# Quantum Computing

Lecture |05>: Mathematical Structures

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## Agenda

- Groups
- Vector spaces
- Scalar products
- Dirac's notation
- Hilbert spaces
- Adjoint operators and projectors
- Spectral theorem
- The rules of Quantum Mechanics

## Groups

The 'bedrock' of Quantum Mechanics are particular vector spaces (Hilbert spaces) that are built on top of groups.

#### Definition

A group is a non-empty set G with a "multiplication" operation that satisfies:

- associativity: a(bc) = (ab)c;
- 2 there exists a *unit* element  $1 \in G$  such that  $\forall a \in G$ , a1 = 1a = a;

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- 2 there exists a *unit* element  $1 \in G$  such that  $\forall a \in G$ , a1 = 1a = a;
- **3**  $\forall a \in G$  there exists an *inverse*  $a^{-1}$  such that  $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$ .

In an abelian group multiplication is commutative, i.e.,  $\forall a, b \in G$ , ab = ba.

Example: the set of reals  $\mathbb{R}$  with the usual multiplication is an abelian group.

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Example: the set of reals  $\mathbb R$  with the usual multiplication is an abelian group. Example: the set of complex invertible square matrices with the row by column product is a group, although not abelian.

## Complex Vector Spaces

#### Definition

A complex vector space is a set V with a vector "sum" denoted u+v and a scalar "multiplication" denoted  $\lambda v$  for  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  that make V an abelian group:

- **1** associativity: u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w;
- 2 *null* vector 0 (unit element for the group): 0 + v = v + 0;
- **3** every element v has an inverse element -v, i.e., v + (-v) = 0;
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Scalar multiplication satisfies:

- $(\alpha + \beta) \mathbf{v} = \alpha \mathbf{v} + \beta \mathbf{v};$
- 0 1v = v;
- **1** Ov = 0. (Notation abuse: 0 is a scalar on the LHS and a vector on the RHS.)

## Complex Vector Spaces

### Examples:

- the usual  $\mathbb{R}^3$  space of classical (Newtonian) physics;
- the space  $\mathbb{C}^n = \underbrace{\mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \times \ldots \times \mathbb{C}}_{n \text{ times}}$  of *n*-dimensional complex vectors with the "obvious" vector sum and scalar multiplication:
- the set of  $n \times n$  complex matrices with the usual matrix sum and scalar multiplication of linear maps.

## Linear Maps

#### Definition

A linear map between vector spaces V and W is a function  $L:V\to W$  that satisfies:

$$L(\alpha u + \beta v) = \alpha L(u) + \beta L(v)$$

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#### Definition

The <u>dual</u> of a complex vector space V (denoted  $V^*$ ) is the set of all linear maps  $L:V\to\mathbb{C}$ .

#### Definition

Given a vector space V, a set  $W \subset V$  is a <u>linear subspace</u> of V if sum and scalar multiplication are closed in W.

#### Definition

• Vectors  $v_1, \ldots, v_n \in V$  are <u>linearly dependent</u> if there are numbers  $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n$  (not all zero) such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i = 0$$

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- Given  $S \subset V$ , the <u>linear span</u> [S] of S is the set of all *finite* linear combinations of vectors of S.

## Proposition

Given a vector space V and a basis set  $S = \{e_1, \ldots, e_n\}$  such that [S] = V, then any  $v \in V$  can be written as:

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i e_i$$

where the coefficients  $\alpha_i$ 's are complex.

**Proof**: [Exercise. Hint: start by noticing that the vectors  $\{e_1, \ldots, e_n, v\}$  are linearly dependent.]

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### Proposition

The coefficients  $\alpha_i$ 's are unique (wrt to a basis set).

Proof: [Exercise]

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### **Proposition**

$$\langle \alpha \mathbf{u} + \beta \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \alpha^* \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \beta^* \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

Proof: [Exercise]

#### Definition

Given two vectors  $u=(u_1\ldots u_n)\in\mathbb{C}^n$  and  $v=(v_1\ldots v_n)\in\mathbb{C}^n$  we define the scalar product:

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Note:  $\langle u, v \rangle$  can be written as the product of an  $1 \times n$  matrix (row vector) and a  $n \times 1$  matrix (column vector)

$$\langle u, v \rangle = (u_1^* \dots u_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## The Dirac Notation

After Paul Dirac (1902-1984; Nobel Prize in Physics).

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 $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle u | v \rangle$  is the "braket" made by the "bra"  $\langle u |$  and the "ket"  $| v \rangle$ .

The ket  $|v\rangle$  is just a regular vector  $v \in V$ .

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The ket  $|v\rangle$  is just a regular vector  $v \in V$ .

The bra  $\langle u|$  is a map from V to  $\mathbb{C}!!$  (The bra is actually an element of  $V^*$ .)

$$\langle u|v\rangle = (u_1^* \dots u_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Thus  $\langle u| = (u_1^* \dots u_n^*)$  and  $|v\rangle = (v_1 \dots v_n)^T$ .

## Schwarz's Inequality

## Theorem (Schwarz's Inequality)

For any two vectors u, v of a complex vector space it holds that:

$$|\langle u|v\rangle| \leqslant \sqrt{\langle u|u\rangle\,\langle v|v\rangle}$$

where equality holds iff u, v are linearly dependent.

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### Definition

The <u>norm</u> of vector u is  $||u|| = \sqrt{\langle u|u\rangle}$ .

## Theorem (Triangular Inequality)

For any two vectors u, v of a complex vector space it holds that:

$$||u + v|| \le ||u|| + ||v||$$

## **Orthogonal Vectors**

### Definition

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### Definition

The vectors set  $\{u_1, \ldots, u_m\}$  is <u>orthonormal</u> if  $\langle u_i | u_i \rangle = \delta_{ii}$  for all  $i, j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ .

The Kronecker delta is defined as  $\delta_{ii} = 1$  if i = j and 0 otherwise.

Let  $\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}$  be an orthonormal basis for an n-dimensional vector space V. We know that for any  $u\in V$  we can write

$$u=\sum_{i=1}^n\alpha_ie_i.$$

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How to compute the  $\alpha_i$ 's?

$$\langle e_j | u \rangle = \langle e_j | \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i e_i \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \langle e_j | e_i \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \delta_{ji} = \alpha_j.$$

In Dirac notation:

$$|u\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|u\rangle \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle v|u\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \langle v|e_i\rangle \langle e_i|u\rangle$$

After David Hilbert (mathematician; 1862-1943).

### Definition

A vector sequence  $v_m \in V$  converges strongly to  $v \in V$  (denoted  $v_m \to v$ ) if  $\lim_{m \to \infty} \|v - v_m\| = 0$ 

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### **Proposition**

If  $(v_m \rightarrow v)$  then:

- ① If  $(v_m \to v)$  then  $\lim_{m \to \infty} \|v_m\| = \|v\|$  (this is weak convergence; the converse holds in finite-dimensional spaces.)
- $\langle u|v\rangle = \lim_{m\to\infty} \langle u|v_m\rangle$  (scalar products are continuous)

### Definition

A vector sequence  $v_i \in V$  is a Cauchy sequence if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $n_{\epsilon}$  such that  $\forall n, m > n_{\epsilon} \|v_n - v_m\| < \epsilon$ .

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#### Definition

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#### Definition

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### Proposition

Finite-dimensional vector spaces are always complete.

Quantum mechanics is developed over Hilbert spaces with *countable* bases. However, for quantum computing we need finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces only.

### Definition

Let  ${\mathcal H}$  be a Hilbert space.

- A linear operator A is a linear function  $A: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ ;
- Operator sum:  $\forall v \in \mathcal{H} \quad (A+B)v = Av + Bv$ ;
- Operator product:  $\forall v \in \mathcal{H} \quad (AB)v = A(Bv)$ .

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#### Definition

The adjoint of an operator A is the operator  $A^{\dagger}$  defined by:

$$\forall u, v \in \mathcal{H} \quad \langle u|A^{\dagger}v\rangle = \langle Au|v\rangle$$

#### **Definition**

An operator A is self-adjoint (or Hermitian) if  $A = A^{\dagger}$ .

If A is self-adjoint then  $\langle u|Av\rangle = \langle Au|v\rangle = \langle v|Au\rangle^*$ .

### Definition

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A unitary operator U is a linear operator that satisfies

- U is surjective; and
- ②  $\forall x, y \in \mathcal{H} \ \langle Ux|Uy \rangle = \langle x|y \rangle$  (or equivalently,  $\forall x \in \mathcal{H} \ \|Ux\| = \|x\|$ )

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Note: The linearity assumption in either definition is not needed: if U satisfies  $UU^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger}U = I$  then U must be linear [Exercise].

Eigenvectors and eigenvalues for operators are defined as usual.

#### Definition

An eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of an operator A is d-fold degenerate if there are d linearly independent eigenvectors  $u_1, \ldots, u_d$  associated to  $\lambda$ .

Note that for any  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}$  we have  $A(\sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i u_i) = \lambda(\sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i u_i)$ .

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#### Definition

The eigenvectors of a given eigenvalue form a linear subspace (the eigenspace).

## Linear Operators: Dirac Notation

$$\langle u|Av\rangle = \langle u|A|v\rangle = \begin{cases} (\langle u|A)|v\rangle \\ \langle u|(A|v\rangle) \end{cases}$$

We can think that A right-multiplies the bra  $\langle u|$  or left-multiplies the ket  $|v\rangle$ .

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If  $\lambda$  is a non-degenerate eigenvalue of A we write  $A|\lambda\rangle = \lambda |\lambda\rangle$ .

We have that  $\langle \lambda | A^{\dagger} = \lambda^* \langle \lambda |$ . [Exercise]

### Proposition

Any linear operator A on a scalar product vector space with an orthonormal basis  $e_i$ 's can be represented in matrix form by:

$$A_{ij} = \langle e_i | A e_j 
angle \qquad A_{ij}^\dagger = A_{ji}^*$$

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Note that  $\langle u|v\rangle\,w=\langle u|v\rangle\,|w\rangle=(|w\rangle\,\langle u|)\,|v\rangle.$ 

Now, considering an orthonormal basis  $e_i$  we have  $|v\rangle = \sum_i |e_i\rangle \langle e_i|v\rangle$ , and hence

$$I = \sum_{i} \ket{e_i} ra{e_i}$$
 (resolution of identity)

### Proposition

For operators A, B and complex  $\lambda$ , we have:

$$(AB)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}$$
  
 $(\lambda A)^{\dagger} = \lambda^*A^{\dagger}$   
 $(A^{\dagger})^{\dagger} = A$ 

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#### Definition

Two linear subspaces  $V, W \subset \mathcal{H}$  are <u>orthogonal</u> if every vector of V is orthogonal to every vector of W.

The orthogonal complement of V is  $V^{\perp} = \{u \in \mathcal{H} \text{ s.t. } \forall v \in V, \langle u | v \rangle = 0\}$ 

### Proposition

If  $\mathcal{H}$  is finite-dimensional, then  $(V^{\perp})^{\perp} = V$ .

Given a closed subspace  $W \subset \mathcal{H}$ , we would like to write any  $v \in \mathcal{H}$  as  $v_W + v_{W^{\perp}}$ , where  $v_W \in W$  and  $v_{W^{\perp}} \in W^{\perp}$ .

#### Definition

Let  $f_i$  be an orthonormal basis for W. Define:

$$v_W = \sum_i \langle f_i | v \rangle f_i \qquad v_{W^{\perp}} = v - v_W$$

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#### Definition

The map  $P_W: \mathcal{H} \to W$  defined as  $P_W v = v_W$  is the projection operator on W.

The projector on the orthogonal complement of W is  $P_{W^{\perp}} = I - P_{W}$ .

### Proposition

$$v \in W$$
 iff  $P_W v = v$   $v \in W^{\perp}$  iff  $P_W v = 0$ 

Thus  $P_W$  has only two eigenvalues: 0 and 1 (in general degenerate).

In addition, we have that  $P_W^2 = P_W$  and  $P_W^{\dagger} = P_W$ . (We could use these two conditions to define a projector.)

#### Definition

Two projectors P, Q are orthogonal if PQ = QP = 0 (the two subspaces are  $\perp$ ).

If  $P \perp Q$  then P + Q is also a projector. (Exercise)

Given a family  $P_i$  of projectors such that  $P_iP_i=\delta_{ij}$ , then

$$I = \sum_{i} P_{i}$$
 (resolution of identity)

#### **Theorem**

- The eigenvalues of a self-adjoint operator are <u>real numbers</u>.
- 2 The eigenvalues of a unitary operator are complex numbers of modulus 1.
- Eigenvectors (of self-adjoint and unitary operators) associated to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

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What's special about self-adjoint operators and unitary operators?

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What's special about self-adjoint operators and unitary operators?

#### Definition

An operator A is normal if it satisfies  $A^{\dagger}A = AA^{\dagger}$ .

Clearly, both self-adjoint and unitary operators are normal.

### Theorem (Spectral Theorem for finite-dimensional Hilbert Spaces)

The set of all eigenvectors  $u_{ij}$  of a normal operator is an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{H}$ , i.e., for any  $v \in \mathcal{H}$ :

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} \alpha_{ij} u_{ij}$$

where  $\alpha_{ij} = \langle u_{ij} | v \rangle$ .

Note that dim  $\mathcal{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} d_i$ .

# Spectral Theory: Dirac Notation

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} lpha_{ij} u_{ij}$$
 where  $lpha_{ij} = \langle u_{ij} | v 
angle$ 

In Dirac notation:

$$|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} \langle \lambda_{ij} | v \rangle |\lambda_{ij} \rangle$$

# Spectral Theory: Dirac Notation

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} lpha_{ij} u_{ij}$$
 where  $lpha_{ij} = \langle u_{ij} | v 
angle$ 

In Dirac notation:

$$|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{d_i} \langle \lambda_{ij} | v \rangle |\lambda_{ij} \rangle$$

Exercise: prove that  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i P_i$ , where  $P_i$  is the projector of the eigenspace of  $\lambda_i$ .

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Rule 4: A closed system evolves through time according to the Schrödinger equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{dv(t)}{dt} = Hv(t)$$

where H is the system Hamiltonian (a self-adjoint operator describing the total energy of the system).

Rule 3 is equivalent to:

**Rule 3'**: Given an observable *A* and a state  $v \in \mathcal{H}$ :

- $\bullet$  The only possible results of measuring A are one of its eigenvalues
- ② The probability of measuring eigenvalue  $\lambda$  in state v is:

$$\mathsf{Prob}(A = \lambda; v) = \langle v | P_{\lambda} v \rangle$$

### Tensor Products

#### Definition

The tensor product of two *n*-dimensional vectors u, v is the  $n^2$ -dimensional vector  $w = u \otimes v$  defined by:

$$w_i = u_{i \text{ div } n} v_{i \text{ mod } n}$$

#### Definition

The scalar product of tensor vectors is defined by:

$$\langle u \otimes v | w \otimes z \rangle = \langle u | w \rangle \langle v | z \rangle$$

#### Definition

The tensor product of operators (or matrices) A, B is defined by:

$$(A \otimes B)u \otimes v = Au \otimes Bv$$

### **Tensor Products**

### Proposition

For suitably sized matrices (or operators) L, M, N, and P, we have that:

$$(M \cdot N) \otimes (L \cdot P) = (M \otimes L) \cdot (N \otimes P)$$