

## I. 2. Inner product spaces

To define the length or magnitude of a vector, the definition of a vector space must be restricted by adding another operation: the inner (or scalar) product.

Remember the dot product in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :  $|\vec{A}| = \sqrt{\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A}}$

where  $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} = \vec{B} \cdot \vec{A}$  (symmetry)

$\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} \geq 0$ ,  $\vec{A} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$  iff  $\vec{A} = 0$  (positive semi-definiteness)

$\vec{A} \cdot (b\vec{B} + c\vec{C}) = b\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B} + c\vec{A} \cdot \vec{C}$  (linearity)

Defn. A vector space with an inner product is called an inner product space.

To define an inner product,  <sup>$\langle W|V \rangle$</sup>  between vectors  $|V\rangle, |W\rangle \in V$ , we demand that it fulfills the following properties:

- $\langle V|W \rangle = \langle W|V \rangle^*$  (skew symmetry, ensures that  $\langle V|V \rangle$  is real).
- $\langle V|V \rangle \geq 0$ ;  $\langle V|V \rangle = 0$  iff  $|\vec{V}\rangle = |0\rangle$ . (positive semi-definiteness)
- $\langle V|(\alpha|W\rangle + \beta|Z\rangle) = \alpha\langle V|W\rangle + \beta\langle V|Z\rangle$  (linearity)  
 $= \langle V|\alpha W + \beta Z\rangle$

From the first and third of these "axioms" follows

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \alpha W + \beta Z | V \rangle &= \langle V | \alpha W + \beta Z \rangle^* = \alpha^* \langle V | W \rangle^* + \beta^* \langle V | Z \rangle^* \\ &= \alpha^* \langle W | V \rangle + \beta^* \langle Z | V \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

(antilinearity in the first ("bra") factor)

⇒ using a basis to expand, we get  $\langle V | W \rangle = \sum_i v_i \langle i | \rangle, |W\rangle = \sum_j w_j |j\rangle$

$$\boxed{\langle V | W \rangle = \sum_{i,j} v_i^* w_j \langle i | j \rangle}$$

Defn Two vectors are orthogonal if their inner product vanishes.

Defn  $|V| \equiv \sqrt{\langle V | V \rangle}$  is the norm or length of the vector.  
A normalized vector has unit norm.

Defn A set of normalized basis vectors that are mutually orthogonal is called an orthonormal basis.

In an orthonormal basis we have

$$\langle i | j \rangle = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

and  $\langle V | W \rangle = \sum_{i,j} v_i^* w_j \langle i | j \rangle = \sum_i v_i^* w_i \quad (\Delta)$

$$\Rightarrow \langle V | V \rangle = \sum_i v_i^* v_i = \sum_i |v_i|^2 \geq 0 \quad (0 \text{ iff } v_i = 0 \forall i)$$

Gram-Schmidt theorem Any basis of linearly independent vectors can be orthonormalized by forming appropriate linear combinations of the basis vectors.

(Proof a little later, after we have acquired more familiarity with inner product)

+) So by representing  $|W\rangle$  in terms of the orthonormal basis  $|i\rangle$ , we can write  $|W\rangle = \sum_j w_j |j\rangle$ . This is a linear combination of the basis vectors. The inner product  $\langle V | W \rangle$  can be worked out through matrix multiplication.

### I.3. Dual spaces and Dirac notation

In an <sup>orthonormal</sup> basis  $\{|i\rangle\}$  we can represent any vector  $|V\rangle$  through its components, say in a column vector:

$$|V\rangle \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad |W\rangle \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The inner product  $\langle V|W\rangle$  can then be understood as performing a matrix multiplication between the transpose conjugate of one vector with the other:

$$\langle V|W\rangle = [v_1^*, v_2^*, \dots, v_n^*] \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

We can thus associate  $\langle V|$  with the row vector  $[v_1^*, v_2^*, \dots, v_n^*]$ , and vice versa. So, given a "ket"  $|V\rangle$ , represented in an orthonormal basis  $|i\rangle$  as a column vector  $\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$ , we can construct a dual "bra" vector  $\langle V|$ , represented in the (dual version of the) same basis as a row vector  $[v_1^*, v_2^*, \dots, v_n^*]$ :

$$|V\rangle = \sum_i v_i |i\rangle \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow [v_1^*, v_2^*, \dots, v_n^*] \leftrightarrow \sum_i v_i^* \langle i| = \langle V|$$

" $\leftrightarrow$ " means "within a basis".

Obviously, the basis vectors themselves are represented as

$$|i\rangle \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow i^{\text{th}} \text{ row} \quad \langle j| \leftrightarrow [0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0] \leftarrow j^{\text{th}} \text{ column.}$$



The above insights allow us to compute the coefficients of an arbitrary vector  $|V\rangle$  in a specific orthonormal

basis:  $\boxed{v_i = \langle i|V\rangle}$

Proof: If  $|V\rangle = \sum_j v_j |j\rangle$ , then  $\langle i|V\rangle = \sum_j v_j \underbrace{\langle i|j\rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} = v_i$

Similarly,  $\boxed{\langle V|i\rangle = v_i^*}$

$$\left( \langle V| = \sum_j v_j^* \langle j| \Rightarrow \langle V|i\rangle = \sum_j v_j^* \underbrace{\langle j|i\rangle}_{\delta_{ji}} = v_i^* \right)$$

The transition from the column  $\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$  to the complex conjugate row  $\underbrace{[v_1^*, v_2^*, \dots, v_n^*]}_{\text{and vice versa}}$  is called the "adjoint operation"

We therefore also call the bra  $\langle V|$  the adjoint of the ket  $|V\rangle$ , and vice versa. For the adjoint of  $a|V\rangle$  we get

$$a|V\rangle \leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} av_1 \\ av_2 \\ \vdots \\ av_n \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow [a^*v_1^*, a^*v_2^*, \dots, a^*v_n^*] \leftrightarrow \langle V|a^*$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{\langle aV| = \langle V|a^*}$$

(the adjoint of  $|aV\rangle$  is  $a^*$  times the adjoint of  $|V\rangle$ ).

If  $a|V\rangle = b|W\rangle + c|Z\rangle$ , then  $\boxed{\langle aV| = \langle V|a^* = \langle W|b^* + \langle Z|c^*}$

Recalling that  $v_i = \langle i|V\rangle$ , we can derive

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} |V\rangle &= \sum_i v_i |i\rangle = \sum_i |i\rangle \langle i|V\rangle \\ \langle V| &= \sum_i v_i^* \langle i| = \sum_i \langle V|i\rangle \langle i| \end{aligned}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_i |i\rangle \langle i| = \mathbb{1}$$

(basis decomposition of the unit operator) (12)

Proof of the Gram-Schmidt theorem: by construction.

Let  $|I\rangle, |II\rangle, \dots$  be a linearly independent (but not yet orthonormal) basis.

$$\text{Set } |1\rangle \equiv \frac{|I\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle I|I\rangle}} = \frac{|I\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle I|I\rangle}} \quad (\text{such that } \langle 1|1\rangle = 1)$$

For the second vector, consider

$$|2'\rangle \equiv |II\rangle - |1\rangle\langle 1|II\rangle \quad (=|II\rangle \text{ minus the part pointing along } |1\rangle)$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle 1|2'\rangle = \langle 1|II\rangle - \underbrace{\langle 1|1\rangle}_{1}\langle 1|II\rangle = 0 \quad (|2'\rangle \perp |1\rangle)$$

Normalize:

$$|2\rangle = \frac{|2'\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle 2'|2'\rangle}} = \frac{|2'\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle II|II\rangle - \langle 1|II\rangle^2}}$$

Next:

$$|3'\rangle = |III\rangle - |1\rangle\langle 1|III\rangle - |2\rangle\langle 2|III\rangle \quad (\text{which is } \perp \text{ to both } |1\rangle \text{ and } |2\rangle)$$

$$\text{and } |3\rangle = \frac{|3'\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle 3'|3'\rangle}}$$

etc. etc.

Linear independence of the original set ensures that this procedure never stops (by obtaining for  $|i\rangle$  the null vector) until we arrive at  $|n\rangle$ .

Example: Orthonormalize the vectors  $|I\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $|II\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $|III\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$

Solution:  $|I\rangle$  is already normal to  $|II\rangle$  and  $|III\rangle$ , so we only need to normalize  $|I\rangle$  and  $|II\rangle$  and then orthonormalize  $|III\rangle$  to  $|II\rangle$ .

$$\Rightarrow |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, |2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |3'\rangle &= |III\rangle - |1\rangle \langle 1|III\rangle - |2\rangle \langle 2|III\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{5} \\ 2/\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix} \left( 1, 1/\sqrt{5}, 2/\sqrt{5} \right) \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & - & 0 \\ 2 & - & 12/5 \\ 5 & - & 24/5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -2/5 \\ +1/5 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow |3\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{5} \\ +2/\sqrt{5} \end{pmatrix} \quad \frac{12}{\sqrt{5}} \end{aligned}$$

(Note: Gram-Schmidt does not give  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ ! In general, if you relabel the original vectors (i.e. orthonormalize them in different order), you get different orthonormal bases.)

Schwarz inequality: Then:  $|\langle V|W\rangle| \leq |V| \cdot |W|$

(or  $\langle V|W\rangle \langle W|V\rangle \leq \langle V|V\rangle \langle W|W\rangle$ )

(trivial for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ :  $|\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}| = |v||w|\cos\theta \leq |v||w|$ )

Proof: Consider  $|Z\rangle = |V\rangle - \frac{\langle W|V\rangle}{|W|^2} |W\rangle$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq \langle Z|Z\rangle &= \left( \langle V| - \frac{\langle W|V\rangle^*}{|W|^2} \langle W| \right) \left( |V\rangle - \frac{\langle W|V\rangle}{|W|^2} |W\rangle \right) \\ &= \langle V|V\rangle - \frac{\langle W|V\rangle^* \langle W|V\rangle}{|W|^2} - \frac{\langle W|V\rangle \langle V|W\rangle}{|W|^2} + \frac{\langle W|V\rangle^* \langle W|V\rangle}{|W|^2} \langle W|V\rangle \\ &= \langle V|V\rangle - \frac{|\langle W|V\rangle|^2}{|W|^2} \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Triangle inequality: Then:  $|V+W| \leq |V| + |W|$

Proof: homework

## I.4. Subspaces

Defn A subset of elements of a vector space  $W$ , that form a vector space among themselves, is called a subspace. If subspace  $i$  has dimension  $n_i$  we denote it as  $W_i^{n_i}$ .

Examples in  $\mathbb{R}^3 \cong W^3(\mathbb{R})$ :

$W_x^1 =$  all vectors along  $x$  axis

$W_y^1 =$  all vector along  $y$  axis

$W_{xy}^2 =$  all vectors in  $xy$  plane

All subspaces contain the null vector  $\langle 0 \rangle$ , and with each vector of a subspace its additive inverse is also in the subspace.

Defn: The sum of two subspaces  $W_i^{n_i}$  and  $W_j^{m_j}$ , denoted as  $W_i^{n_i} \oplus W_j^{m_j}$ , contains all linear combinations of vectors in  $W_i^{n_i}$  and  $W_j^{m_j}$ .

Exercise (homework) Prove that in a vector space  $W^n$ , the set of all vectors orthogonal to a given vector  $\langle v \rangle \neq 0$  forms a subspace  $W_{\perp}^{n-1}$  of dimension  $n-1$ .



## 1.5 Linear Operators

An operator  $\hat{\Omega}$  is an instruction for transforming any vector  $|V\rangle \in \mathbb{V}$  into another  $|V'\rangle \in \mathbb{V}$ :

$$\hat{\Omega}|V\rangle = |V'\rangle$$

Operators can also act on bras:

$$\langle V'|\hat{\Omega} = \langle V|$$

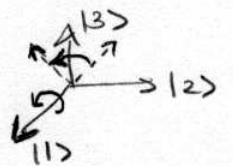
Consider only linear operators that satisfy

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\Omega}(\alpha|V\rangle + \beta|W\rangle) &= \alpha\hat{\Omega}|V\rangle + \beta\hat{\Omega}|W\rangle \\ (\langle V|\alpha + \langle W|\beta)\hat{\Omega} &= \alpha\langle V|\hat{\Omega} + \beta\langle W|\hat{\Omega}\end{aligned}$$

Examples • Identity operator  $\hat{I}$ :  $\left. \begin{aligned}\hat{I}|V\rangle &= |V\rangle \\ \langle V|\hat{I} &= \langle V|\end{aligned} \right\} \forall |V\rangle$

•  $\hat{R}(\frac{\pi}{2}\vec{e}_1)$  on  $\mathbb{V}^3(\mathbb{R})$ : rotate vector by  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  around unit vector  $\vec{e}_1$

Denote  $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3$  as  $|1\rangle, |2\rangle, |3\rangle$ .



$$\Rightarrow \hat{R}(\frac{\pi}{2}\vec{e}_1)|1\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\hat{R}(\frac{\pi}{2}\vec{e}_1)|2\rangle = |3\rangle$$

$$\hat{R}(\frac{\pi}{2}\vec{e}_1)|3\rangle = -|2\rangle$$

$$\hat{R}(\frac{\pi}{2}\vec{e}_1)(|2\rangle + |3\rangle) = |3\rangle - |2\rangle = \hat{R}|2\rangle + \hat{R}|3\rangle$$

Once we know the action of a linear operator  $\hat{\Omega}$  on the basis states  $\{|i\rangle\}$ , we know its action on all vectors:

$$\hat{\Omega}|V\rangle = \hat{\Omega}\sum_i v_i|i\rangle = \sum_i v_i\hat{\Omega}|i\rangle = \sum_i v_i|i'\rangle$$



Product of two operators = sequential operations:

$$\hat{A}\hat{Q}|v\rangle = \hat{A}(\hat{Q}|v\rangle) = \hat{A}|\hat{Q}v\rangle$$

In general the order matters, i.e.

$$[\hat{Q}, \hat{A}] = \hat{Q}\hat{A} - \hat{A}\hat{Q} \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{Q}|\hat{A}v\rangle \neq \hat{A}|\hat{Q}v\rangle$$

commutator of  $\hat{Q}$  and  $\hat{A}$ ,  $[\hat{Q}, \hat{A}] = -[\hat{A}, \hat{Q}]$

Example:  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  rotations around  $\vec{e}_1$  and  $\vec{e}_2$  in  $V^3(\mathbb{R})$  don't commute.

Useful identities:

$[\hat{Q}, \hat{A}\hat{\theta}] = \hat{A}[\hat{Q}, \hat{\theta}] + [\hat{Q}, \hat{A}]\hat{\theta}$	$(-\hat{A}\hat{Q}\hat{\theta} - \hat{A}\hat{\theta}\hat{Q} + \hat{Q}\hat{A}\hat{\theta} - \hat{A}\hat{Q}\hat{\theta})$
$[\hat{A}\hat{Q}, \hat{\theta}] = \hat{A}[\hat{Q}, \hat{\theta}] + [\hat{A}, \hat{\theta}]\hat{Q}$	$(-\hat{A}\hat{Q}\hat{\theta} - \hat{A}\hat{\theta}\hat{Q} + \hat{A}\hat{\theta}\hat{Q} - \hat{A}\hat{Q}\hat{\theta})$

The inverse of  $\hat{Q}$ , denoted by  $\hat{Q}^{-1}$ , satisfies

$$\hat{Q}\hat{Q}^{-1} = \hat{Q}^{-1}\hat{Q} = \hat{I}$$

The inverse exists if  $\hat{Q}|v\rangle = |0\rangle$  implies  $|v\rangle = |0\rangle$ .

The inverse of  $\hat{Q}\hat{A}$  is  $(\hat{Q}\hat{A})^{-1} = \hat{A}^{-1}\hat{Q}^{-1}$ .

$$((\hat{Q}\hat{A})(\hat{Q}\hat{A})^{-1} = \hat{Q}\hat{A}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{Q}^{-1} = \hat{Q}\hat{Q}^{-1} = \hat{I})$$

## I.6. Matrix elements of linear operators

As stated, to know how  $\hat{\Omega}$  acts on any  $|V\rangle$ , we only need to know its action on the basis:

$$\hat{\Omega}|i\rangle = |i'\rangle \quad (i=1, 2, \dots, n)$$

We know this action if we know the components of  $|i'\rangle$  in the basis  $\{|i\rangle\}$ :

$$\langle j|i'\rangle = \langle j|\hat{\Omega}|i\rangle = \langle j|\hat{\Omega}|i\rangle \equiv \Omega_{ji}$$

The  $n^2$  numbers  $\Omega_{ji}$  are the matrix elements of  $\hat{\Omega}$  in this basis.

$$\text{Then } \hat{\Omega}|V\rangle = |V'\rangle$$

where  $|V'\rangle$  has the components

$$\begin{aligned} v_i' &= \langle i|V'\rangle = \langle i|\hat{\Omega}|V\rangle = \langle i|\hat{\Omega} \left( \sum_j v_j |j\rangle \right) \\ &= \sum_j \langle i|\hat{\Omega}|j\rangle v_j = \sum_i \Omega_{ij} v_j \end{aligned}$$

This can be written in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1' \\ v_2' \\ \vdots \\ v_n' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_{11} & \Omega_{12} & \dots & \Omega_{1n} \\ \Omega_{21} & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & \Omega_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

The  $j^{\text{th}}$  column are given by the image of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  basis vector  $|j\rangle$  after  $\hat{\Omega}$  acts on it.

Example  $\hat{R} \equiv \hat{R}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\hat{e}_1\right)$

$$\hat{R}|1\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\hat{R}|2\rangle = |3\rangle \Rightarrow [R_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{R}|3\rangle = |-2\rangle$$

Exercise: How can you describe the action of  
(Homework)  $\hat{R}$  whose matrix elements in the same  
basis are given by  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ?

### Matrix forms of some specific operators

(1) Identity operator:  $\langle I_{ij} = \langle i | \hat{I} | j \rangle = \langle i | j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \Leftrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

(2) Projection operators:

Consider the expansion of an arbitrary ket  $|V\rangle$  as

$$|V\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n |i\rangle \langle i | V \rangle = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |i\rangle \langle i| \right) |V\rangle$$

Since this is true for all  $|V\rangle$ , the expression in brackets must be the identity operator:

$$\hat{I} = \sum_{i=1}^n |i\rangle \langle i| \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{P}_i \quad (*)$$

The object  $\hat{P}_i = |i\rangle \langle i|$  is called the projection operator for the ket  $|i\rangle$ . Eq. (\*) is called completeness relation, it expresses the identity operator as a sum over projection operators. This will prove very valuable. (19)