

- Change of basis

- Let's remember that the same vector $|x\rangle$ has different components when written w.r.t. different basis sets

$$|x\rangle = x_i |e_i\rangle = x'_j |e'_j\rangle \quad \text{where } x_i \neq x'_i$$

- + This means we write $|x\rangle$ as different columns when translating to matrix form

$$|x\rangle \xrightarrow{|e\rangle_{\text{basis}}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = x \quad \text{vs} \quad |x\rangle \xrightarrow{|e'\rangle} \begin{bmatrix} x'_1 \\ \vdots \\ x'_N \end{bmatrix} = x'$$

- + In general, each $|e'_i\rangle$ can be written as a linear combination of the $|e_i\rangle$, so $|e'_j\rangle = |e_i\rangle S_{ij}$.

That means $x'_j |e'_j\rangle = (S_{ij} x'_j) |e_i\rangle = x_i |e_i\rangle$,

That is the component version of matrix multiplication

$$x' = S^{-1} x. \quad S = \text{transformation matrix}$$

- + But remember that the different columns x + x' represent the same vector from different points of view

- Suppose that the original basis is orthonormal

- + Then the inner product is $\langle y|x\rangle = y^+ x$.

Using the change of basis, $\langle y|x\rangle = (S^+ y)^+ (S x') = y^+ (S^+ S) x'$

This is an inner product with metric $G = S^+ S$.

- + From the basis vector point of view, we remember that

$$G_{ij} = \langle e'_i | e'_j \rangle = S_{ki}^+ \langle e_k | e_l \rangle S_{lj} = S_{ki}^+ \delta_{kl} S_{lj} = (S^+)_{ik} S_{kj}$$

- + If the transformation matrix is unitary $S^+ = S^{-1}$, the new basis is still orthonormal.

+ For a real vector space, orthogonal transformations leave the basis or the normal

+ When the new basis is orthonormal, the new components are $(x')_i = \langle e'_i | x \rangle = e'_i \cdot x$

• Rotation matrices are orthogonal matrices.

+ Consider position vectors \vec{x} . We typically measure coordinates / components w.r.t. orthonormal basis vectors $\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}$.

+ What if we want to measure w.r.t. a rotated axis?

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{i} + x_2 \hat{j} + x_3 \hat{k} \quad \text{vs} \quad \vec{x} = x'_1 \hat{i}' + x'_2 \hat{j}' + x'_3 \hat{k}'$$

+ The change of basis should keep lengths and angles the same. Therefore, we should always be able to write dot products as $y_i x_i = y'_j x'_j$ (or $y^T x = y'^T x'$ in matrix form)

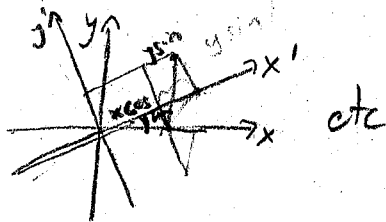
+ That means a rotation is an orthogonal change of basis

$$x' = R x \quad \text{for} \quad R^T R = 1.$$

+ Example: A rotation around the z axis takes the form

$$R_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta & 0 \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

from



etc

+ Any 3D rotation can be described by 3 rotations by designated Euler angles: first, rotate by α around z axis, then by β around the new y axis, then by γ around the new z axis

$$R = R_z(\alpha) R_y(\beta) R_z(\gamma)$$

+ Rotation matrices satisfy $\det(R) = +1$. Orthogonal matrices with $\det(R) = -1$ represent a rotation combined with a reflection through the origin given by multiplication with (-1) .

• Similarity transformations: Remember that linear operator action $|x\rangle = A|x\rangle$ converts to matrix notation in the $\{|e_i\rangle\}$ basis as $y = Ax$. In the $\{|e'_j\rangle\}$ basis, it is $y' = A'x'$. We know $y = Sy'$ and $x = Sx'$, so $Sy' = ASx' \Rightarrow A' = S^{-1}AS$. This is a similarity transformation for the elements of an operator from one basis to another.

- Diagonalization?

- When can we find a basis such that the matrix representation of a linear operator A is diagonal?
 - + Suppose the eigenvectors of A form a basis $\{|e_i\rangle\}$. Then
$$A|e_i\rangle = \lambda_i |e_i\rangle, A|e_j\rangle = \lambda_j |e_j\rangle, \text{ etc.}$$
 - + The matrix elements of a linear operator are given by
$$A|e_j\rangle = \sum_i A_{ij} |e_i\rangle \Rightarrow A_{ij} = \lambda_i \delta_{ij} = \text{diagonal matrix!}$$
 - + A matrix is diagonalizable when its eigenvectors form a basis.
 - + If we start in any other basis, the eigenvectors $|e_i\rangle = X_{(i)j} |e_j\rangle$, etc. are written as columns $X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \text{ etc.}$. Then build a matrix S with columns $X_{(i)}$.
$$S = [X_{(1)} | X_{(2)} | \dots | X_{(n)}]$$
By matrix multiplication $AS = [\lambda_1 X_{(1)} | \dots | \lambda_n X_{(n)}]$ But $S^{-1} X_{(i)} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, etc, so $S^{-1}AS = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = A'$
 - + The matrix S built by putting the eigenvectors of A as columns is the similarity transformation that diagonalizes A (if the eigenvectors make a basis)
- The eigenvectors of a normal matrix are orthonormal
 - + Therefore, if we take $U = [X_{(1)} | X_{(2)} | \dots]$, then $U^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} X_{(1)}^\dagger \\ X_{(2)}^\dagger \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$, we find $(U^\dagger U)_{ij} = X_{(i)}^\dagger X_{(j)} = \delta_{ij} \Rightarrow U^\dagger = U^{-1}$
 - + Normal matrices are diagonalized by unitary transformations
 - + Similarly, real symmetric matrices are diagonalized by orthogonal transformations
 - + Logic like the above shows that the columns of any unitary matrix are orthonormal (same for real orthogonal matrices)
- The trace of a diagonalizable matrix = sum of eigenvalues (in any basis)
The determinant of a diagonalizable matrix = product of eigenvalues