

A vector space V is a set of vectors $\{v\}$ and a field F of numbers $\{c\}$ such that if $v_1 \in V$ and $v_2 \in V$ and $c_1 \in F$ and $c_2 \in F$, then

$$v = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 \in V.$$

V is said to be a vector space over F .

3-D Space with $F = \mathbb{R}$ is an example.

A set of vectors e_1, e_2, \dots forms a basis for a vector space V if any vector $v \in V$ can be written as

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i e_i, \quad c_i \in F.$$

The vectors $\{e_i | i=1-N\}$ are complete.

Linear dependence: A set of N vectors v_i for which

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i v_i \quad (c_i \in F)$$

with some $c_i \neq 0$ is said to be linearly dependent.

If no set of c_i can make the v_i 's add to zero n

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i v_i \quad (\text{except all } c_i = 0),$$

then the vectors v_i are linearly independent.

2

A basis that is linearly independent is nice because it has no extra, unneeded vectors.

The space \mathbb{R}^3 is a vector space if every triplet of real numbers

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \text{ is a vector in } \mathbb{R}^3.$$

The 3 vectors $e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $e_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

form a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 since every \vec{v} can be written as

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = x \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + y \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= xe_1 + ye_2 + ze_3.$$

\mathbb{R}^3 and more generally \mathbb{R}^n has a natural scalar product. If

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \\ z_1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then}$$

$$v_1 \cdot v_2 = (v_1, v_2) = \langle v_1 | v_2 \rangle = (x_1, y_1, z_1) \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x_1 x_2 + y_1 y_2 + z_1 z_2.$$

Another example of a vector space with a scalar product is \mathbb{C}^2 . A vector $v \in \mathbb{C}^2$ is a pair of complex numbers.

$$v = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here $z_i = x_i + iy_i$ and $i^2 = -1$.

Now the natural scalar product for two vectors

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad v = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{is}$$

$$u^\dagger v = (\bar{z}_1, \bar{z}_2) \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{pmatrix} = \bar{z}_1 w_1 + \bar{z}_2 w_2 = (u, v) \\ = \langle u | v \rangle = (u, v),$$

where

$$\bar{z}_i = x_i - iy_i \quad \text{etc.}$$

A nice basis for \mathbb{C}^2 is

$$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then $v = z_1 e_1 + z_2 e_2$.

Most of the vector spaces of this course have natural scalar products. In all cases, the scalar product or inner product

$$(a, b) = \langle a | b \rangle = a^\dagger b \quad \text{is linear.}$$

$$(a, c_1 b_1 + c_2 b_2) = c_1 (a, b_1) + c_2 (a, b_2)$$

and antilinear $(c_1 a_1 + c_2 a_2, b) = \bar{c}_1 (a_1, b) + \bar{c}_2 (a_2, b)$ and satisfies

$$(a, a) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad (a, a) = 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad a = 0.$$

Also

$$(a, b) = (b, a)^*$$

or if the vector space is real then $(a, b) = (b, a)$. Also if $c, d \in \mathbb{F}$, then $(ca, db) = \bar{c} d (a, b)$.

The bases we just considered for \mathbb{R}^3 and \mathbb{C}^2 have two special properties: they are sets of vectors e_1, e_2, e_3 and e_1, e_2 that are orthogonal and normalized to unity

$$(e_i, e_j) = \langle e_i | e_j \rangle = e_i^\dagger e_j = \delta_{ij} \quad \text{where}$$

$$\delta_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{if} \quad i = j \quad \text{and} \quad \delta_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad i \neq j.$$

A set of orthogonal, normalized vectors is orthonormal. Nice bases are orthonormal, as well as complete.

An orthonormal basis $\{e_i | i = 1 - N\}$ defines the scalar product for the vector space.

$$\text{For if} \quad a = \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{a}_i e_i \quad \text{and} \quad b = \sum_{i=1}^N b_i e_i,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then} \\ (a, b) &= \langle a | b \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{a}_i \sum_{j=1}^N b_j (e_i, e_j) \\ &= \sum_{ij=1}^N \bar{a}_i b_j \delta_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^N \bar{a}_i b_i. \end{aligned}$$

Any set $\{v_i | i=1-N\}$ of basis vectors can be made orthonormal (ON). In fact, any set of linearly independent vectors can be made ON.

For instance, the vectors

$$s_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad s_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

are not ON since $s_1 \cdot s_2 = 1$. We take

$e_1 = s_1$ and $e_2 = a s_2 + b e_1$. Then we set

$0 = e_1 \cdot e_2 = a s_1 \cdot s_2 + b e_1 \cdot e_1 = a + b$. So we set $b = -a$. Then we normalize

$$e_2 = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

by setting $a=1$. So our new ON basis is

$$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Homework problem. Make an ON basis out of

$$s_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad s_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad s_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We usually will work with ON bases.

Suppose $\{e_i \mid i=1-N\}$ is an ON basis for a vector space V . Then any $v \in V$ is of the form

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i e_i.$$

What are the c_i 's? Well,

$$\begin{aligned} (e_j, v) &= (e_j, \sum_{i=1}^N c_i e_i) = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i (e_j, e_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N c_i \delta_{ji} = c_j. \end{aligned}$$

So

$$c_j = (e_j, v) = \langle e_j | v \rangle = e_j^+ \cdot v.$$

Here Dirac's notation is nice:

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sum_{i=1}^N c_i e_i = \sum_{i=1}^N c_i |e_i\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \langle e_i | v \rangle |e_i\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle \langle e_i | v \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

Since v is arbitrary, the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| = 1 \quad \text{is the identity operator on } V.$$

Example

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

Then

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

and

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

So

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

The relation

$$\sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle\langle e_i| = 1$$

is called a completeness relation or a resolution of the identity.

What if there are two ON bases

$\{e_i | i=1-N\}$ and $\{s_i | i=1-N\}$?

Then we have two ways of writing 1:

$$1 = \sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| = \sum_{i=1}^N |s_i\rangle \langle s_i|$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{mm} &= \langle s_m | s_m \rangle = \langle s_m | 1 | s_m \rangle \\ &= \langle s_m | \sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle \langle e_i| s_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \langle s_m | e_i \rangle \langle e_i | s_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^N \langle e_i | s_m \rangle^* \langle e_i | s_m \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Let $U_{im} = \langle e_i | s_m \rangle$. Then

$$(U^\dagger)_{mi} = U_{im}^* = \langle e_i | s_m \rangle^* = \langle s_m | e_i \rangle$$

So

$$\delta_{mm} = \sum_{i=1}^N (U^\dagger)_{mi} U_{im}$$

Thus the matrix U is unitary: $U^\dagger U = 1$

Also

$$\delta_{ij} = \langle e_i | e_j \rangle = \sum_n \langle e_i | s_n \rangle \langle s_n | e_j \rangle = \sum_n U_{in} U_{nj}^\dagger$$

$$\text{So } U U^\dagger = 1$$

The unitary matrix

$$U_{im} = \langle e_i | s_m \rangle$$

relates the basis $\{e_i\}$ to the basis $\{s_i\}$:

$$\begin{aligned} |s_m\rangle &= \mathbb{1} |s_m\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^N |e_i\rangle \langle e_i | s_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m |e_i\rangle U_{im}. \end{aligned}$$

The adjoint matrix U^\dagger goes the other way:

$$\begin{aligned} |e_i\rangle &= \mathbb{1} |e_i\rangle = \sum_{m=1}^N |s_m\rangle \langle s_m | e_i \rangle \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^N |s_m\rangle U_{mi}^\dagger. \end{aligned}$$

If the two bases are real, so that

$$\langle e_i | s_m \rangle = \langle e_i | s_m \rangle^* = \langle s_m | e_i \rangle, \text{ then}$$

the matrix U is both real and unitary.

In this case, $U^\dagger = U^T$, where T means transposed.

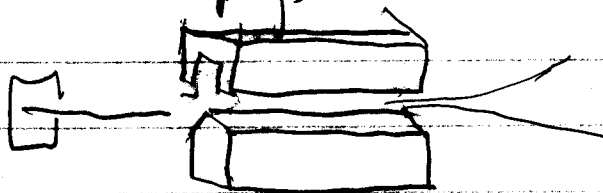
Then

$$\mathbb{1} = U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = U^T U = U U^T \text{ and}$$

$$U^{-1} = U^\dagger = U^T, \text{ so } U \text{ is orthogonal.}$$

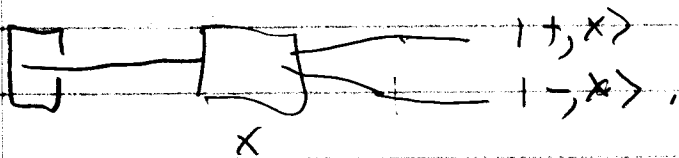
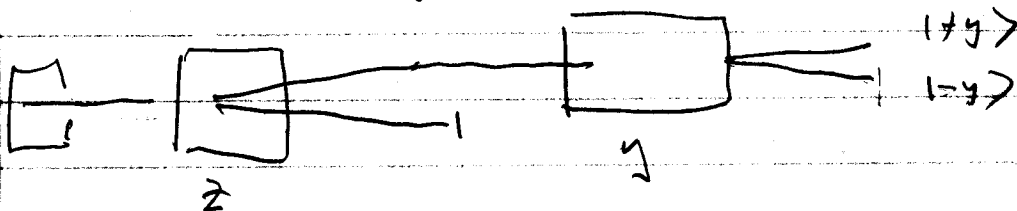
Why are complex bases needed?

A little physics:



spin up $|+\rangle$
down $|-\rangle$

If this were the whole story, then real vectors would be enough. But



$$e^{-i\vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{\sigma} / 2} = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - i \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$|+\rangle_y = e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}\frac{\sigma_y}{2}} |+\rangle = \left(\cos \frac{\pi}{4} - i \sigma_2 \sin \frac{\pi}{4} \right) |+\rangle$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - i \sigma_2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 - i \sigma_2) |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) |+\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{|+\rangle + |-\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|-\rangle_y = e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}\frac{\sigma_y}{2}} |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|-\rangle + |+\rangle)$$

$$|+\rangle = e^{-i\frac{\pi}{2}(-\sigma_x)} |+\rangle = \cos\frac{\pi}{4} + i\sigma_x \sin\frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 + i\sigma_x) |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right) |+\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|+\rangle + i|-\rangle)$$

$$|-\rangle = e^{+i\frac{\pi}{2}\sigma_x} |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 - i\sigma_x) |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] |-\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ -i & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|+\rangle - i|-\rangle)$$

So the e-states are

$$|\pm z\rangle = |+\rangle \quad |-\rangle$$

$$|\pm x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|+\rangle \pm |-\rangle)$$

$$|\pm y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|+\rangle \pm i|-\rangle)$$

How could we have all these states using only real numbers?