

Math Recap.

①

Here we review a few basic notions of linear algebra used all along and notably next week to formulate the axioms. In particular we introduce the Dirac notation for vectors, matrices, ...

The arena of quantum mechanics is the complex Hilbert space. This is just a vector space \mathcal{H} over the field of complex numbers \mathbb{C} . In quantum information & computation, at least in this class, we only need finite dimensional vector spaces, say $\dim \mathcal{H} = d$.

• Vectors $\vec{\psi}$ are column vectors $\begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_d \end{pmatrix}$, $\psi_i \in \mathbb{C}$

They are denoted $|\psi\rangle$ (i- instead of $\vec{\psi}$). The ket.

• Conjugate vectors are line vectors. By definition

$$\vec{\psi}^{\dagger, *} \equiv \vec{\psi}^{\dagger} = (\psi_1^*, \dots, \psi_d^*)$$

They are denoted $\langle \psi |$. The bra

$$\text{So } (|\psi\rangle)^{\dagger, *} \equiv |\psi\rangle^{\dagger} = \langle \psi |.$$

• In the Hilbert space there is a scalar product:

$$\underbrace{\vec{\psi}^{\dagger} \cdot \vec{\psi}}_{\in \mathbb{C}} = \sum_{i=1}^d \psi_i^* \psi_i \quad \text{denoted } \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \quad \text{the bracket .}$$

(2)

Properties of scalar (or inner) product.

• skew symmetry $\langle \psi | \varphi \rangle^* = \langle \varphi | \psi \rangle$.

• bilinear $\langle \psi | (\alpha |\varphi_1\rangle + \beta |\varphi_2\rangle) = \alpha \langle \psi | \varphi_1 \rangle + \beta \langle \psi | \varphi_2 \rangle$

Note by (Dirac) conjugation:

$$(\bar{\alpha} \langle \varphi_1 | + \bar{\beta} \langle \varphi_2 |) |\psi\rangle = \bar{\alpha} \langle \varphi_1 | \psi \rangle + \bar{\beta} \langle \varphi_2 | \psi \rangle$$

• Positive definite $\underbrace{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}_{\in \mathbb{R}_+} \geq 0$ and equality iff $|\psi\rangle = 0$.

Other properties.

• $\sqrt{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \|\psi\|$ defines a norm.

So $\|\psi\|^2 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle$.

• triangle inequality $\|\psi + \varphi\| \leq \|\psi\| + \|\varphi\|$

• Cauchy-Schwarz inequality $|\langle \psi | \varphi \rangle| \leq \|\psi\| \|\varphi\|$

Orthonormal basis

If $\dim \mathcal{H} = d$, this is a set of d vectors $|\varphi_1\rangle, \dots, |\varphi_d\rangle$

such that $\langle \varphi_i | \varphi_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$. That is

$$\begin{cases} \langle \varphi_i | \varphi_i \rangle = 1 & (\text{for } i=j) \\ \langle \varphi_i | \varphi_j \rangle = 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Example of Hilbert spaces

• \mathbb{C}^2 : $\alpha \underbrace{|0\rangle}_{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}} + \beta \underbrace{|1\rangle}_{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$. (kets)

$\bar{\alpha} \langle 0| + \bar{\beta} \langle 1| = (\bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta})$ (bras)

This is the Hilbert space of a qubit.

• \mathbb{C}^d : $\sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i \underbrace{|i\rangle}_{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_d \end{pmatrix}}$ $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}$ (kets)

\uparrow
canonical basis vectors

$\sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i^* \langle i|$ (bras)

This is the Hilbert space of a qudit.

• $L^2(\mathbb{R}^3)$ space of functions $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mapsto \psi(\underline{x}) \in \mathbb{C}$.

such that $\int |\psi(\underline{x})|^2 d\underline{x} < \infty$.

In this class we do not use this space.

Inner product is $\langle \psi | \phi \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \psi^*(\underline{x}) \phi(\underline{x}) d\underline{x}$

Another notation for $\psi(\underline{x})$ is $\langle \underline{x} | \psi \rangle$.

Tensor Product.

From two (or more) Hilbert spaces \mathcal{H}_A and \mathcal{H}_B we can form a bigger space $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B \equiv \mathcal{H}_{A \cup B}$.

A concrete construction is as follows:

- \mathcal{H}_A has an orthonormal basis $|v_1\rangle \dots |v_{d_A}\rangle$, $\dim \mathcal{H}_A = d_A$
- \mathcal{H}_B has an orthonormal basis $|w_1\rangle \dots |w_{d_B}\rangle$, $\dim \mathcal{H}_B = d_B$.
- $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ is the vector space with orthonormal basis given by all pairings

$$\left\{ |v_i\rangle \otimes |w_j\rangle \quad i=1 \dots d_A \quad ; \quad j=1 \dots d_B \right\}$$

so there are $d_A d_B = \dim(\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B)$ ^{basis} vectors.

A general vector in $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ is

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi\rangle &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_A} \sum_{j=1}^{d_B} \alpha_{ij} |v_i\rangle \otimes |w_j\rangle \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_A} \sum_{j=1}^{d_B} \alpha_{ij} |v_i, w_j\rangle \quad (\text{other notation}) \\
 &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{d_A d_B \text{ components}}
 \end{aligned}$$

• Inner product given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 &(\langle \varphi_A | \otimes \langle \varphi_B |) (|\varphi_A\rangle \otimes |\varphi_B\rangle) \\
 &= \underbrace{\langle \varphi_A | \varphi_A \rangle}_{\in \mathbb{C}} \underbrace{\langle \varphi_B | \varphi_B \rangle}_{\in \mathbb{C}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it is easy to see that $\{|v_i\rangle \otimes |w_j\rangle\}$ is orthonormal (5)
 if $\{|v_i\rangle\}$ and $\{|w_j\rangle\}$ are orthonormal.

- Last property: product \otimes is distributive over addition + (hence \otimes notation). This means

$$|\varphi\rangle \otimes (\alpha|\psi_1\rangle + \beta|\psi_2\rangle) = \alpha|\varphi\rangle \otimes |\psi_1\rangle + \beta|\varphi\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle$$

- Conjugation acts like

$$(|\varphi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle)^\dagger = \langle\varphi| \otimes \langle\psi|.$$

— With all these rules the tensor product is fully defined. —

Examples.

- $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ is the space of vectors of type spanned ~~by~~ by the orthonormal basis

$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle, |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle, |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle, |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$$

So general elements of $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ are

$$|\psi\rangle = a_{00}|00\rangle + a_{01}|01\rangle + a_{10}|10\rangle + a_{11}|11\rangle.$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{00} \\ a_{01} \\ a_{10} \\ a_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

4 dim vector assuming $|00\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$; $|01\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$
 $|10\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$; $|11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

6

- In particular we have elements of the type (product state)

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \otimes (\gamma|0\rangle + \delta|1\rangle) \\
 &= \alpha\gamma|00\rangle + \alpha\delta|01\rangle + \beta\gamma|10\rangle + \beta\delta|11\rangle.
 \end{aligned}$$

- In coordinates this is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} \gamma \\ \delta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha\gamma \\ \alpha\delta \\ \beta\gamma \\ \beta\delta \end{pmatrix}$$

This is a "rule" for computing tensor products in coordinates.

- Conjugate vectors

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \psi | &= \overline{a_{00}} \langle 00 | + \overline{a_{01}} \langle 01 | + \overline{a_{10}} \langle 10 | + \overline{a_{11}} \langle 11 | \\
 &= (\overline{a_{00}}, \overline{a_{01}}, \overline{a_{10}}, \overline{a_{11}})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (\overline{\alpha} \langle 0 | + \overline{\beta} \langle 1 |) \otimes (\overline{\gamma} \langle 0 | + \overline{\delta} \langle 1 |) \\
 &= \overline{\alpha}\overline{\gamma} \langle 00 | + \overline{\alpha}\overline{\delta} \langle 01 | + \overline{\beta}\overline{\gamma} \langle 10 | + \overline{\beta}\overline{\delta} \langle 11 |
 \end{aligned}$$

This reads in coordinates

$$(\overline{\alpha}, \overline{\beta}) \otimes (\overline{\gamma}, \overline{\delta}) = (\overline{\alpha}\overline{\gamma}, \overline{\alpha}\overline{\delta}, \overline{\beta}\overline{\gamma}, \overline{\beta}\overline{\delta}).$$

Matrices

• Let \mathcal{H} have dimension d .

square $d \times d$ matrix $A: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$

$$|\psi\rangle \mapsto A|\psi\rangle$$

is just a linear map satisfying $A(|\phi\rangle + |\psi\rangle) = A|\phi\rangle + A|\psi\rangle$.

• The matrix can be represented in a basis $\{|1\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle\}$

by a tableau of matrix elements $A_{ij} = \underbrace{\langle i|}_{\text{line}} \underbrace{A|j\rangle}_{\text{column}} \in \mathbb{C}$.
bracket.

Property:

$$A = \sum_{i,j=1}^d A_{ij} |i\rangle \langle j| \quad \text{for (ortho) basis.}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} |i\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \langle i|A|j\rangle |i\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \sum_{i,j} |i\rangle \langle i|A|j\rangle \langle j| \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\sum_i |i\rangle \langle i|\right)}_{\mathbb{1}} A \underbrace{\left(\sum_j |j\rangle \langle j|\right)}_{\mathbb{1}} = A \end{aligned}$$

identity matrix,

Note $\left(\sum_i |c\rangle\langle c| \right) |v\rangle = \sum_i |c\rangle \underbrace{\langle c|v\rangle}_{\substack{\text{projection of } \vec{v} \\ \text{on } \vec{c}^T}}$.

= decomposition of \vec{v} in basis $|1\rangle \dots |d\rangle$

= $\vec{v} = |v\rangle$.

Thus indeed if $|1\rangle \dots |d\rangle$ then $\sum_i |c\rangle\langle c| = \mathbb{1}$.

• Adjoint of a matrix.

By definition the adjoint of A is the matrix A^\dagger which satisfies $\langle v | A^\dagger | w \rangle = \overline{\langle w | A | v \rangle}$.

In particular if $|1\rangle \dots |d\rangle$ is a basis we have

$$\langle i | A^\dagger | j \rangle = \langle j | A | i \rangle$$

$$\underbrace{(A^\dagger)_{ij}} = A_{ji}^*$$

We see that the adjoint = transpose & complex conjugate

$$A^\dagger = A^T, *$$

• If $A = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} |i\rangle\langle j|$

Then $A^\dagger = \sum_{i,j} A_{ji}^* |j\rangle\langle i|$.

Tensor product of matrices.

$A: \mathcal{H}_1 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1 \quad d_1 \times d_1$

$B: \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_2 \quad d_2 \times d_2$

$A \otimes B: \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2 \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_1 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2$

$| \psi_1 \rangle \otimes | \psi_2 \rangle \rightarrow (A \otimes B) | \psi_1 \rangle \otimes | \psi_2 \rangle \equiv A | \psi_1 \rangle \otimes B | \psi_2 \rangle$

+ linearity of $A \otimes B$. Note $A \otimes B$ is $d_1 d_2 \times d_1 d_2$

Tableau representations:

$$A \otimes B = \left(\sum_{ij} A_{ij} |i\rangle \langle j| \right) \otimes \left(\sum_{kl} B_{kl} |k\rangle \langle l| \right) \\ = \sum_{ijkl} A_{ij} B_{kl} |i, k\rangle \langle j, l|$$

So the matrix elements of $A \otimes B$ are

$$(A \otimes B)_{ik; jl} = A_{ij} B_{kl}$$

One can see that this is equivalent to making

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix}_{2 \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} ae & af & be & bf \\ ag & ah & bg & bh \\ ce & cf & de & df \\ cg & ch & dg & dh \end{pmatrix}_{4 \times 4}$$

Two types of matrices will play a particularly important role for us.

Hermitian matrices, or self-adjoint matrices

A is a hermitian matrix (or self-adjoint) if

$$A = A^\dagger \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{i.e. } A = A^{T,*} \\ \text{or } A_{ij} = A_{ji}^* \end{array} \right).$$

Spectral Theorem for hermitian matrix (very important) exercise

Let A be hermitian. Then all its eigenvalues are real. ~~The eigenvectors are orthogonal~~ One can choose all eigenvectors to be orthonormal and they form a basis of \mathcal{H} . In particular if

$$A |v_i\rangle = \lambda_i |v_i\rangle$$

\uparrow eigenvalue $\in \mathbb{R}$ \nwarrow eigenvector.

we have

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i |v_i\rangle \langle v_i|$$

$$\left(\text{or } A = \sum_{i=1}^d \lambda_i \underbrace{|v_i\rangle \langle v_i|}_{\text{projection matrix on } |v_i\rangle} \right).$$

Unitary matrices.

U is unitary if $U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = \mathbb{1}$.

Properties (exercises).

- $U^{-1} = U^\dagger$
- U preserves inner product. $(U|\varphi\rangle)^\dagger (U|\varphi\rangle) = \langle \varphi | \varphi \rangle$.
- U preserves norm $\|U\varphi\| = \|\varphi\|$.
- Lines of U are an orthonormal basis.
Same for columns.

Examples.

The following are 2×2 hermitian matrices:

$$\mathbb{1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_x = X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\sigma_z = Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\{\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z\}$ are called the Pauli matrices. We will encounter them often and also their properties.

Any 2×2 hermitian matrix can be written with $A = a_0 \mathbb{1} + a_1 \sigma_x + a_2 \sigma_y + a_3 \sigma_z$,
and $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{R}$

Properties (exercise)

$$\bullet \sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2 = \sigma_z^2 = \mathbb{1}.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \sigma_x \sigma_y = -\sigma_y \sigma_x \\ \sigma_x \sigma_z = -\sigma_z \sigma_x \\ \sigma_y \sigma_z = -\sigma_z \sigma_y \end{array} \right.$$

this is the Pauli matrix algebra.

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} [\sigma_x, \sigma_y] = 2i\sigma_z \\ [\sigma_y, \sigma_z] = 2i\sigma_x \\ [\sigma_z, \sigma_x] = 2i\sigma_y \end{array} \right.$$

Eigenvectors & eigenvalues of σ_z : $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = |0\rangle$, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = |1\rangle$
 $\quad \quad \quad +1 \quad \quad \quad -1.$

Eig vectors & eigenval of σ_x : $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow +1$
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow -1.$

Eig vect & eigenval of σ_y : do it yourself!

Stines Theorem.

Let U be a unitary matrix. There exist an hermitian matrix H such that $U = \exp(iH)$.

Remark: The exponential of a matrix is by definition

$$\exp(M) = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \frac{M^k}{k!} = \mathbb{1} + M + \frac{M^2}{2!} + \frac{M^3}{3!} + \dots$$

Case of 2×2 unitary matrices. (will come back later in class),

They can always be written as

$$U = e^{iH} \quad \text{with} \quad H = a_0 \mathbb{1} + a_1 \sigma_x + a_2 \sigma_y + a_3 \sigma_z$$

and $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Euler's formula (follows from algebra of Pauli matrices)

$$e^{iH} = e^{ia_0} e^{i(a_1 \sigma_x + a_2 \sigma_y + a_3 \sigma_z)}$$

$$= e^{ia_0} \left(\cos \alpha \mathbb{1} + i \sin \alpha \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \right)$$

with $\alpha = \|\vec{a}\|$ and $\hat{n} = \frac{\vec{a}}{\|\vec{a}\|}$ and $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$.