

CHAPTER 1

Mathematical Review

1.1 Linear Algebra

1.1.1 Three-Dimensional Vector Algebra

Exercise 1.1

a) Show that $O_{ij} = \hat{e}_i \cdot \mathcal{O} \hat{e}_j$. b) If $\vartheta \vec{a} = \vec{b}$ show that $b_i = \sum_j O_{ij} a_j$.

Solution 1.1

1. From Eq.(1.13), we know

$$\mathcal{O} \hat{e}_j = \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{e}_k O_{kj},$$

then

$$\hat{e}_i \cdot \mathcal{O} \hat{e}_j = \hat{e}_i \cdot \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{e}_k O_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^3 \hat{e}_i \cdot \hat{e}_k O_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^3 \delta_{ik} O_{kj} = O_{ij}. \quad (1.1)$$

2. Similarly,

$$\vec{b} = \sum_{i=1}^3 b_i \hat{e}_i = \mathcal{O} \vec{a} = \mathcal{O} \sum_{j=1}^3 a_j \hat{e}_j = \sum_{j=1}^3 a_j \mathcal{O} \hat{e}_j = \sum_{j=1}^3 a_j \sum_{i=1}^3 \hat{e}_i O_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=1}^3 O_{ij} a_j \right) \hat{e}_i.$$

From the uniqueness of linear expression by a basis, we arrive at

$$b_i = \sum_{j=1}^3 O_{ij} a_j. \quad (1.2)$$

These two conclusions have been proved.

Exercise 1.2

Calculate $[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}]$ and $\{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}\}$ when

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Solution 1.2

$$[\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}] \equiv \mathbf{AB} - \mathbf{BA} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -2 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \\ -4 & -3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}\} \equiv \mathbf{AB} + \mathbf{BA} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \\ -2 & 3 & -2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.3)$$

1.1.2 Matrices

Exercise 1.3

If \mathbf{A} is an $N \times M$ matrix and \mathbf{B} is a $M \times K$ matrix show that $(\mathbf{AB})^\dagger = \mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger$.

Solution 1.3

It is obvious that

$$(\mathbf{AB})^\dagger = \mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger \Leftrightarrow [(\mathbf{AB})^\dagger](i; j) = (\mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger)(i; j). \quad (1.4)$$

Thus, we find

$$\begin{aligned} [(\mathbf{AB})^\dagger](i; j) &= [(\mathbf{AB})](j; i)^* = \left(\sum_{k=1}^M \mathbf{A}(j; k) \mathbf{B}(k; i) \right)^*, \\ (\mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger)(i; j) &= \sum_{k=1}^M (\mathbf{B}^\dagger)(i; k) (\mathbf{A}^\dagger)(k; j) = \sum_{k=1}^M (\mathbf{B}(k; i))^* (\mathbf{A}(j; k))^* = \left(\sum_{k=1}^M \mathbf{A}(j; k) \mathbf{B}(k; i) \right)^*, \end{aligned}$$

which means that $(\mathbf{AB})^\dagger = \mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger$ is correct.

Exercise 1.4

Show that

- $\text{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BA})$.
- $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.
- If \mathbf{U} is unitary and $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U}$, then $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{U}^\dagger$.
- If the product $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ of two Hermitian matrices is also Hermitian, then \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} commute.
- If \mathbf{A} is Hermitian then \mathbf{A}^{-1} , if exists, is also Hermitian.
- If $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}$, then $\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{(A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21})} \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}$.

Solution 1.4

- At this time, we assume that \mathbf{A} is an $N \times M$ matrix while \mathbf{B} is a $M \times N$ matrix. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) &= \sum_{i=1}^N [(\mathbf{AB})](i; i) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^M \mathbf{A}(i; k) \mathbf{B}(k; i) = \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{B}(k; i) \mathbf{A}(i; k) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^M \left[\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{B}(k; i) \mathbf{A}(i; k) \right] = \sum_{k=1}^M (\mathbf{BA})(k; k) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BA}). \end{aligned} \quad (1.5)$$

- From this issue, we assume that both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are $N \times N$ matrices. We find

$$\mathbf{AB}(\mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}) = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{BB}^{-1})\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{AA}^{-1} = \mathbf{1}. \quad (1.6)$$

Thus, with the uniqueness of matrix inversion, we conclude that $(\mathbf{AB})^{-1} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

- Due to $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U}$, we can find

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{1} = (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^\dagger) \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^\dagger) = \mathbf{U} (\mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{A} \mathbf{U}) \mathbf{U}^\dagger = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{U}^\dagger. \quad (1.7)$$

- Because $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}$ of two Hermitian matrices is also Hermitian, we know

$$\mathbf{C}^\dagger = (\mathbf{AB})^\dagger = \mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{AB}.$$

With

$$\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}^\dagger = \mathbf{B},$$

we find

$$\mathbf{B}^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}. \quad (1.8)$$

In other words, \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} commute.

e. It is obvious that

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\dagger \mathbf{A}^\dagger = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\dagger = \mathbf{1}^\dagger = \mathbf{1}.$$

We know $(\mathbf{A}^\dagger)^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\dagger$. Then, with $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^\dagger$

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^\dagger = (\mathbf{A}^\dagger)^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}. \quad (1.9)$$

We proved that \mathbf{A}^{-1} is also Hermite if it exists.

f. If $A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21} \neq 0$, we can find

$$\mathbf{A} \times \frac{1}{A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21}} \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It means that if $A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21} \neq 0$,

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{(A_{11}A_{22} - A_{12}A_{21})} \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1.10)$$

1.1.3 Determinants

Exercise 1.5

Verify the above properties for 2×2 determinants.

Solution 1.5

1-5 so

Exercise 1.6

Using properties (1)-(5) prove that in general

1. If any two rows (or columns) of a determinant are equal, the value of the determinant is zero.
2. $|\mathbf{A}^{-1}| = (|\mathbf{A}|)^{-1}$.
3. If $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{1}$, then $|\mathbf{A}|(|\mathbf{A}|)^* = 1$.
4. If $\mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{O} \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{\Omega}$ and $\mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^\dagger = \mathbf{1}$, then $|\mathbf{O}| = |\mathbf{\Omega}|$.

Solution 1.6

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Exercise 1.7

Using Eq.(1.39), note that the inverse of a 2×2 matrix \mathbf{A} obtained in Exercise 1.4f can be written as

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{A}|} \begin{pmatrix} A_{22} & -A_{12} \\ -A_{21} & A_{11} \end{pmatrix}$$

and thus \mathbf{A}^{-1} does not exist when $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$. This result holds in general for $N \times N$ matrices. Show that the equation

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$$

where \mathbf{A} is an $N \times N$ matrix and \mathbf{c} is a column with elements c_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ can have a nontrivial solution ($\mathbf{c} \neq \mathbf{0}$) only when $|\mathbf{A}| = 0$.

Solution 1.7

1-7 so