

Phys 366

Lectures 10-13

Linear algebra and complex vector spaces

# Vectors in a complex vector space with an inner product bra-ket notation

## Linear operators on vectors

Quantum mechanics as an example: quantum states and dynamics

Qubits: two-dimensional complex vector spaces

Complex vector space: vectors  $\psi$  with addition (zero vector) and scalar multiplication by complex numbers ( $\mathbb{C}$ )  $a\psi$   
 $\psi + \phi$   
Denoted  $\mathbb{C}^d$

Linear combination:  $a\psi + b\phi$   
Real vector space  $\mathbb{R}^d$

Linear independence: Vectors  $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n$  are linearly independent if  
 $a_1\psi_1 + \dots + a_n\psi_n = 0 \implies a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$

Linearly independent  $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n$  span an  $n$ -dimensional subspace.  
If  $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n$  are not linearly independent, they span a subspace of dimension smaller than  $n$ .

The dimension  $d$  of a vector space is the maximum number of linearly independent vectors.

Inner product:  $(\phi, \psi) \in \mathbb{C}$

① Linear in right slot:  $(\phi, a\psi + b\chi) = a(\phi, \psi) + b(\phi, \chi)$

② Complex symmetric:  $(\phi, \psi) = (\psi, \phi)^*$

$\implies$  antilinear in left slot, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} (a\phi + b\chi, \psi) &= (\psi, a\phi + b\chi)^* \\ &= a^*(\psi, \phi)^* + b^*(\psi, \chi)^* \\ &= a^*(\phi, \psi) + b^*(\chi, \psi) \end{aligned}$$

Real vector space  
 $(\phi, \psi) = \vec{\phi} \cdot \vec{\psi} \in \mathbb{R}$

A complex vector space with an inner product is called a Hilbert space.

The inner product is sometimes said to be complex bilinear.

③  $(\psi, \psi) \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $\psi = 0$ .

$\uparrow$   
real by ②

Orthonormal basis  $e_j, j=1, \dots, d$

$$(e_j, e_k) = \delta_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1, & j=k \\ 0, & j \neq k \end{cases}$$

The vectors in an orthonormal basis are linearly independent

Any vector  $\psi$  can be expanded uniquely in an orthonormal basis:

$$\psi = \sum_{j=1}^d e_j c_j, \quad c_j = (e_j, \psi)$$

$\psi$  is represented in the basis  $\{e_j\}$  by the column vector

$$\psi \leftrightarrow \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{pmatrix}$$

Inner product:  $(\phi, \psi) = \sum_{j,k} d_j^* c_k (e_j, e_k)$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^d d_j^* c_j$$

$$(\psi, \psi) = \sum_{j=1}^d |c_j|^2$$

$$= (d_1^* \dots d_d^*) \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{pmatrix}$$

Dirac (bra-ket) notation

$$\psi \xrightarrow{\text{ket}} |\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d c_j |e_j\rangle \quad \phi \rightarrow |\phi\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d d_j |e_j\rangle$$

$$(\phi | \psi) \rightarrow \langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d d_j^* c_j$$

$$(e_j | e_k) \rightarrow \langle e_j | e_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}$$

$$\langle \psi | = \sum_{j=1}^d c_j^* \langle e_j | \rightarrow (c_1^* \dots c_d^*) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1^* \\ \vdots \\ c_d^* \end{pmatrix} \dagger$$

adjoint: transpose and complex conjugate

$$\langle \phi | = \sum_{j=1}^d d_j^* \langle e_j | \rightarrow (d_1^* \dots d_d^*)$$

$$\langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \sum_{j,k} d_j^* \underbrace{\langle e_j | e_k \rangle}_{\delta_{jk}} c_k = \sum_{j=1}^d d_j^* c_j$$

$$\| |\psi\rangle \|^2 = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d |c_j|^2 \quad \leftarrow \| |\psi\rangle \| \text{ is the } \underline{\text{magnitude}} \text{ of } |\psi\rangle$$

Why do we do this?

$I =$  unit operator

Hint:  $|\phi\rangle = \sum_j |e_j\rangle \langle e_j | \phi \rangle = \sum_j |e_j\rangle \langle e_j | \phi \rangle$

how we're currently thinking

how we want to think

Orthonormality

$$\langle e_j | e_k \rangle = \delta_{jk}$$

Completeness

$$I = \sum_{j=1}^d |e_j\rangle \langle e_j|$$

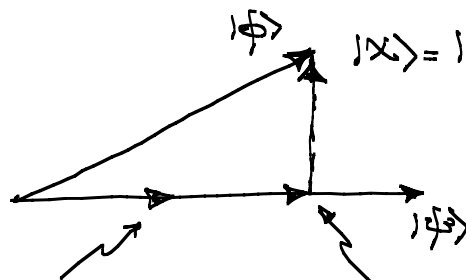
← resolution of the identity

$$|\phi\rangle = \sum_j \langle \phi | e_j \rangle |e_j\rangle$$

Schwarz inequality:  $|\langle \phi | \psi \rangle| \leq \langle \phi | \phi \rangle^{1/2} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle^{1/2}$

Pythagoras  $A \cdot B = |A||B| \cos \theta$

We often draw pictures that are, strictly speaking, correct only for real vector spaces.



The Schwarz inequality is the statement that  $|x\rangle$  has nonnegative length.

$$|e\rangle = |\psi\rangle / \langle \psi | \psi \rangle^{1/2}$$

$$|z\rangle = |e\rangle \langle e | \phi \rangle = \frac{|\psi\rangle \langle \psi | \phi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$$

$$|\phi\rangle = |x\rangle + |z\rangle, \quad \langle x | z \rangle = 0 \text{ by construction (check it!)}$$

$$\langle \phi | \phi \rangle = \underbrace{\langle x | x \rangle}_{\geq 0} + \langle z | z \rangle \geq \langle z | z \rangle = \frac{|\langle \psi | \phi \rangle|^2}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \phi | \phi \rangle \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \geq |\langle \psi | \phi \rangle|^2, \text{ with equality iff } |x\rangle = 0 \text{ i.e., } |\phi\rangle = |z\rangle \text{ or } |\phi\rangle = a|\psi\rangle$$

Natural transformations: What is the (passive) transformation between two orthonormal bases?

$$c'_j = \langle e'_j | \psi \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^d \underbrace{\langle e'_j | e_k \rangle}_{= V_{jk}} \underbrace{\langle e_k | \psi \rangle}_{c_k} = \sum_{k=1}^d V_{jk} c_k, \quad \begin{pmatrix} c'_1 \\ \vdots \\ c'_d \end{pmatrix} = V \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_k = \langle e_k | \psi \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d \langle e_k | e'_j \rangle \langle e'_j | \psi \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^d V_{jk}^* c'_j = \sum_{j=1}^d (V^\dagger)_{kj} c'_j$$

$V^\dagger = (V^*)^T$  is the inverse of  $V$ :  $V^\dagger V = I = V V^\dagger$  ⊕  
 $V$  is a unitary matrix

Groups:  $GL(d, \mathbb{C})$   
 $U(d) \leftarrow$  no disconnected pieces  
 $O(d)$

$$|e_k\rangle = \sum_j |e_j'\rangle \underbrace{\langle e_j' | e_k \rangle}_{V_{jk}} = \sum_j |e_j'\rangle V_{jk}$$

$$|e_j'\rangle = \sum_k |e_k\rangle \underbrace{\langle e_k | e_j' \rangle}_{V_{jk}^*} = \sum_k |e_k\rangle (V^\dagger)_{kj}$$

$$\delta_{jk} = \langle e_j' | e_k' \rangle = \sum_l \underbrace{\langle e_j' | e_l \rangle}_{V_{jl}} \underbrace{\langle e_l | e_k' \rangle}_{V_{lk}^*} = \sum_l V_{jl} V_{lk}^* = \sum_l V_{jl} (V^\dagger)_{lk} = (V V^\dagger)_{jk}$$

↑  
rows are orthonormal

$$\delta_{jk} = \langle e_j | e_k \rangle = \sum_l \underbrace{\langle e_j | e_l' \rangle}_{V_{lj}^*} \underbrace{\langle e_l' | e_k \rangle}_{V_{lk}} = \sum_l V_{lj}^* V_{lk} = \sum_l (V^\dagger)_{jl} V_{lk} = (V^\dagger V)_{jk}$$

↑  
columns are orthonormal

Context: All linear systems can be described using Dirac notation, but the formalism is made up for quantum mechanics.

A state is a normalized vector  $|\psi\rangle$ . A measurement is an orthonormal basis  $|e_j\rangle$ ,  $j=1, \dots, d$ , with the results being the basis vectors. The probability that the measurement "finds the system in the state  $|e_j\rangle$ " is

$$P_j = |c_j|^2 = |\langle e_j | \psi \rangle|^2 = \langle \psi | e_j \rangle \langle e_j | \psi \rangle$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^d P_j = \sum_j \langle \psi | e_j \rangle \langle e_j | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$$

$c_j = \langle e_j | \psi \rangle$  is called a probability amplitude.

Notice that  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $e^{i\phi}|\psi\rangle$  give the same probabilities.

Linear operators:  $A|\psi\rangle$  is a vector

$$A(a|\psi\rangle + b|\phi\rangle) = aA|\psi\rangle + bA|\phi\rangle$$

Some people like to distinguish operators by putting a "hat" on them, i.e.,  $\hat{A}$ .



Basis transformations (passive transformation):

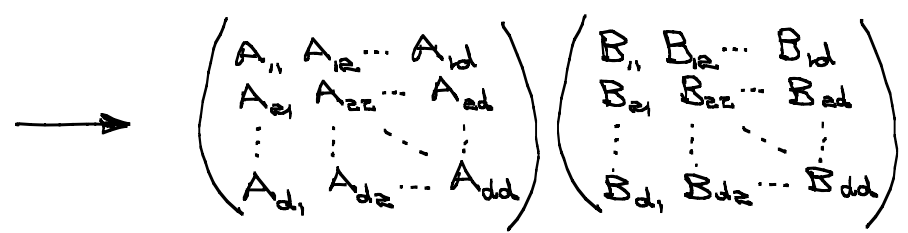
$$A'_{jk} = \langle e'_j | A | e'_k \rangle = \sum_{\ell, m} \underbrace{\langle e'_j | e_\ell \rangle}_{V_{j\ell}} \underbrace{\langle e_\ell | A | e_m \rangle}_{A_{\ell m}} \underbrace{\langle e_m | e'_k \rangle}_{V^*_{km}}$$

$$A'_{jk} = \sum_{\ell, m} V_{j\ell} A_{\ell m} V^*_{km} = \sum_{\ell, m} V_{j\ell} A_{\ell m} (V^\dagger)_{mk}$$

rows transform like a ket      columns transform like a bra

Operator products

$$AB = \sum_{j, \ell, m, k} A_{j\ell} B_{mk} |e_j\rangle \langle e_\ell | e_m \rangle \langle e_k| = \sum_{j, k} \left( \sum_{\ell} A_{j\ell} B_{\ell k} \right) |e_j\rangle \langle e_k|$$



Inverse:  $A^{-1}$  ← iff  $\det A \neq 0$       Is  $\det A$  basis-independent?

The invertible operators (matrices) make up the group  $GL(d, \mathbb{C})$  under matrix multiplication, which is associative, but not commutative.

Commutator:  $[A, B] = AB - BA$

Adjoint operator  $A^\dagger$  (Hermitian conjugate)

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi\rangle &= \sum_j |e_j\rangle \langle e_j | \psi \rangle = \sum_j |e_j\rangle c_j \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \langle \psi | = \sum_j \langle \psi | e_j \rangle \langle e_j | = \sum_j c_j^* \langle e_j | \\
 \uparrow \text{ket} & & \uparrow \text{bra} \\
 A |\psi\rangle &= \sum_{j, k} |e_j\rangle A_{jk} c_k \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad \sum_{j, k} A_{jk}^* c_k^* \langle e_j | = \sum_{j, k} c_k^* (A^\dagger)_{kj} \langle e_j | \\
 & & = \langle \psi | A^\dagger
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \dots & A_{1d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{d1} & \dots & A_{dd} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{pmatrix} \longleftrightarrow (c_1^* \dots c_d^*) \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}^* & \dots & A_{1d}^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{d1}^* & \dots & A_{dd}^* \end{pmatrix}$$

So  $\langle e_j | A^\dagger | e_k \rangle = (A^\dagger)_{jk} = A_{kj}^* = \langle e_k | A | e_j \rangle^*$

$$A = \sum_{j,k} |e_j\rangle \langle e_j | A | e_k \rangle \langle e_k| = \sum_{j,k} A_{jk} |e_j\rangle \langle e_k|$$

$$A^\dagger = \sum_{j,k} |e_j\rangle \underbrace{\langle e_j | A^\dagger | e_k \rangle}_{\langle e_k | A | e_j \rangle^*} \langle e_k| = \sum_{j,k} A_{jk}^* |e_k\rangle \langle e_j|$$

The rules for all adjoints:

① Complex conjugate numbers.

② Change kets to bras and bras to kets.

This works for vectors ( $| \psi \rangle^\dagger = \langle \psi |$ ) and operators.

Generally,

$$\langle \phi | A | \psi \rangle^* = \sum_{j,k} d_j A_{jk}^* c_k^* = \sum c_k^* (A^\dagger)_{kj} d_j = \langle \psi | A^\dagger | \phi \rangle$$

This is the official definition of the adjoint:

$$\langle \phi | A | \psi \rangle^* = \langle \psi | A^\dagger | \phi \rangle$$

①  $(| \psi \rangle \langle \phi |)^\dagger = | \phi \rangle \langle \psi |$

②  $(A^\dagger)^\dagger = A$

③  $(AB)^\dagger = B^\dagger A^\dagger$

This can be written as

$$\langle A \psi | \phi \rangle = \langle \phi | A \psi \rangle^* = \langle \psi | A^\dagger \phi \rangle,$$

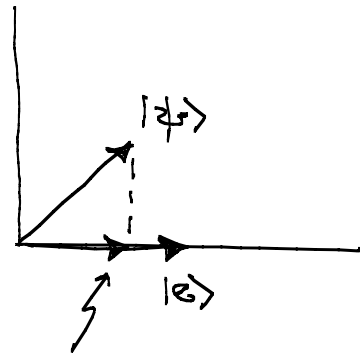
but we never put operators inside bras and kets, so we can only write this using our original notation for the inner product:

$$(A \psi, \phi) = (\phi, A \psi)^* = (\psi, A^\dagger \phi)$$

# Projection operators

$P = |e\rangle\langle e|$  is the one-dimensional projector onto the vector  $|e\rangle$ .

$$P|\psi\rangle = |e\rangle\langle e|\psi\rangle$$



$$P|\psi\rangle = |e\rangle\langle e|\psi\rangle$$

$P = \sum_{j=1}^n |e_j\rangle\langle e_j|$  is the n-dimensional projector onto the subspace spanned by  $|e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_n\rangle$ .

$$P|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n |e_j\rangle\langle e_j|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j |e_j\rangle$$

$P$  slices off the components for  $j > n$ .

A projection operator is an operator that satisfies

$$P = P^\dagger = P^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{Hermitian with eigenvalues equal to 1 or 0.}$$

Eigendecompositions: An operator  $A$  has an eigendecomposition (spectral decomposition) iff  $[A, A^\dagger] = 0$ ; i.e., there exists an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors  $|\lambda_j\rangle$  and eigenvalues  $\lambda_j$  such that

$$A = \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle\langle \lambda_j| \iff \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j P_j$$

$$A|\lambda_j\rangle = \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle$$

OR

$$\langle \lambda_j | A | \lambda_k \rangle = \lambda_j \delta_{jk}$$

$A$  has a diagonal matrix in its eigenbasis.

An operator that commutes with its adjoint is

called a normal operator.

$$A^\dagger = \sum_j \lambda_j^* |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|$$

$$A^\dagger |\lambda_j\rangle = \lambda_j^* |\lambda_j\rangle$$

(9)

Diagonalizing a normal operator (solving the eigenvalue problem).

Eigenvalue equation:

$$(A - \lambda I) |\lambda\rangle = 0$$

$$\sum_k \langle e_j | (A - \lambda I) | e_k \rangle \overbrace{\langle e_k | \lambda \rangle}^{c_k} = 0$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} - \lambda & A_{12} & \dots & A_{1d} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} - \lambda & \dots & A_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{d1} & A_{d2} & \dots & A_{dd} - \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_d \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

To have a nontrivial solution requires  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$   
Characteristic equation

For a normal operator, the characteristic equation has  $d$  roots (counting multiple roots). These are the eigenvalues.

Assume no degeneracies. Pick an eigenvalue. Things are a little more complicated if there are degeneracies.

$(A - \lambda_j I) |\lambda_j\rangle$  determines  $|\lambda_j\rangle$  up to normalization. Normalize it (even after normalizing,  $|\lambda_j\rangle$  can be multiplied by an arbitrary phase  $e^{i\alpha}$ ).

Notice that  $AA^\dagger |\lambda_j\rangle = A^\dagger A |\lambda_j\rangle = \lambda_j A^\dagger |\lambda_j\rangle \Rightarrow A^\dagger |\lambda_j\rangle = a |\lambda_j\rangle$ ,  
but  $\lambda_j = \langle \lambda_j | A | \lambda_j \rangle = \langle \lambda_j | A^\dagger | \lambda_j \rangle^* = a^*$ , so  $A^\dagger |\lambda_j\rangle = \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle$ .  
Now we have  $(\langle \lambda_j | A = \lambda_j \langle \lambda_j |)$

$$(\lambda_j - \lambda_k) \langle \lambda_j | \lambda_k \rangle = \langle \lambda_j | (A - A) | \lambda_k \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_j \neq \lambda_k, \langle \lambda_j | \lambda_k \rangle = 0$$

The eigenvectors are an orthonormal set. If there are degeneracies, we can choose the eigenvectors to be an orthonormal set.

Transforming to the eigenbasis:

$$\lambda_j \delta_{jk} = \langle \lambda_j | A | \lambda_k \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{e_j, e_m} \underbrace{\langle \lambda_j | e_j \rangle}_{V_{jl}} \underbrace{\langle e_j | A | e_m \rangle}_{A_{jm}} \underbrace{\langle e_m | \lambda_k \rangle}_{V_{km}^* = (V^\dagger)_{mk}}$$

$$\lambda_j \delta_{jk} = \sum_{l,m} V_{jl} A_{lm} (V^\dagger)_{mk} \quad \leftarrow \text{A is diagonalized by a unitary transformation} \quad (10)$$

You can do this transformation in the other direction:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{lm} &= \langle e_l | A | e_m \rangle \\ &= \sum_{j,k} \underbrace{\langle e_l | \lambda_j \rangle}_{V_{jl}^* = (V^\dagger)_{lj}} \underbrace{\langle \lambda_j | A | \lambda_k \rangle}_{\lambda_j \delta_{jk}} \underbrace{\langle \lambda_k | e_m \rangle}_{V_{km}} \end{aligned}$$

$$A_{lm} = \sum_j \lambda_j (V^\dagger)_{lj} V_{jm}$$

Functions of operators:

$$\textcircled{1} f(x) = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \Omega_s x^s, \quad f(A) = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \Omega_s A^s$$

$\textcircled{2}$  A a normal operator with eigendecomposition

$$A = \sum_j \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|, \quad f(A) = \sum_j f(\lambda_j) |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|$$

Special operators:

$\textcircled{1}$  Projection operators

$\textcircled{2}$  Hermitian operators:  $H = H^\dagger = \sum_{j=1}^d \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|$

Hermitian operators are the normal operators that have real eigenvalues.

eigenvalues are real

Hermitian operators are the Observables of quantum mechanics. The eigenvalues are the possible values of the observable. To measure an observable is to measure in its eigenbasis, with the results labeled by the eigenvalues.

The expectation value of an observable  $H = \sum_j \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j|$  is the mean value of the eigenvalues. If the system is in the state  $|\psi\rangle$ , the expectation value is

$$\begin{aligned} \langle H \rangle &= \sum_j \lambda_j \underbrace{p(\lambda_j)}_{\langle \lambda_j | \psi \rangle^2} = \langle \psi | \left( \sum_j \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle \langle \lambda_j| \right) | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle = \langle H \rangle \\ &\quad \langle \lambda_j | \psi \rangle^2 = \langle \psi | \lambda_j \times \lambda_j | \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

③ Unitary operators are the operators that preserve inner products:

$$\langle \phi | U^\dagger U | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | \psi \rangle \text{ for all } |\psi\rangle \text{ and } |\phi\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow U^\dagger U = I = U U^\dagger$$

Unitary group  $U(d)$   
Corresponding for real vector spaces is the orthogonal group  $O(d)$

A unitary operator is an active transformation that maps an orthonormal basis to another orthonormal basis:

$$|e'_j\rangle = U |e_j\rangle \Rightarrow \langle e'_k | e'_j \rangle = \langle e'_k | U | e_j \rangle = U_{kj}$$

↑  
Notice! We called this  $V_{jk}^* = (V^\dagger)_{kj}$  when we were considering passive transformations.

Eigendecomposition:  $U = \sum e^{i\theta_j} |e_j\rangle \langle e_j|$

Unitary operators are the normal operators whose eigenvalues are phases.

↑  
eigenvalues are phases.

Let  $H = \sum \lambda_j | \lambda_j \rangle \langle \lambda_j |$

$$e^{iH} = \sum_j e^{i\lambda_j} | \lambda_j \rangle \langle \lambda_j | = U$$

any unitary can be written this way.

The unitary operators are the dynamical transformations of quantum mechanics:

$$| \psi(t) \rangle = \underbrace{e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H t}}_{\text{evolution (unitary) operator}} | \psi(0) \rangle$$

The minus sign is convention.  
 $\hbar = h/2\pi$  is Planck's (reduced) constant

$$H = \sum_j E_j |E_j\rangle\langle E_j| \text{ is the Hamiltonian.}$$

↑  
energy eigenvalues

$[\hbar] = (\text{energy}) \times (\text{time})$   
 $[H] = \text{energy}$

$$e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H t} = \sum_j e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j t} |E_j\rangle\langle E_j|$$

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H t} |\psi(0)\rangle = \sum_j e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j t} |E_j\rangle\langle E_j | \psi(0)\rangle$$

$$c_j(t) = \langle E_j | \psi(t)\rangle = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j t} c_j(0)$$

Operator derivative

$$\frac{d}{dt} (e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H t}) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \sum_j E_j e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j t} |E_j\rangle\langle E_j| = -\frac{i}{\hbar} H e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} H t}$$

So  $i\hbar \frac{d|\psi(t)\rangle}{dt} = H |\psi(t)\rangle$  Schrödinger equation

Let's integrate this in the energy eigenbasis to see we get the same thing as above:

$$\frac{d\langle E_j | \psi(t)\rangle}{dt} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \underbrace{\langle E_j | H | \psi(t)\rangle}_{E_j \langle E_j |} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j \langle E_j | \psi(t)\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\langle E_j | \psi(t)\rangle}_{c_j(t)} = e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} E_j t} \underbrace{\langle E_j | \psi(0)\rangle}_{c_j(0)}$$

probability amplitude for energy eigenvalue  $E_j$  at time  $t$

Trace: The trace of an operator  $A$  is

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_j \langle e_j | A | e_j \rangle$$

Is it independent of basis?

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_j \langle e_j | A | e_j \rangle &= \sum_k \langle e_j | e_k \rangle \langle e_k | A | e_j \rangle \\ &= \sum_k \langle e_k | A | e_j \rangle \langle e_j | e_k \rangle \\ &= \sum_k \langle e_k | A | e_k \rangle \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

① tr is linear:  $\text{tr}(aA + bB) = a\text{tr}(A) + b\text{tr}(B)$

②  $\text{tr}(|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|) = \sum_j \langle e_j | \psi \rangle \langle \phi | e_j \rangle = \sum_j \langle \phi | e_j \rangle \langle e_j | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | \psi \rangle$

tr is a machine that turns outer products into inner products.

$\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr}\left(\sum_{jk} A_{jk} |e_j\rangle\langle e_k|\right) = \sum_{j,k} A_{jk} \underbrace{\langle e_k | e_j \rangle}_{\delta_{jk}} = \sum_j A_{jj}$

③  $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$

④  $\text{tr}(ABC) = \text{tr}(CAB)$  ← cyclic property of the trace; follows from ③

Density operators: Suppose somebody hands you a quantum system and tells you he has prepared it in state  $|\psi_\alpha\rangle$  with probability  $g_\alpha$ . What is the probability to get result  $j$  in a measurement in basis  $|e_j\rangle$ ?

$$P_j = \sum_\alpha P_{j|\alpha} g_\alpha = \sum_\alpha |\langle e_j | \psi_\alpha \rangle|^2 g_\alpha = \langle e_j | \underbrace{\left(\sum_\alpha g_\alpha |\psi_\alpha\rangle\langle\psi_\alpha|\right)}_{=\rho} | e_j \rangle$$
  
 ↑  
 probability to get result  $j$  given that the system is in state  $|\psi_\alpha\rangle = |\langle e_j | \psi_\alpha \rangle|^2$   
 This is the density operator

Density operator:  $\rho = \sum_\alpha g_\alpha |\psi_\alpha\rangle\langle\psi_\alpha|$

If there is only one term, i.e.,  $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$ , this is called a pure state. If there is more than one term,  $\rho$  is a mixed state.

①  $\rho = \rho^\dagger$  is Hermitian.

②  $\text{tr}(\rho) = 1$

③ In its eigendecomposition,  $\rho = \sum_j \lambda_j |f_j\rangle\langle f_j|$ , the nonnegative eigenvalues  $\lambda_j \geq 0$  are the probabilities for a measurement in the eigenbasis  $|f_j\rangle$ .

④ The probability of result  $j$  in a measurement in basis  $|e_j\rangle$  is

$$p_j = \langle e_j | \rho | e_j \rangle = \text{tr}(\rho |e_j\rangle \langle e_j|)$$

$$\langle H \rangle = \sum_j H_j p_j = \text{tr}(\rho H)$$

$$\text{Observable } H = \sum_j H_j |e_j\rangle \langle e_j|$$

Pure state  $\rho = |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$

$$p_j = \langle e_j | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | e_j \rangle \\ = |\langle e_j | \psi \rangle|^2$$

$$\langle A \rangle = \text{tr}(|\psi\rangle \langle \psi| A) \\ = \langle \psi | A | \psi \rangle$$