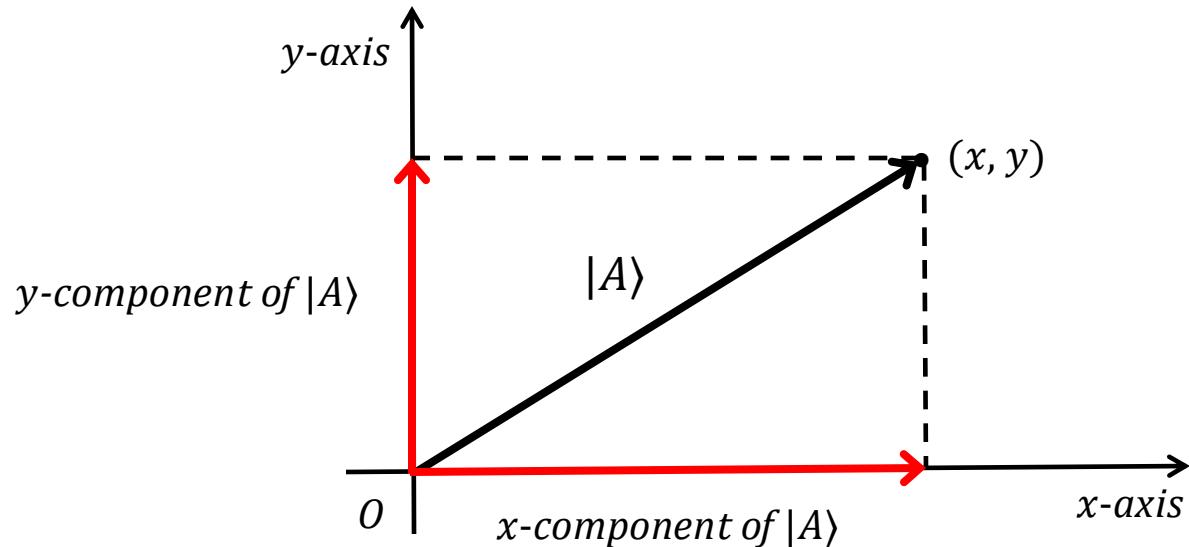


## I. Vectors and Vector Spaces: 9 Easy Steps

### 1. Vectors

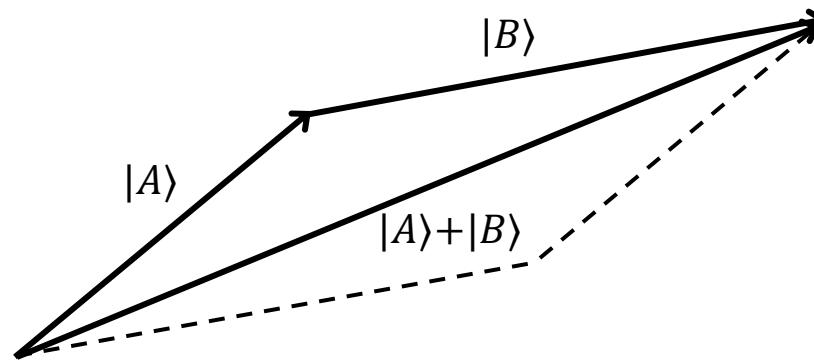
- A vector = a magnitude ("length") *and* a direction
- One way to represent vectors:



- Every point in  $x$ - $y$  plane has a vector  $|A\rangle$  associated with it.
- In this example, the collection of all vectors  $|A\rangle$ ,  $|B\rangle$ ,  $|C\rangle$ , ... forms a 2-dimensional *vector space*, call it  $V$ .

## 2. Vector addition

- To add vectors  $|A\rangle$  and  $|B\rangle$  in  $V$ , place tail of  $|B\rangle$  to head of  $|A\rangle$  to form a third vector in  $V$ ,  $|A\rangle+|B\rangle$ , whose tail is the tail of  $|A\rangle$  and whose head is the head of  $|B\rangle$ :



## 3. Scalar (number) multiplication

- Numbers can be multiplied to vectors. The result is another vector.

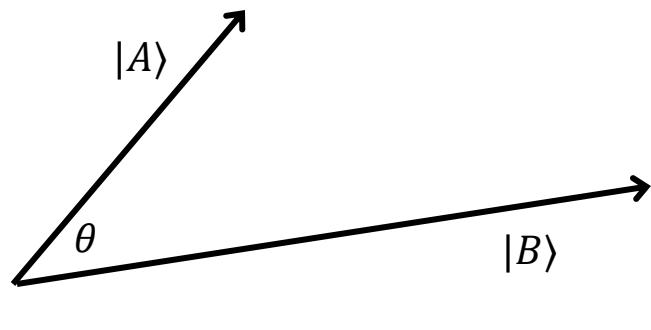
Ex:  $5|A\rangle$  is a vector in  $V$  that you get by multiplying the vector  $|A\rangle$  by the number 5.

#### 4. Inner-product (or dot-product)

- Vectors can be multiplied to each other.
- One type of vector multiplication is called the *inner-product*.
- The inner-product of two vectors  $|A\rangle$ ,  $|B\rangle$  is written as  $\langle A|B\rangle$  and is a *number* defined by:

$$\langle A|B\rangle \equiv |A||B|\cos\theta$$

length of  $|A\rangle$       length of  $|B\rangle$       angle between  
 $|A\rangle$  and  $|B\rangle$



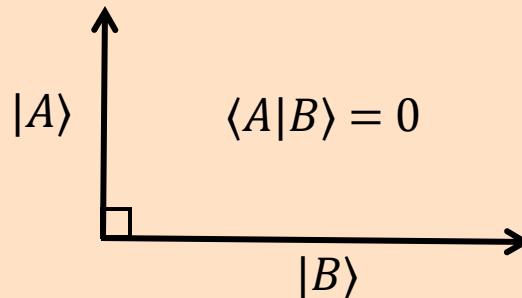
Note: This means  $\langle A|A\rangle = |A||A| \cos(0) = |A|^2$ .

So the *length* of a vector  $|A\rangle$  is given by  $|A| = \sqrt{\langle A|A\rangle}$

## 5. Orthogonality

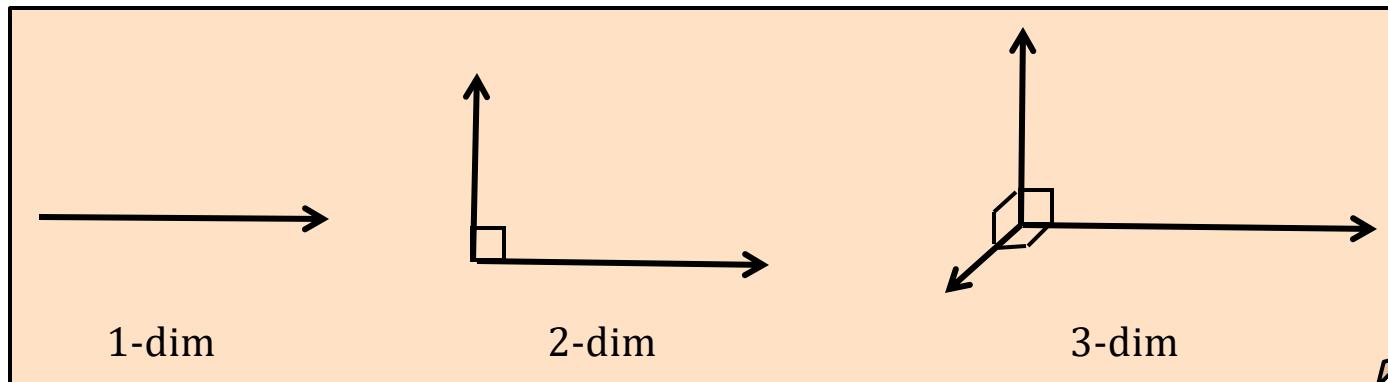
- Two non-zero-length vectors  $|A\rangle$  and  $|B\rangle$  are *orthogonal* (perpendicular) just when their inner-product is zero:  $\langle A|B\rangle = 0$ .

Check:  $\langle A|B\rangle = |A||B|\cos\theta = 0$ , just when  $\theta = 90^\circ$ , given  $|A| \neq 0 \neq |B|$ .



## 6. Dimensionality

- The *dimension* of a linear vector space is equal to the maximum number  $N$  of mutually orthogonal vectors.



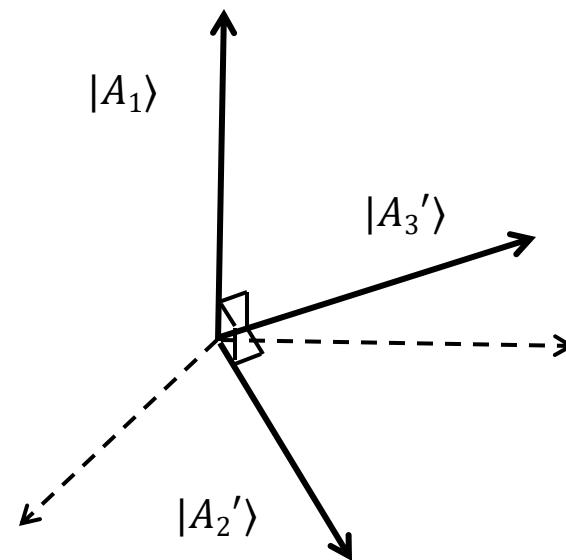
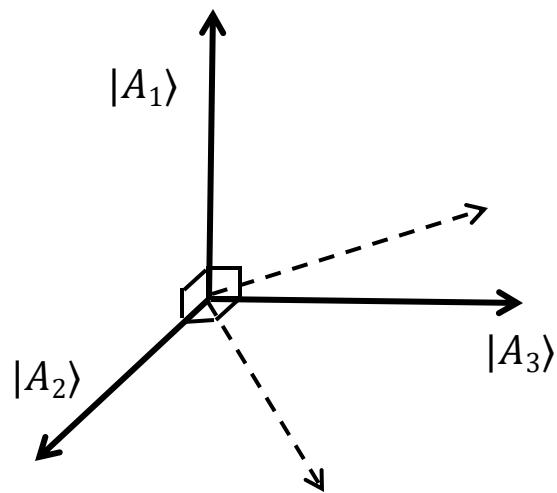
## 7. Orthonormal bases

- An orthonormal basis of an  $N$ -dimensional vector space is a set of  $N$  mutually orthogonal vectors, each with unit length (or *norm*).

Note: An  $N$ -dim vector space can have many different orthonormal bases!

Ex: Let  $N = 3$ .

Then  $|A_1\rangle, |A_2\rangle, |A_3\rangle$  and  $|A_1\rangle, |A_2'\rangle, |A_3'\rangle$  are two different orthonormal bases:

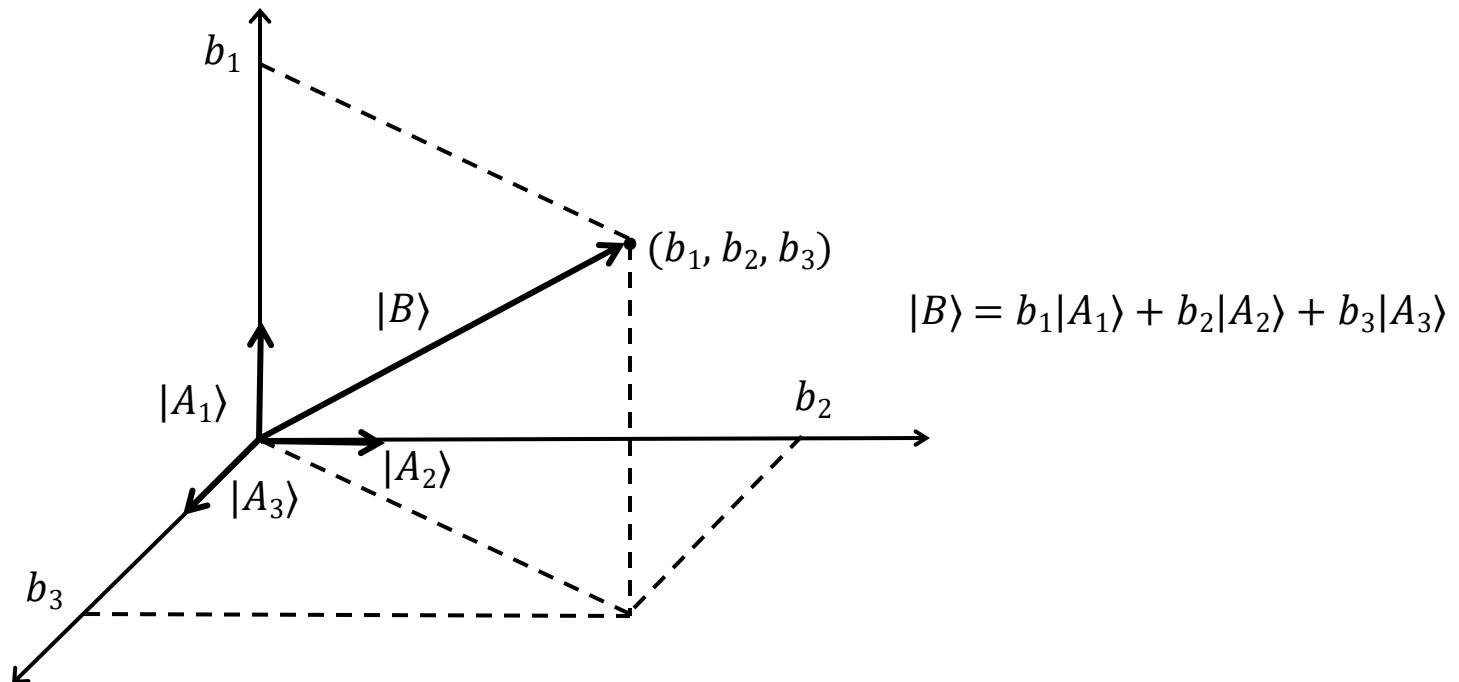


## 8. Expansion in an orthonormal basis

- In an  $N$ -dimensional vector space, any vector  $|B\rangle$  can be *expanded* in terms of any orthonormal basis.

- Suppose:  $|A_1\rangle, |A_2\rangle, \dots |A_N\rangle$  are  $N$  orthonormal basis vectors.
- Suppose:  $|B\rangle$  is an  $N$ -dim vector.
- Then:  $|B\rangle = b_1|A_1\rangle + b_2|A_2\rangle + \dots + b_N|A_N\rangle$ .
- And: The numbers  $b_i = \langle A_i | B \rangle$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , are called *expansion coefficients*.

Ex: Let  $N = 3$ .



## 9. Column vectors and row vectors

- One way to represent vectors is in terms of columns or rows of their expansion coefficients in a given basis:

Ex:  $|B\rangle = b_1|A_1\rangle + b_2|A_2\rangle + b_3|A_3\rangle$

$$|B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix} = b_1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b_3 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

  
*column vector*

Rule: To turn a column vector into a row vector, take the complex conjugate of its expansion coefficients:

$$\langle B| = b_1^* \langle A_1| + b_2^* \langle A_2| + b_3^* \langle A_3|$$

$$\langle B| = (b_1^*, b_2^*, b_3^*) = b_1^*(1, 0, 0) + b_2^*(0, 1, 0) + b_3^*(0, 0, 1)$$

  
*row vector*

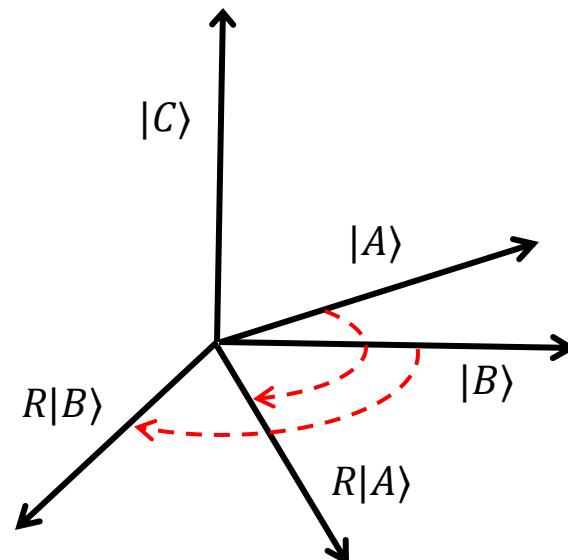
## II. Operators: 3 Easy Steps

### 1. Linear Operators

- A *linear operator*  $O$  is a map that assigns to any vector  $|A\rangle$ , another vector  $O|A\rangle$ , such that, for any other vector  $|B\rangle$  and numbers  $n, m$ ,

$$O(n|A\rangle + m|B\rangle) = n(O|A\rangle) + m(O|B\rangle)$$

Ex: *Rotation operator* = a map  $R$  that assigns to any vector another one that is rotated clockwise by  $90^\circ$  about vector  $|C\rangle$ , is a linear operator.



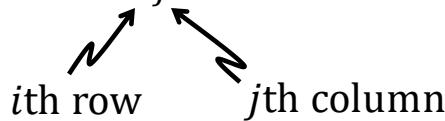
## 2. Matrix representation of linear operators

- An operator can be represented by its *components* in a given basis.
- The *components*  $O_{ij}$  ( $i, j = 1, \dots, N$ ) of an operator  $O$  in the basis  $|A_1\rangle, \dots, |A_N\rangle$  are defined by:

$$O_{ij} \equiv \langle A_i | O | A_j \rangle$$

*Note:* These are *numbers*: the result of taking the inner-product of the *vectors*  $|A_i\rangle$  and  $O|A_j\rangle$ .

- The components  $O_{ij}$  of a linear operator form the elements of a *matrix*.

ith row      jth column

*Ex:* 2-dim operator  $O$  in  $|A_1\rangle, |A_2\rangle$  basis.

$$O = \begin{pmatrix} O_{11} & O_{12} \\ O_{21} & O_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Column and row vectors are special cases of matrices:
  - A column vector is a matrix with a single column.
  - A row vector is a matrix with a single row.

## Matrix multiplication

- To multiply two matrices  $A$  and  $B$ :
  - (1) The number of *columns* of  $A$  must be equal to the number of *rows* of  $B$ .
  - (2) *Row into Column Rule*: If  $A$  is an  $n \times m$  matrix and  $B$  is an  $m \times r$  matrix, their product is an  $n \times r$  matrix  $C$  with entries given by:

$$C_{ij} = A_{i1}B_{1j} + A_{i2}B_{2j} + \cdots + A_{im}B_{mj}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & \cdots & A_{1m} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{n1} & \cdots & A_{nm} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & \cdots & B_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ B_{m1} & \cdots & B_{mr} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & \cdots & C_{1r} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{n1} & \cdots & C_{nr} \end{pmatrix}$$

$n \times m \qquad \qquad \qquad m \times r \qquad \qquad \qquad n \times r$

For instance:  $C_{11} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} + \cdots + A_{1m}B_{m1}$

Ex:  $O = \begin{pmatrix} O_{11} & O_{12} \\ O_{21} & O_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad |B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad O|B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} O_{11} & O_{12} \\ O_{21} & O_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} O_{11}b_1 + O_{12}b_2 \\ O_{21}b_1 + O_{22}b_2 \end{pmatrix}$

$2 \times 2 \qquad \qquad \qquad 2 \times 1 \qquad \qquad \qquad 2 \times 1$

### 3. Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

- An *eigenvector* of an operator  $O$  is a vector  $|\lambda\rangle$  that does not change its orientation when  $O$  acts on it:  $O|\lambda\rangle = \lambda|\lambda\rangle$ , for some number  $\lambda$ .
- An *eigenvalue*  $\lambda$  of an operator  $O$  is the number that results when  $O$  acts on one of its eigenvectors.
- Convention: Eigenvectors  $|\lambda\rangle$  are labeled by their eigenvalues  $\lambda$ .

- Note:  $\lambda$  and  $|\lambda\rangle$  are different mathematical objects:  $\lambda$  is a *number* and  $|\lambda\rangle$  is a *vector*.
- Also note:  $|\lambda\rangle$  and  $\lambda|\lambda\rangle$  are two *different* vectors. They point in the same direction but have different lengths.

Example:

- Let  $O$  be a 4-dim operator with matrix representation in a particular basis given by:  $O = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -7 \end{pmatrix}$
- Then it has 4 eigenvectors given by:

$$|A\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |B\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |C\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |D\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Check:

$$O|A\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 5|A\rangle$$

- Similarly:  $O|B\rangle = 3/2|B\rangle$ ,  $O|C\rangle = 2|C\rangle$ ,  $O|D\rangle = -7|D\rangle$
- We say: " $|A\rangle$  is an eigenvector of  $O$  with eigenvalue 5,  $|B\rangle$  is another eigenvector of  $O$  with eigenvalue  $3/2$ , etc..."