  $|\lambda_1\rangle^\perp$  is  $\{ |e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_{n-1}\rangle \}$ , then

$$\text{Duh!} \quad \langle e_j | N | \lambda_1 \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle e_j | \lambda_1 \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle \lambda_1 | N | e_j \rangle = \langle N^* \lambda_1 | e_j \rangle = 0$$

Since  $N$  is normal,  $N^*|\lambda_1\rangle = \lambda_1^*|N\rangle$

$$\Rightarrow \langle N^* \lambda_1 | = \langle \lambda_1 | \lambda_1$$

$$\therefore \langle N^* \lambda_1 | e_j \rangle = \langle \lambda_1 | \lambda_1 | e_j \rangle = \lambda_1 \langle \lambda_1 | e_j \rangle$$

$$\therefore N = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & M & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \end{pmatrix}, N^* = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^* & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & M^* & & & \\ \vdots & & & & \\ 0 & & & & \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$

$$NN^+ = \begin{pmatrix} (\lambda_1)^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & M M^+ & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}, \quad N^+N = \begin{pmatrix} (\lambda_1)^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & & & \\ \vdots & & M^+ M & \\ 0 & & & \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$NN^+ = N^+N \Rightarrow MM^+ = M^+M, \text{ i.e.}$$

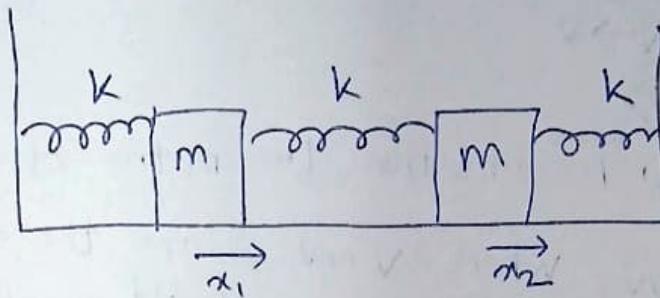
$M$  is also normal.

So, we proceed in this manner and we get an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $N$  in which  $N = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$ ,  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the eigenvalues of  $N$ .

### EAI/ Diagonalization

Thm: If two <sup>normal</sup> operators are commuting, i.e.  $\Lambda \Omega = \Omega \Lambda$ , then they are simultaneously diagonalizable.

## Solving a physical system with eigenvectors



Consider the spring-mass system above. Suppose the blocks are displaced by  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  from their equilibrium position respectively.

Using Newton's Laws, we can show (Exercise!) that

$$m\ddot{x}_1 = -kx_1 - k(x_1 - x_2)$$

$$m\ddot{x}_2 = -kx_2 - k(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$\text{Thus, } \ddot{x}_1 = -\frac{k}{m}(2x_1 - x_2)$$

$$\ddot{x}_2 = -\frac{k}{m}(-x_1 + 2x_2)$$

$$\therefore \begin{pmatrix} \ddot{x}_1 \\ \ddot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{k}{m} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{---} \star$$

$$\text{Now, } \begin{vmatrix} 2-\lambda & -1 \\ -1 & 2-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 1, 3$$

$$\xrightarrow{\lambda=1} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad [\text{Normalized to unity}]$$

$$\xrightarrow{\lambda=3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Observe that  $\star$  has been expressed in the basis  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

Thus, in new basis,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \ddot{x}_1' \\ \ddot{x}_2' \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{k}{m} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{--- } \textcircled{\star}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x}_1' &= -\frac{k}{m} x_1' \\ \ddot{x}_2' &= -\frac{3k}{m} x_2' \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Our familiar simple SHM} \\ \text{equation.} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1' \\ x_2' \end{pmatrix} = A^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{x_1 + x_2}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{x_1 - x_2}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$\textcircled{\star}$  tells us that we can imagine  $x_1'$  and  $x_2'$  to be two independent harmonic oscillators [Since  $\ddot{x}_1' = -\frac{k}{m} x_1'$ ,  $\ddot{x}_2' = -\frac{3k}{m} x_2'$ , so eqn. of  $x_1'$  and  $x_2'$  are completely independent of each other.] So, if the system is left in a pure state  $x_1' (= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}x_1 + \frac{x_2}{\sqrt{2}})$ , that is both move  $\rightarrow \rightarrow$  by same amount, it will keep oscillating like this. Similarly, if it left in a pure state  $x_2' (= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}x_1 - \frac{x_2}{\sqrt{2}})$ , that is they move  $\leftarrow \rightarrow$  by same amount, it will also keep oscillating like this.

These are the normal modes.

The corresponding normal frequencies  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  are given by  $\omega_1^2 = +\frac{k}{m} \Rightarrow \omega_1 = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$

$$\omega_2^2 = \frac{3k}{m} \Rightarrow \omega_2 = \sqrt{\frac{3k}{m}}$$

Thus, we reduced a system of coupled oscillator to a system of simpler, uncoupled oscillators using Linear Algebra!

## Infinite Dimensional Vector Space:-

Suppose we have a continuous line  $x$ , and at each value of  $x$ , value of function  $f(x)$  is specified.

We can approximate  $f$  in a range  $[a, b]$  by taking large no. of discrete points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and evaluating  $f(x)$  at each point.

Then,  $|f\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_n) \end{pmatrix}$ .

Basis vectors are  $|x_i\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$   $i^{\text{th}}$  place.

They satisfy   
 i)  $\langle x_i | x_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$  (orthogonality)   
 ii)  $\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i\rangle \langle x_i| = I$  (completeness)

Inner product  $\langle f | g \rangle = \sum_i f^*(x_i) g(x_i)$

When we tend  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (cont. limit), it approaches infinity. So, we re-define,

$$\langle f | g \rangle = \sum_i f^*(x_i) g(x_i) \Delta, \quad \Delta = \frac{b-a}{n+1}.$$

$$\therefore \langle f | g \rangle = \int_a^b f^*(x) g(x) dx \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

$$\langle f | f \rangle = \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx$$

The completeness criteria leads to

$$\int_a^b \langle m' \rangle \langle m' | d m' = 1$$

$$\text{Now, } |f\rangle = \int_a^b \langle m' \rangle \langle m' | f \rangle d m'$$

$$\langle n | f \rangle = \int_a^b \langle n | m' \rangle \langle m' | f \rangle d m'$$

But,  $\langle n | n' \rangle = 0$  when  $n \neq n'$ .

$$\langle n | f \rangle = \int_{n-\epsilon}^{n+\epsilon} \langle n | n' \rangle \langle n' | f \rangle d n'$$

$$\langle n | n' \rangle = \delta(n - n') \quad [\text{Dirac delta function}]$$

Properties:

$$\text{i) } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(n - n') f(n') d n' = f(n)$$

$$\text{ii) } \delta(n) = \delta(-n)$$

$$\text{iii) } \frac{d}{dx} \delta(n - n') = -\delta(n - n')$$