The background is a dark blue gradient. It features several abstract, glowing elements: on the left, a trail of white dots curves upwards towards a bright orange and yellow light source; on the right, a similar trail of dots curves downwards towards another bright orange and yellow light source. Diagonal streaks of light in shades of blue and teal cross the frame, creating a sense of motion and depth.

# **An Introduction to Linear Algebra & Quantum Mechanics**

Welcome!

What do you think a vector is?



# Background

A set is can be thought of as a collection of objects.

## 1.8 Definition *list, length*

Suppose  $n$  is a nonnegative integer. A *list* of *length*  $n$  is an ordered collection of  $n$  elements (which might be numbers, other lists, or more abstract entities) separated by commas and surrounded by parentheses. A list of length  $n$  looks like this:

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n).$$

Two lists are equal if and only if they have the same length and the same elements in the same order.

$\mathbf{F}$  denotes either the set of complex numbers ( $\mathbf{C}$ ) or real numbers ( $\mathbf{R}$ )

$\mathbf{F}$  is filled with scalars (fancy word for ‘numbers’)

## 1.10 Definition $\mathbf{F}^n$

$\mathbf{F}^n$  is the set of all lists of length  $n$  of elements of  $\mathbf{F}$ :

$$\mathbf{F}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) : x_j \in \mathbf{F} \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, n\}.$$

For  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{F}^n$  and  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , we say that  $x_j$  is the  $j^{\text{th}}$  *coordinate* of  $(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .

# Background

## 1.12 Definition *addition in $\mathbf{F}^n$*

*Addition* in  $\mathbf{F}^n$  is defined by adding corresponding coordinates:

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n).$$

## 1.13 Commutativity of addition in $\mathbf{F}^n$

If  $x, y \in \mathbf{F}^n$ , then  $x + y = y + x$ .

In math we like to use definitions to prove things...

Definitions  $\rightarrow$  Statements  $\rightarrow$  Proofs

A statement can be either true or false, we use proofs to determine the validity of a statement

# Background

## 1.13 Commutativity of addition in $\mathbf{F}^n$

If  $x, y \in \mathbf{F}^n$ , then  $x + y = y + x$ .

**Proof** Suppose  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}x + y &= (x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) \\&= (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n) \\&= (y_1 + x_1, \dots, y_n + x_n) \\&= (y_1, \dots, y_n) + (x_1, \dots, x_n) \\&= y + x,\end{aligned}$$



# Background

## 1.14 Definition $\mathbf{0}$

Let  $\mathbf{0}$  denote the list of length  $n$  whose coordinates are all 0:

$$\mathbf{0} = (0, \dots, 0).$$

## 1.16 Definition *additive inverse in $\mathbf{F}^n$*

For  $x \in \mathbf{F}^n$ , the *additive inverse* of  $x$ , denoted  $-x$ , is the vector  $-x \in \mathbf{F}^n$  such that

$$x + (-x) = \mathbf{0}.$$

In other words, if  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ , then  $-x = (-x_1, \dots, -x_n)$ .

## 1.17 Definition *scalar multiplication in $\mathbf{F}^n$*

The *product* of a number  $\lambda$  and a vector in  $\mathbf{F}^n$  is computed by multiplying each coordinate of the vector by  $\lambda$ :

$$\lambda(x_1, \dots, x_n) = (\lambda x_1, \dots, \lambda x_n);$$

here  $\lambda \in \mathbf{F}$  and  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{F}^n$ .

# Vectors and Vector Spaces

## 1.19 Definition *vector space*

A **vector space** is a set  $V$  along with an addition on  $V$  and a scalar multiplication on  $V$  such that the following properties hold:

### commutativity

$$u + v = v + u \text{ for all } u, v \in V;$$

### associativity

$$(u + v) + w = u + (v + w) \text{ and } (ab)v = a(bv) \text{ for all } u, v, w \in V \text{ and all } a, b \in \mathbf{F};$$

### additive identity

$$\text{there exists an element } 0 \in V \text{ such that } v + 0 = v \text{ for all } v \in V;$$

### additive inverse

$$\text{for every } v \in V, \text{ there exists } w \in V \text{ such that } v + w = 0;$$

### multiplicative identity

$$1v = v \text{ for all } v \in V;$$

### distributive properties

$$a(u + v) = au + av \text{ and } (a + b)v = av + bv \text{ for all } a, b \in \mathbf{F} \text{ and all } u, v \in V.$$

## 1.18 Definition *addition, scalar multiplication*

- An **addition** on a set  $V$  is a function that assigns an element  $u + v \in V$  to each pair of elements  $u, v \in V$ .
- A **scalar multiplication** on a set  $V$  is a function that assigns an element  $\lambda v \in V$  to each  $\lambda \in \mathbf{F}$  and each  $v \in V$ .

This property is commonly known as being 'closed' under addition and scalar multiplication.

# Subspaces

## 1.32 Definition *subspace*

A subset  $U$  of  $V$  is called a *subspace* of  $V$  if  $U$  is also a vector space (using the same addition and scalar multiplication as on  $V$ ).

I told you what a set was... what do you think a subset is?



# Quantum Mechanics

In quantum mechanics the state of a particle is represented as a vector which lives in a complex Hilbert space (infinite-dimensional vector space)

## Vectors in Dirac Notation

In quantum we commonly use Dirac Notation, where vectors such as  $v$  and  $u$  above are represented as kets  $v \rightarrow |\psi\rangle$ .

A special property of Hilbert spaces is that they are  $L^2$  spaces

### $L^2$ Spaces

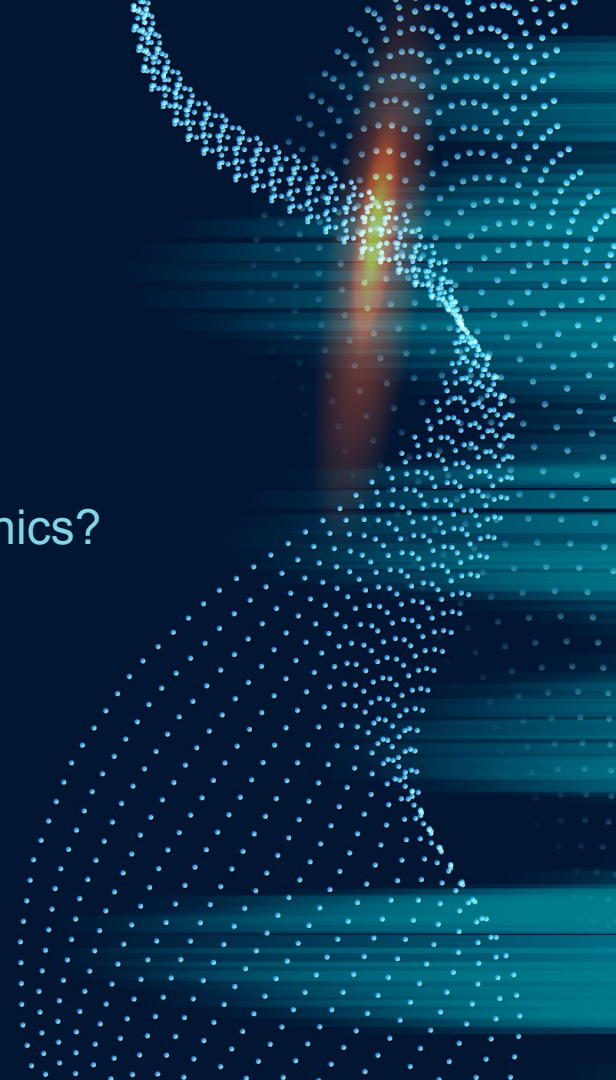
$L^2$  defines the set of all square integrable functions on a specific interval  $[a, b]$ .

$$L^2(a, b) := \left\{ f(x) : \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty \right\}$$

For physicists Hilbert spaces are  $L^2$  spaces, by definition. But mathematicians can refer to them as separate things.

# Quantum Mechanics

Why are there complex numbers in quantum mechanics?



# Schrodinger's Eqn

H represents the Hamiltonian which represents the total energy of the system

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\Psi\rangle = \hat{H} |\Psi\rangle$$

There is a real-valued counterpart:

$$\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = -H^2 \psi$$

The complex version is much simpler to calculate

- In general there isn't a conclusive answer



# Linear Combinations

## 2.3 Definition *linear combination*

A **linear combination** of a list  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  of vectors in  $V$  is a vector of the form

$$a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m,$$

where  $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbf{F}$ .

## 2.17 Definition *linearly independent*

- A list  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  of vectors in  $V$  is called **linearly independent** if the only choice of  $a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbf{F}$  that makes  $a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m$  equal 0 is  $a_1 = \dots = a_m = 0$ .
- The empty list  $()$  is also declared to be linearly independent.

## 2.5 Definition *span*

The set of all linear combinations of a list of vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  in  $V$  is called the **span** of  $v_1, \dots, v_m$ , denoted  $\text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_m)$ . In other words,

$$\text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_m) = \{a_1v_1 + \dots + a_mv_m : a_1, \dots, a_m \in \mathbf{F}\}.$$

The span of the empty list  $()$  is defined to be  $\{0\}$ .

# Bases and Dimensionality

## 2.27 Definition *basis*

A *basis* of  $V$  is a list of vectors in  $V$  that is linearly independent and spans  $V$ .

Before thinking about dimensionality let's consider an important question.

Do you think that all basis of a specific vector space have the same length?



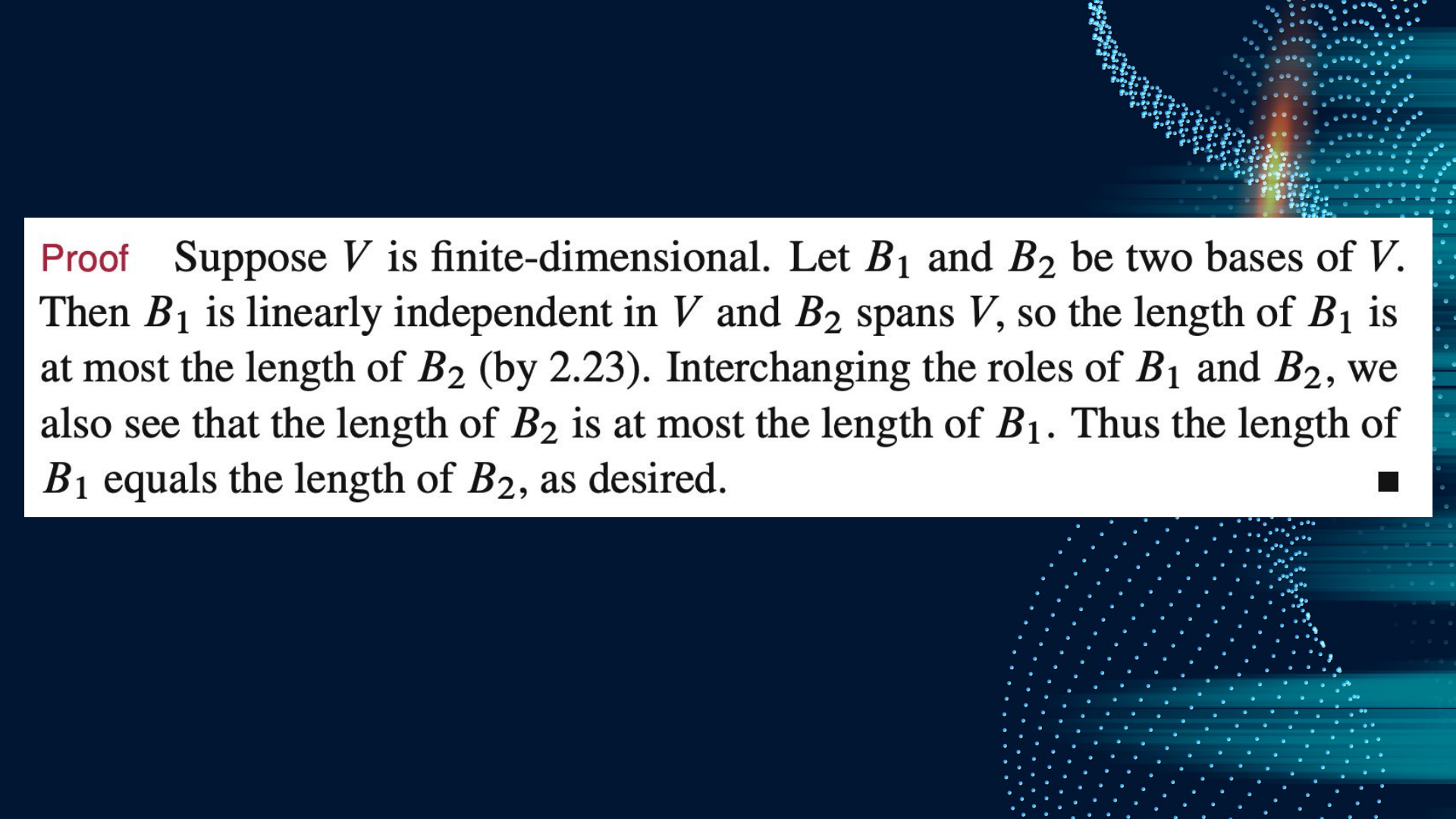
# Bases and Dimensionality

## 2.35 Basis length does not depend on basis

Any two bases of a finite-dimensional vector space have the same length.

## 2.23 Length of linearly independent list $\leq$ length of spanning list

In a finite-dimensional vector space, the length of every linearly independent list of vectors is less than or equal to the length of every spanning list of vectors.



**Proof** Suppose  $V$  is finite-dimensional. Let  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  be two bases of  $V$ . Then  $B_1$  is linearly independent in  $V$  and  $B_2$  spans  $V$ , so the length of  $B_1$  is at most the length of  $B_2$  (by 2.23). Interchanging the roles of  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , we also see that the length of  $B_2$  is at most the length of  $B_1$ . Thus the length of  $B_1$  equals the length of  $B_2$ , as desired. ■

# Bases and Dimensionality

## 2.36 Definition *dimension*, $\dim V$

- The *dimension* of a finite-dimensional vector space is the length of any basis of the vector space.
- The dimension of  $V$  (if  $V$  is finite-dimensional) is denoted by  $\dim V$ .

### Basis in Dirac Notation

In a  $n$ -dimensional Hilbert space, we can write any ket  $|\psi\rangle$  in terms of  $|n\rangle$  other kets (the basis vectors) multiplied by specific scalars.

$$|\psi\rangle = a_1|1\rangle + a_2|2\rangle + a_3|3\rangle + \cdots + a_n|n\rangle$$

ASIDE: We can also add different kets. Assuming  $|\psi_1\rangle = a_1|1\rangle + \cdots + a_n|n\rangle$  and  $|\psi_2\rangle = b_1|1\rangle + \cdots + b_n|n\rangle$  then:

$$|\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle = (a_1 + b_1)|1\rangle + \cdots + (a_n + b_n)|n\rangle$$

# Linear Maps & Matrices

## 3.2 Definition *linear map*

A *linear map* from  $V$  to  $W$  is a function  $T: V \rightarrow W$  with the following properties:

### **additivity**

$$T(u + v) = Tu + Tv \text{ for all } u, v \in V;$$

### **homogeneity**

$$T(\lambda v) = \lambda(Tv) \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbf{F} \text{ and all } v \in V.$$

# Linear Maps & Matrices

Vectors and states can also be represented as matrices...

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_n \end{bmatrix}$$

What do you think a matrix is?



# Linear Maps and Matrices

## 3.32 Definition *matrix of a linear map*, $\mathcal{M}(T)$

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$  and  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is a basis of  $V$  and  $w_1, \dots, w_m$  is a basis of  $W$ . The **matrix of**  $T$  with respect to these bases is the  $m$ -by- $n$  matrix  $\mathcal{M}(T)$  whose entries  $A_{j,k}$  are defined by

$$Tv_k = A_{1,k}w_1 + \cdots + A_{m,k}w_m.$$

If the bases are not clear from the context, then the notation  $\mathcal{M}(T, (v_1, \dots, v_n), (w_1, \dots, w_m))$  is used.

## 3.62 Definition *matrix of a vector*, $\mathcal{M}(v)$

Suppose  $v \in V$  and  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is a basis of  $V$ . The **matrix of**  $v$  with respect to this basis is the  $n$ -by-1 matrix

$$\mathcal{M}(v) = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  are the scalars such that

$$v = c_1v_1 + \cdots + c_nv_n.$$

# Inner Product Spaces

Hilbert spaces are inner product spaces.

## 6.3 Definition *inner product*

An *inner product* on  $V$  is a function that takes each ordered pair  $(u, v)$  of elements of  $V$  to a number  $\langle u, v \rangle \in \mathbf{F}$  and has the following properties:

### positivity

$$\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0 \text{ for all } v \in V;$$

### definiteness

$$\langle v, v \rangle = 0 \text{ if and only if } v = 0;$$

### additivity in first slot

$$\langle u + v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle \text{ for all } u, v, w \in V;$$

### homogeneity in first slot

$$\langle \lambda u, v \rangle = \lambda \langle u, v \rangle \text{ for all } \lambda \in \mathbf{F} \text{ and all } u, v \in V;$$

### conjugate symmetry

$$\langle u, v \rangle = \overline{\langle v, u \rangle} \text{ for all } u, v \in V.$$

## 6.5 Definition *inner product space*

An *inner product space* is a vector space  $V$  along with an inner product on  $V$ .

# Inner Product Spaces

We can define inner products in any way we wish as long as the conditions previously are satisfied.

- The Euclidean Inner Product (Dot Product).

$$\langle (v_1, \dots, v_n), (u_1, \dots, u_n) \rangle = v_1 \bar{u}_1 + \dots + v_n \bar{u}_n$$

- Continuous Real Valued Functions.

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$$

- On  $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$  (the set of all polynomials with real coefficients).

$$\langle p, q \rangle = \int_0^\infty p(x)q(x)e^{-x}dx$$

# Observables

In QM the things that you can measure (position, momentum, velocity, etc) are denoted as observables.

Observables are represented as Hermitian operators!

## Definition: Operator

A linear map from a vector space to itself is called an **operator**.

## Definition: Adjoint

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V, W)$ . The **adjoint** of  $T$  is a function  $T^\dagger : W \rightarrow V$  such that:

$$\langle Tv, w \rangle = \langle v, T^\dagger w \rangle$$

for every  $v \in V$  and  $w \in W$ .

## Definition: Hermitian

An operator is called **hermitian** if  $T = T^\dagger$ .

# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

## Defintion: Eigenvalues/Eigenvectors

Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . A scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$  is called an **eigenvalue** of  $T$  if there exists a  $v \in V$  such that  $v \neq 0$  and  $Tv = \lambda v$ . And  $v$  is the corresponding **eigenvector**.

One of the postulates of QM....

If you measure an observable  $\hat{Q}$  on a particle in some state  $|\Psi\rangle$  you will get one of the eigenvalues of  $\hat{Q}$ .



# Observables as Hermitian Operators

A complicated question that is worth asking...

Why are observables represented as Hermitian operators?



# Observables as Hermitian Operators

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hilbert space and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  be an Hermitian operator. Then all the eigenvalues of  $T$  are real.

When you measure something you want to get a real number!

# Observables as Hermitian

## Eigenvalues of Hermitian Operators are Real

Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hilbert space and  $T \in \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{H})$  be an Hermitian operator. Then all the eigenvalues of  $T$  are real.

*Proof.* Let  $\lambda$  be an eigenvalue of  $T$  corresponding with eigenvector  $v \in \mathcal{H}$ . Then  $Tv = \lambda v$ . Consider the following:

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda \langle v, v \rangle &= \langle \lambda v, v \rangle \\ &= \langle Tv, v \rangle \\ &= \langle v, Tv \rangle \\ &= \overline{\langle Tv, v \rangle} \\ &= \overline{\langle \lambda v, v \rangle} \\ &= \bar{\lambda} \langle v, v \rangle\end{aligned}$$

The only way  $\lambda = \bar{\lambda}$  is if  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .



# Observables

The term 'complete' means that any wavefunction can be represented in terms of this basis.

## Definition: Orthogonal

Two vectors  $u, v \in V$  are called **orthogonal** if  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$ .

## Definition: Norm

For  $v \in V$  the **norm** of  $v$ , denoted as  $\|v\|$ , is defined by:

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$$

## Definition: Orthonormal

A list of vectors is called **orthonormal** if each vector in the list has norm 1 and is orthogonal to all other vectors in the list.

## Definition: Orthonormal Basis

An **orthonormal basis** of  $V$  is an orthonormal list of vectors in  $V$  that is also a basis of  $V$ .

# Probabilities

In quantum things exist in spectrum of probability...

The probability of measuring a specific value for an observable is given by the Born Rule.

## Born Rule

If a system is in a state  $|\Psi\rangle$  (assuming pure state) then the probability  $\mathbb{P}$  that an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  of  $q_i$  is found when  $\hat{Q}$  is measured is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\lambda_i) = |(q_i, \Psi)|^2$$



# Born Rule

## Born Rule

If a system is in a state  $|\Psi\rangle$  (assuming pure state) then the probability  $\mathbb{P}$  that an eigenvalue  $\lambda_i$  of  $q_i$  is found when  $\hat{Q}$  is measured is:

$$\mathbb{P}(\lambda_i) = |(q_i, \Psi)|^2$$

Let's proceed to break this down. Consider again our previous representation of  $|\Psi\rangle$  in the  $\hat{Q}$  basis:

$$|\Psi\rangle = c_1|q_1\rangle + \cdots + c_n|q_n\rangle$$

Assume that this state is properly normalized such that  $\sum_i |c_i|^2 = 1$ . Then the Born rule is basically saying that:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}(\lambda_i) &= |(q_i, \Psi)|^2 \\ &= \left| \left\langle q_i \left| c_1|q_1\rangle + \cdots + c_n|q_n\rangle \right. \right\rangle \right|^2 \\ &= |c_1\langle q_i|q_1\rangle + \cdots + c_i\langle q_i|q_i\rangle + \cdots + c_n\langle q_i|q_n\rangle|^2 \\ &= |c_i\langle q_i|q_i\rangle|^2 \quad \text{all } \langle q_i|q_j\rangle = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j \text{ by orthogonality} \\ &= |c_i|^2 \quad \text{by orthonormality } \langle q_1|q_i\rangle = 1\end{aligned}$$

# Measurement Collapse

A common somewhat unexplained phenomena in QM is the measurement collapse of every quantum system.

$$|\Psi_{\text{before}}\rangle = c_1|q_1\rangle + \cdots + c_n|q_n\rangle \implies |\Psi_{\text{after}}\rangle = |q_j\rangle$$

So if you were to measure Q again you'd obtain the eigenvalue of  $q_j$  with 100% certainty.

