

Symmetries in Physics

Lecture 2

Victor E. Ambruş

Universitatea de Vest din Timișoara

Lecture contents

Chapter 1. Discrete symmetry groups

- ▶ I.1. Basic notions of abstract group theory
- ▶ I.2. **Group representations**
- ▶ I.3. Representations of the symmetric group; Young diagrams

I.1.8. Cosets

- ▶ **Def:** Let H be a subgroup of G and let $p \in G$ but $p \notin H$. Then, the set pH is called a *left coset* of H . Similarly, Hp is a *right coset* of H .
- ▶ **Obs:** The cosets of H are not subgroups, because they do not contain e .
- ▶ **Obs:** Each coset has exactly the same number of elements as H .
- ▶ **Lemma:** Two left (right) cosets of H either coincide completely, or else they have no elements in common at all.
Proof: Let pH and qH be the two cosets. Assume $ph_i = qh_j$ for some $h_i, h_j \in H$. Then
 $q^{-1}p = h_jh_i^{-1} \in H \Rightarrow q^{-1}pH = H \Rightarrow pH = qH$. $\square$
- ▶ **Theorem (Lagrange):** The order of a finite group must be an integer multiple of the order of any of its subgroups.

I.1.9. Factor (quotient) groups

- ▶ **Obs:** If H is an invariant subgroup, then $pHp^{-1} = H$ and its left cosets are also right cosets: $pH = Hp$.
- ▶ **Obs:** The cosets of an invariant subgroup form a group:
 - ▶ $(pH)(qH) = (pq)H$, since $ph_iqh_j = pq(q^{-1}h_iq)h_j = pqh_k$, with $h_k \in H$;
 - ▶ $H = eH$ is the identity element;
 - ▶ $p^{-1}H$ is the inverse of pH ;
 - ▶ $pH(qH \cdot rH) = (pH \cdot qH) \cdot rH = (pqr)H$.
- ▶ **Theorem:** If H is an invariant subgroup of G , the set of cosets endowed with the law of multiplication $pH \cdot qH = (pq)H$ form a group, called the *factor* (or *quotient*) *group* of G . The factor group G/H is of order n_G/n_H .
- ▶ **Ex:** $H = \{e, a^2\}$ is an invariant group of C_4 . Together with its coset $M = \{a, a^3\}$, they form the factor group C_4/H . Since $HM = M = MH$, $HH = H$ and $MM = H$, both H and C_4/H are of order 2 and are $\simeq C_2$.

I.1.10. Homomorphisms

- ▶ **Def:** A *homomorphism* from a group G to another group G' is a mapping (not necessarily one-to-one) which preserves group multiplication. In other words, if $g_i \in G \rightarrow g'_i \in G'$ and $g_1 g_2 = g_3$, then $g'_1 g'_2 = g'_3$.
- ▶ **Obs:** The isomorphism is a particular case of homomorphism.
- ▶ **Theorem:** Let f be a homomorphism from G to G' . Denote $K = \{a \in G; a \xrightarrow{f} e' \in G'\}$. Then K forms an invariant subgroup of G . Moreover, the factor group G/K is isomorphic to G' .
Proof: (i) Since $e \xrightarrow{f} e'$, $e \in K$. For $a, b \in K$, $ab \xrightarrow{f} e' \cdot e' = e'$, hence $ab \in K$. If $a \in K$, then $a^{-1} \xrightarrow{f} (e')^{-1} = e'$ and $a^{-1} \in K$. Therefore, K is a subgroup.
(ii) Let $a \in K$ and $g \in G$. Then $gag^{-1} \xrightarrow{f} g'e'(g')^{-1} = e'$ and $gag^{-1} \in K$. Hence, K is an invariant subgroup.
(iii) The elements of G/K are the cosets pK . Let $pK \xrightarrow{\rho} p' \in G'$, where $p \xrightarrow{f} p'$. If $\rho(pK) = \rho(qK)$, then $\rho(q^{-1}pK) = (q^{-1}p)' = \rho^{-1}(qK)\rho(pK) = e'$, hence $q^{-1}pK = K$ and $pK = qK$. Thus, the mapping $G/K \xrightarrow{\rho} G'$ is one-to-one. Since $\rho(pK)\rho(qK) = \rho(pqK)$, multiplication is preserved by ρ and ρ is an isomorphism.
- ▶ **Obs:** K is called the *kernel* or *center* of the homomorphism f .

I.1.11. Direct products

- ▶ **Def:** Let H_1 and H_2 be subgroups of G with the properties: (i) $\forall h_1 \in H_1$ and $h_2 \in H_2$, $h_1 h_2 = h_2 h_1$ (the elements commute); and (ii) $\forall g \in G$, $\exists h_1 \in H_1$ and $h_2 \in H_2$ s.t. $g = h_1 h_2$. In this case, G is said to be the *direct product group* of H_1 and H_2 ; symbolically, $G = H_1 \otimes H_2$.
- ▶ **Obs:** $G = H_1 \otimes H_2 \Rightarrow H_1$ and H_2 must be invariant subgroups of G .
- ▶ **Obs:** $G = H_1 \otimes H_2 \Rightarrow G/H_2 \simeq H_1$ and $G/H_1 \simeq H_2$.
- ▶ **Ex:** Consider $C_6 = \{e = a^6, a, a^2, a^3, a^4, a^5\}$ with subgroups $H_1 = \{e, a^3\}$ and $H_2 = \{e, a^2, a^4\}$. Since G is abelian, $h_1 h_2 = h_2 h_1$. Moreover, $a = a^3 a^4$ and $a^5 = a^3 a^2$, hence $C_6 = H_1 \otimes H_2$. Since $H_1 \simeq C_2$ and $H_2 \simeq C_3$, we have $C_6 = C_2 \otimes C_3$.

I.2. Group representations

I.2.2. Linear vector spaces. Bra-ket notation

- ▶ Vectors in general linear vector spaces are denoted using Dirac's $|\rangle$ (*ket*) or $\langle|$ (*bra*) symbols.
- ▶ Multiplication by scalars is $|\alpha x\rangle = \alpha \cdot |x\rangle = |x\rangle \alpha$.
- ▶ A basis of the vector space is denoted by $|e_i\rangle$.
- ▶ Its dual basis $\langle e^i|$ is defined such that $\langle e^i|e_j\rangle = \delta_j^i$.
- ▶ A vector $\mathbf{x}$ has components $|x\rangle = |e_i\rangle x^i$.
- ▶ Its dual is defined by Hermitian conjugation, $\langle x| = (|x\rangle)^\dagger \equiv x_i^\dagger \langle e^i|$, s.t. $x_i^\dagger = (x^i)^*$.
- ▶ The bra-ket between two vectors defines the scalar product on the vector space, $\langle x|y\rangle = x_i^\dagger y^i$.
- ▶ An operator A is a linear functional $A: V \rightarrow V$ s.t. $A|x\rangle = |Ax\rangle \in V$.
- ▶ $A^i_j = \langle e^i|A|e_j\rangle$ represent the components of A .
- ▶ The product of two operators is defined by $AB|x\rangle = A|Bx\rangle$ and $(AB)^i_j = A^i_k B^k_j$.

I.2.2. Representations

- ▶ In physics, we are interested in the effect of symmetry transformations on the solutions of partial differential or integral eqs.
- ▶ These solutions usually form a *linear vector space* (e.g., the Hilbert space in QM).
- ▶ Group theory describes the *realization* of group transformations as *linear transformations on vector spaces*.
- ▶ Linear transformations (or operators) on linear vector spaces form a (generally non-abelian) group.
- ▶ **Def:** If there is a homomorphism from a group G to a group of operators $U(G)$ on a linear vector space V , we say $U(G)$ forms a *representation of the group G* .
- ▶ The dimension of $U(G)$ is the dimension of V .
- ▶ $U(G)$ is *faithful* if the homomorphism is also an isomorphism.
- ▶ A *degenerate representation* is one which is not faithful.
- ▶ $g \in G \rightarrow U(g)$, s.t. $U(g_1)U(g_2) = U(g_1g_2)$.

Finite-dimensional representations

- ▶ Consider a basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ in V_n .
- ▶ The operators $U(g)$ are realized as $n \times n$ matrices $D(g)$, defined via $U(g)|e_i\rangle = |e_j\rangle D(g)^j_i$.
- ▶ Because $U(g_1)U(g_2) = U(g_1g_2)$, we have $D(g_1)D(g_2) = D(g_1g_2) \Rightarrow$ the matrices $D(G)$ form the *matrix representation* of G .
- ▶ $|x\rangle$ transforms as $U(g)|x\rangle = |x'\rangle = |e_i\rangle x'^i$, with $x'^i = D(g)^i_j x^j$.
- ▶ **Ex:** $\{D_2 : e, h(\text{refl. about } y), v(\text{refl. about } x), r(\text{rot. by } \pi)\}$ and $V = \text{span}(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_1, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_2)$. Then $D(e) = \text{diag}(1, 1)$ and

$$D(h) = \text{diag}(-1, 1); \quad D(v) = \text{diag}(1, -1); \quad D(r) = \text{diag}(-1, -1).$$

- ▶ **Ex:** $G = \{R(\phi), 0 \leq \phi < 2\pi\}$ is the group of 2D rotations and:

$$\mathbf{x}' = U(\phi)\mathbf{x} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i x'^i, \quad x'^i = D(\phi)^i_j x^j, \quad D(\phi) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi \end{pmatrix}.$$

- ▶ Consider a function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$. Under a rotation,

$$f \xrightarrow{g \in G} f'(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}'), \quad \mathbf{x}' = U(g^{-1})\mathbf{x}.$$

- **Theorem:** (i) If the group G has a non-trivial invariant subgroup H , then any representation of the factor group $K = G/H$ is also a (degenerate) representation of G ; (ii) Conversely, if $U(G)$ is a degenerate representation of G , then G has at least one invariant subgroup H such that $U(G)$ defines a faithful representation of the factor group G/H .

Proof: Let $\{K : gH, g \in G\}$ be the set of cosets of H . Then $g \in G \rightarrow k = gH \in K \rightarrow U(k)$ on V is a homomorphism from G to $U(K)$, forming a representation. Since H is a non-trivial invariant subgroup, $g \rightarrow k = gH$ is a many-to-one mapping $\Rightarrow$ the representation is not faithful. (ii) Proof already given.

1.2.3. Irreducible, inequivalent representations

- ▶ **Def:** Two representations $U(G)$ and $U'(G)$ are *equivalent* if they are related by a similarity transformation S , i.e. $U'(G) = SU(G)S^{-1}$.
- ▶ **Def:** The *character* $\chi(g)$ of $g \in G$ in a representation $U(G)$ is defined as $\chi(g) = \text{Tr}[U(g)]$.
- ▶ **Obs:** All elements in a given class of G have the same characters, because $\text{Tr}U(p)U(g)U(p^{-1}) = \text{Tr}U(g)$.
- ▶ Direct sum representations: If for some choice of basis on V_n , $D(g \in G) = \text{diag}(D_1(g), D_2(g))$ is block diagonal, then $D = D_1 \oplus D_2$.
- ▶ **Def:** V_1 is an *invariant subspace* of V w.r.t. $U(G)$ if $U(g)|x\rangle \in V_1, \forall x \in V_1$ and $g \in G$. An invariant subspace is *minimal (proper)* if it does not contain any non-trivial invariant subspace w.r.t. $U(G)$.
- ▶ **Def:** $U(G)$ on V is *irreducible* if there is no non-trivial invariant subspace in V w.r.t. $U(G)$. Otherwise, the representation is *reducible* and, if the orthogonal complement of the invariant subspace is also invariant w.r.t. $U(G)$, then the representation is *fully reducible* or *decomposable*.
- ▶ **Ex:** R_2 on E_2 : $\hat{e}_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mp \hat{e}_1 - i \hat{e}_2)$ span 1-dimensional invariant subspaces, since $U(\phi)\hat{e}_{\pm} = \hat{e}_{\pm}e^{\mp i\phi}$.

Reducible representations

- Consider an invariant subspace V_1 of V w.r.t. $U(G)$, having $\dim(V_1) = n_1 < n = \dim(V)$. Arranging the basis vectors such that $\hat{e}_i \in V_1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n_1$, we have

$$U(g)|e_i\rangle = |e_j\rangle D(g) \quad i \in V_1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad D(g) = \begin{pmatrix} D_1(g) & D'(g) \\ 0 & D_2(g) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (1)$$

where $D_i(g)$ are $n_i \times n_i$ matrices ($n_2 = n - n_1$).

- If $V_2 = \text{span}(\hat{e}_i, i = n_1 + 1, \dots, n)$ is also invariant, then $D'(g) = 0$ and $D(g)$ becomes block-diagonal.
- If V^μ is an invariant subspace of V , restricting $U(G)$ to V^μ gives a lower-dimensional representation $U^\mu(G)$ of G .
- If V^μ cannot be further reduced, $U^\mu(G)$ is an irreducible representation and V^μ is a *proper (irreducible invariant) subspace* w.r.t. G .

I.2.4. Unitary representations

- ▶ **Def:** If V is an inner product space and if $U(g)^\dagger = U(g)^{-1}$ are unitary $\forall g \in G$, then $U(G)$ is a *unitary representation*. Equivalently,

$$\langle U(g)x | U(g)y \rangle = \langle x | y \rangle. \quad (2)$$

- ▶ **Def:** For completeness: an operator is Hermitian if $A^\dagger = A$, i.e. $\langle Ax | y \rangle = \langle x | Ay \rangle$.
- ▶ **Theorem:** If a unitary representation is reducible, then it is also decomposable (i.e., fully reducible).

Proof: Let $V_1 = \text{span}(\hat{e}_i, i = 1, 2 \dots n_1)$ be an invariant subspace and $V_2 = \text{span}(\hat{e}_i, i = n_1 + 1, \dots n)$ be its complement. Since V_1 is invariant, $|e_i(g)\rangle = U(g)|e_i\rangle \in V_1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n_1$. Since $U(G)$ is unitary, $\langle e^j(g) | e_i(g) \rangle = \langle e^j | U^\dagger(g)U(g)|e_i\rangle = \delta^j_i$ vanishes for all $n_1 < j \leq n$ and $1 \leq i \leq n_1$. Since $|e_1(g)\rangle \in V_1$, this means $|e_2(g)\rangle \in V_2 \Rightarrow U(g)|x\rangle \in V_2 \forall x \in V_2$ and V_2 is an invariant subspace w.r.t. $U(g)$.

Unitary representations of finite groups

- **Maschke's theorem:** Every representation $D(G)$ of a finite group on an inner product space is equivalent to a unitary representation.

Proof: We need the similarity transformation S s.t.

$SD(g)S^{-1} = U(g)$ is unitary $\forall g \in G$. Since unitarity is established based on a scalar product, we introduce a new scalar product $(x, y) \equiv \langle Sx | Sy \rangle = \sum_g \langle D(g)x | D(g)y \rangle$. Then, S can be regarded as a transformation from the basis orthogonal w.r.t. $\langle | \rangle$ to one orthogonal w.r.t. $(,)$. We now show $U(g)$ is unitary:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle U(g)x | U(g)y \rangle &= \langle SD(g)S^{-1}x | SD(g)S^{-1}y \rangle \\ &= \sum_{g'} \langle D(g')D(g)S^{-1}x | D(g')D(g)S^{-1}y \rangle \\ &= \sum_{g''} \langle D(g'')S^{-1}x | D(g'')S^{-1}y \rangle \\ &= (S^{-1}x, S^{-1}y) = \langle x | y \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Key elements in the above proof include: (i) the summation over all group elements (non-trivial for continuous groups); and (ii) the validity of the rearrangement lemma.

- **Corr:** All reducible reps. of finite groups are fully reducible.

1.2.5. Schur's lemmas

- ▶ **Def:** Let V_1 and V_2 be complementary subspaces w.r.t. $U(G)$, and $U_1(G)$, $U_2(G)$ denote operators which coincide with $U(G)$ on these subspaces. Then clearly $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ and $U(g) = U_1(g) + U_2(g)$ is the *direct sum representation* of $U_1(G)$.
- ▶ If either V_1 and V_2 are reducible w.r.t. G , the representation can be further decomposed, until $U(G)$ is fully reduced:
 $U(G) = \sum_{\mu \oplus} a_{\mu} U_{\mu}(G)$, where $\mu = 1, 2, \dots$ labels the inequivalent irreducible representations $U_{\mu}(G)$ and $a_{\mu} \equiv$ their multiplicity.
- ▶ **Schur's Lemma 1:** Let $U(G)$ be an irreducible representation of G on V , and A an arbitrary operator on V . If $AU(g) = U(g)A, \forall g \in G$, then $\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ s.t. $A = \lambda E$.
Proof: (i) Without loss of generality, we take $U(G)$ unitary and A hermitian.
(ii) We take a basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\alpha,i}\}$ of V consisting of the eigenvectors of A : $A|u_{\alpha,i}\rangle = |u_{\alpha,i}\rangle \lambda_i$, with λ_i being the distinct eigenvalues of A and α labels different vectors with the same λ_i .
(iii) Consider $V_i = \text{span}(\hat{\mathbf{u}}_{\alpha,i}, \alpha = 1, 2, \dots)$. Then $AU(g)|u_{\alpha,i}\rangle = U(g)|u_{\alpha,i}\rangle \lambda_i \in V_i$, s.t. V_i is an invariant subspace of V .
(iv) Since $U(G)$ is irreducible on V , V has no non-trivial invariant subspaces $\Rightarrow V_i = V$ and $A = \lambda E$ has a single eigenvalue λ .

- **Schur's lemma 2:** Let $U(G)$ and $U'(G)$ be two irreps of G on V and V' , resp, and let $A : V' \rightarrow V$ be a linear transf. satisfying $AU'(g) = U(g)A, \forall g \in G$. It follows that either (i) $A = 0$, or (ii) $V \simeq V'$ and $U(G)$ is equivalent to $U'(G)$.

Proof: (i) Consider the range

$R = AV' = \{\mathbf{x} \in V; \mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x}' \text{ for some } \mathbf{x}' \in V'\}$. Then,

$U(g)|x\rangle = U(g)A|x'\rangle = AU'(g)|x'\rangle = A|U'(g)x'\rangle \in R, \forall g \in G$,

hence R is an invariant subspace of V . Since $U(G)$ is irreducible, $R = 0$ (hence $A = 0$) or $R = V$.

(ii) Let $N' = \{\mathbf{x}' \in V' \text{ s.t. } A\mathbf{x}' = 0\}$ be the null space of A . Then

$AU'(g)|x'\rangle = U(g)A|x'\rangle = U(g)|0\rangle = 0$, s.t.

$U'(g)|x'\rangle \in N', \forall g \in G$, implying N' is an invariant subspace of V' .

Since $U'(G)$ is irreducible $\Rightarrow N' = V'$ (hence $A = 0$) or $N' = 0$.

(iii) if $R = V$ and $N' = 0$, then $A|x'\rangle = A|y'\rangle$ implies $|x'\rangle = |y'\rangle$ and A is an isomorphism, while $U(G) = AU'(G)A^{-1}$ is equivalent to $U'(G)$.

1.2.6. Orthonormality of irrep matrices

- **Theorem:** Let μ label inequivalent, irreducible representations $D_\mu(g)$ of G . The following *orthonormality condition* holds:

$$\frac{n_\mu}{n_G} \sum_g D_\mu^\dagger(g)^k{}_i D_\nu(g)^j{}_l = \delta_{\mu\nu} \delta_l^j \delta_i^k, \quad (3)$$

where $n_\mu \equiv$ dimension of the μ -representation and $n_G =$ order of G .

Proof: (i) Without loss of generality, we consider

$D_\mu^\dagger(g) = D_\mu^{-1}(g), \forall g \in G$. In order to apply Schur's 2nd lemma, we construct $M_x = \sum_g D_\mu^\dagger(g) X D_\nu(g)$, with X some $n_\mu \times n_\nu$ matrix.

Since $D_\mu^{-1}(p) M_x D_\nu(p) = M_x, \forall p \in G$, Schur's second lemma implies either $\mu \neq \nu$ and $M_x = 0$, or $\mu = \nu$ and $M_x = c_x E$.

(ii) We take $X \rightarrow (X_l^k)^i{}_j = \delta_l^k \delta_j^i$. Then:

$$(M_l^k)^m{}_n = \delta_{\mu\nu} \sum_g D_\mu^\dagger(g)^m{}_i (X_l^k)^i{}_j D_\mu(g)^j{}_n = \delta_{\mu\nu} \sum_g D_\mu^\dagger(g)^m{}_l D_\mu(g)^k{}_n.$$

By (i), $M_l^k = c_l^k E$ and c_l^k can be found by tracing both sides:

$$n_\mu c_l^k = \sum_g [D_\mu(g) D_\mu^\dagger(g)]^k{}_l = n_G \delta_l^k,$$

by which $c_l^k = (n_G/n_\mu) \delta_l^k$.

Examples of irreps

- ▶ For abelian groups, where all irreps are 1D, the *orthonormality of irreducible representation matrices theorem* implies
$$n_G^{-1} \sum_g d_\mu^\dagger(g) d_\nu(g) = \delta_{\mu\nu}.$$
- ▶ For $\{C_2 : e, a\}$, we have the identity representation $(e, a) \xrightarrow{d_1} (1, 1)$. A second inequivalent representation d_2 must be orthogonal to d_1 : $(e, a) \xrightarrow{d_2} (1, -1)$. There is no other irreducible representation of C_2 .

- ▶ For $\{D_2 : e, a, b, c\}$, with $a^2 = b^2 = c^2 = e$ and $ab = c$, we have:

d_1 : The identity representation:	$\mu \backslash g$	e	a	b	c
$(e, a, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_1} (1, 1, 1, 1)$;	1	1	1	1	1
d_2 : The invariant subgroup $\{e, a\}$ induces	2	1	1	-1	-1
the factor group $\{(e, a), (b, c)\} \sim C_2$.	3	1	-1	1	-1
C_2 has 2 inequivalent irreps: identity	4	1	-1	-1	1

(equivalent to d_1) and $(1, -1)$, such that

$$(e, a, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_2} (1, 1, -1, -1).$$

d_3 : Same for $\{e, b\}$: $(e, a, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_3} (1, -1, 1, -1)$.

d_4 : Same for $\{e, c\}$: $(e, a, b, c) \xrightarrow{d_4} (1, -1, -1, 1)$.

Exercises

WKT2.7 Prove that $G = H_1 \otimes H_2$ implies $G/H_1 \simeq H_2$ and $G/H_2 \simeq H_1$.

WKT3.1 Consider the six transformations associated with the dihedral group D_3 . Let $V = \text{span}\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y\}$ be the 2D Euclidean space. Write down the matrix rep. $D(g)$ on V for all $g \in D_3$.

WKT3.2 Let $R_2 = \{R(\phi), 0 \leq \phi < 2\pi\}$ be the group of continuous rotations in a plane around the origin and $V = E_2$ the 2D Euclidean plane.

a) Write down the 2D representation of these rotations with respect to the basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_x, \hat{\mathbf{e}}_y\}$.

b) Show that the representation at a) can be decomposed into two 1D representations.

WKT3.4 Prove that if $D(G)$ is any representation of a finite group G on an inner product space V , and $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$, then

$$(x, y) = \sum_{g \in G} \langle D(g)x | D(g)y \rangle$$

defines a new scalar product on V .

Appendix 1: Linear vector spaces

► **Def:** A *linear vector space* V is a set $\{|x\rangle, |y\rangle, \dots\}$ on which two operations, $+$ (*addition*) and $\cdot$ (*multiplication by a number*) are defined, s.t. the following basic axioms hold:

- (i) If $|x\rangle \in V$ and $|y\rangle \in V$, then $|x\rangle + |y\rangle \equiv |z\rangle \in V$;
- (ii) If $|x\rangle \in V$ and α is a (real or complex) number, then $|\alpha x\rangle = |x\rangle \alpha \in V$;
- (iii) There exists a *null vector* $|0\rangle$ s.t. $|x\rangle + |0\rangle = |x\rangle, \forall |x\rangle \in V$.
- (iv) $\forall |x\rangle \in V, \exists |-x\rangle \in V$ s.t. $|x\rangle + |-x\rangle = |0\rangle$.
- (v) The operation $+$ is *commutative* and *associative*:

$$|x\rangle + |y\rangle = |y\rangle + |x\rangle, \quad (|x\rangle + |y\rangle) + |z\rangle = |x\rangle + (|y\rangle + |z\rangle).$$

- (vi) $1 \cdot |x\rangle = |x\rangle$;
- (vii) Multiplication by a number is associative:
 $\alpha \cdot |\beta x\rangle = (\alpha\beta) \cdot |x\rangle = |x\rangle (\alpha\beta)$.
- (viii) The two operations are *distributive*:

$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot |x\rangle = |x\rangle \alpha + |x\rangle \beta, \quad \alpha \cdot (|x\rangle + |y\rangle) = |x\rangle \alpha + |y\rangle \alpha.$$

- ▶ **Def:** A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{x}_i \in V, i = 1, \dots, m\}$ are *linearly independent* if $|\mathbf{x}_i\rangle \alpha^i = 0$ implies $\alpha^i = 0 \forall i$. Conversely, the vectors $\mathbf{x}_i$ are linearly dependent if $\exists \{\alpha^i\}$ not all zero, s.t. $|\mathbf{x}_i\rangle \alpha^i = 0$.
- ▶ **Def:** A set of vectors $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ forms a *basis* of V if (i) they are linearly independent; and (ii) $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \exists \{x^i\}$ s.t. $|\mathbf{x}\rangle = |\mathbf{e}_i\rangle x^i$.
- ▶ The numbers x^i are the *components* of $\mathbf{x}$ w.r.t. the basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i\}$.
- ▶ Vector spaces which have a basis with a finite number of elements are *finite dimensional*.
- ▶ **Theorem:** All bases of a finite dimensional vector space have the same number of elements.
- ▶ **Def:** The number of elements n in a basis of a finite dimensional vector space V is called the *dimension* of V .
- ▶ **Def:** Two vector spaces V and V' are said to be isomorphic to each other if there exists a 1 : 1 mapping $\mathbf{x} \in V \rightarrow \mathbf{x}' \in V'$ s.t. $(|\mathbf{x}\rangle + |\mathbf{y}\rangle \alpha)' = |\mathbf{x}'\rangle + |\mathbf{y}'\rangle \alpha, \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ and α .
- ▶ **Theorem:** Every n -dimensional linear vector space V_n is isomorphic to the space of n ordered complex numbers $\mathbb{C}^n$; hence all n -dimensional linear vector spaces are isomorphic to each other.

- ▶ **Def:** A subset V_n of V forming a linear vector space w.r.t. the same $+$ and $\cdot$ as in V is called a *subspace* of V .
- ▶ **Theorem:** Given V_n and a subspace V_m ($m < n$), one can always choose a basis $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$ for V_n s.t. the first m basis vectors lie in V_m .
- ▶ **Def:** Let V_1 and V_2 be subspaces of V . We say $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$ is the *direct sum* of V_1 and V_2 , provided (i) $V_1 \cap V_2 = 0$; and (ii) $\forall \mathbf{x} \in V$, $\exists \mathbf{x}_1 \in V_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 \in V_2$ s.t. $|\mathbf{x}\rangle = |\mathbf{x}_1\rangle + |\mathbf{x}_2\rangle$.
- ▶ If m_1 and m_2 are the dimensions of V_1 and V_2 , then V has dimension $n = m_1 + m_2$.
- ▶ Let $V = V_1 \oplus V_2$. The elements of V can be denoted $(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$, where $\mathbf{x}_1 \in V_1$ and $\mathbf{x}_2 \in V_2$. Then,

$$(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) + (\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) = (\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{y}_2), \quad \alpha(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = (\alpha\mathbf{x}_1, \alpha\mathbf{x}_2).$$

Linear functionals and dual space

- ▶ **Def:** Linear functionals $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfy $f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}) = \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + \beta f(\mathbf{y})$.
- ▶ The set of linear functionals $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ forms the vector space $\tilde{V}$ dual to V , such that f becomes $\langle f|$ and $f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle f|\mathbf{x}\rangle$, satisfying
$$\langle f|\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}\rangle = \alpha \langle f|\mathbf{x}\rangle + \beta \langle f|\mathbf{y}\rangle, \quad \langle \alpha f + \beta g|\mathbf{x}\rangle = \alpha^* \langle f|\mathbf{x}\rangle + \beta^* \langle g|\mathbf{x}\rangle.$$
- ▶ The dual basis $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}^j \in \tilde{V}$ is defined by $\langle \tilde{\mathbf{e}}^j|e_i\rangle = \delta^j_i$.
- ▶ **Theorem:** (i) the linear functionals $\tilde{\mathbf{e}}^j$ are linearly independent and (ii) $\exists f_i^\dagger$ s.t. $f \rightarrow \langle f| = f_i^\dagger \langle \tilde{\mathbf{e}}^i|$.
- ▶ It follows that (i) $\tilde{V}$ has dimension n and (ii) it is isomorphic to V .
- ▶ **Def:** An *inner (scalar) product* on V , $\langle | \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfies: (i) $\langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}\rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}\rangle^*$; (ii) $\langle \mathbf{x}|\alpha_1 \mathbf{y}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{y}_2\rangle = \alpha_1 \langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_1\rangle + \alpha_2 \langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}_2\rangle$; (iii) $\langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}\rangle \geq 0$; and (iv) $\langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}\rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} = 0$.
- ▶ **Def:** The *length (norm)* of a vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ is $|\mathbf{x}| = \langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}\rangle^{1/2}$.
- ▶ **Def** The angle θ between two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ of a *real* vector space satisfies $\cos \theta = \langle \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}\rangle / |\mathbf{x}||\mathbf{y}|$.
- ▶ $V + \langle | \rangle \equiv$ *inner product space*.

- ▶ **Def:** $\langle x|y \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y} = 0$ are orthogonal.
- ▶ **Theorem:** Any set of n orthonormal vectors $\{\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i\}$ in an n -dimensional vector space V_n forms an orthonormal basis, s.t. (i) $|x\rangle = |u_i\rangle x^i$ with $x^i = \langle u^i|x \rangle$; (ii) $\langle x|y \rangle = x_i^\dagger y^i = \langle x|u_i\rangle \langle u^i|y \rangle$; (iii) $|x|^2 = x_i^\dagger x^i, \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V_n$.
- ▶ **Theorem:** Let $E_i = |e_i\rangle \langle e^i|$ (no summation) be the mapping $|x\rangle \rightarrow E_i |x\rangle = |e_i\rangle x^i$ (no summation). Then: (i) $E_i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ are linear operators on V ; (ii) E_i are *projection operators* (idempotents); (iii) $\sum_{i=1}^n E_i = |e_i\rangle \langle e^i| = E$ is the identity operator (*the completeness relation*).
- ▶ **Theorem:** Let $\{\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i\}$ and $\{\hat{\mathbf{u}}_i\}$ be two orthonormal bases on V_n . If $|u_k\rangle = |e_i\rangle S^i_k$, with $(S^\dagger)^k_j = (S^j_k)^*$, then: (i) $(S^\dagger)_{,i} S^i_k = \delta^i_k$; (ii) $S^i_k (S^\dagger)^k_j = \delta^i_j$; and (iii) $|e_i\rangle = |u_k\rangle (S^\dagger)^k_i$. Hence, $S^\dagger = S^{-1}$ and S is a unitary matrix.

Linear transformations (operators) on vector spaces

- ▶ **Def:** *Linear functionals* $F : V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ satisfy $F(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}) = \alpha F(\mathbf{x}) + \beta F(\mathbf{y})$.
- ▶ Denoting $f_i^\dagger = F(\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i)$ the components of F w.r.t. the basis $\hat{\mathbf{e}}_i$, we have $F(\mathbf{x}) = f_i^\dagger x^i = \langle f | x \rangle$, where $\langle f | = f_i^\dagger \langle e^i |$.
- ▶ **Def:** A *linear transformation* (operator) $A : V \rightarrow V'$ satisfies: (i) $|x\rangle \xrightarrow{A} |Ax\rangle \equiv A|x\rangle \in V'$; and (ii) if $|y\rangle = |x_1\rangle \alpha_1 + |x_2\rangle \alpha_2 \in V$ then $|Ay\rangle = |Ax_1\rangle \alpha_1 + |Ax_2\rangle \alpha_2 \in V'$.