#### Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization process

Let  $\{|x_1\rangle, \ldots, |x_m\rangle\}$  be linearly independent.

We can use the following Gram-Schmidt process to construct an ortheorem set  $\{|e_i\rangle_{i=1}^{i}|e_i\rangle$  such that

thonormal set  $\{|e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_m\rangle\}$  such that  $\operatorname{span}\{|x_1\rangle, \dots, |x_\ell\rangle\} = \operatorname{span}\{|e_1\rangle, \dots, |e_\ell\rangle\},$ 

for all  $\ell = 1, \ldots, m$ .

Set  $|e_1\rangle = |x_1\rangle/||x_1\rangle||$ .

For k > 1, set  $|f_k\rangle / ||f_k\rangle||$ , where

$$|f_k\rangle = |x_k\rangle - a_1|e_1\rangle - \dots - a_{k-1}|e_{k-1}\rangle$$

with  $a_j = \langle e_j | x_k \rangle$ .

### We can further extend the set to an o.n. basis

Let  $\{|y_1\rangle, \ldots, |y_n\rangle\} \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$  be a basis.

Find linearly independent columns of the matrix

 $[|e_1\rangle\cdots|e_m\rangle|y_1\rangle\cdots|y_n\rangle]$ 

including the first m columns.

Then apply Gram-Schmidt process.

**Example** Apply Gram-Schmidt to  $\{|x_1\rangle, |x_2\rangle\}$  with

$$|x_1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\i \end{pmatrix}, |x_2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\1\\0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then extend the resulting set to an orthnormal basis.



# **Basics of Matrices**

- Mixed quantum states are represented by density matrices i.e., positive semi-definite matrices with trace 1.
- Observable / measurement operators correspond to Hermitian matrices.

• Quantum operations corresponds to unitary matrices.

• So, we need basic knowledge of matrices (relevant to quantum mechanics).

Let  $\mathbf{M}_{m,n}$  be the set (vector space/algebra) of  $m \times n$  complex matrices. If m = n, we let  $\mathbf{M}_n = \mathbf{M}_{m,n}$ .

- The set  $\mathbf{M}_{m,n}$  is a vector space under addition and scalar multiplication.
- We can multiply  $A = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbf{M}_{m,n}$  and  $B = (b_{rs}) \in \mathbf{M}_{n,k}$  such that  $C = AB = (c_{pq}) \in \mathbf{M}_{m,k}$  with

$$c_{pq} = (a_{p1}, \dots, a_{pn}) \begin{pmatrix} b_{1q} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nq} \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{n} a_{p\ell} b_{\ell q}.$$

• If A has rows  $\langle A_1 |, \ldots, \langle A_m |$  and B has columns  $|B_1 \rangle, \cdots, |B_p \rangle$ , then

If A has rows 
$$\langle A_1 |, \dots, \langle A_m |$$
 and B has columns  $|B_1 \rangle, \dots, |B_p \rangle$ ,  
then  

$$AB = [A|B_1 \rangle \cdots A|B_p \rangle] = \begin{pmatrix} \langle A_1 | B \\ \vdots \\ \langle A_m | B \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A|B\rangle$$

$$A|B\rangle$$

$$A|B\rangle$$

$$A|B\rangle$$

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$$A|B\rangle$$

 $M_{2,3}$   $a_{1}a_{2}a_{2}a_{3}$   $a_{21}a_{22}a_{3}$ 

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#### Block matrix multiplication.

- If  $A = (A_{ij}), B = (B_{rs})$  such that  $A_{p\ell}B_{\ell q}$  is defined. That is, the number of columns of  $A_{p\ell}$  equals the number of rows of  $B_{\ell q}$ .
- If  $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ , A has columns  $|x_1\rangle, \dots, |x_n\rangle$ , and B has rows  $\langle y_1|, \dots, \langle y_n|$ , then

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$$AD = [d_1|x_1\rangle \cdots d_n|x_n\rangle], \quad DB = \begin{pmatrix} d_1\langle y_1| \\ \vdots \\ d_n\langle y_n| \end{pmatrix},$$
$$AB = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j\rangle\langle y_j|, \quad ADB = \sum_{j=1}^n d_j|x_j\rangle\langle y_j|.$$

• If  $A \in \mathbf{M}_{m,n}, B \in \mathbf{M}_{n,k}, D = D_1 \oplus \mathbf{0}_{n-\ell}$ , then

$$ADB = A \begin{pmatrix} D_1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} B = A_1 D_1 B_1,$$

where  $A_1$  is formed by the first  $\ell$  columns of A and  $B_1$  is formed by the first  $\ell$  rows of B.

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**Eigenvalues and eigenvectors** 

• Let  $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$ . We would like to find nonzero  $|x\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^n$  such that  $A|x\rangle = \lambda |x\rangle.$ 

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 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = S \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} S =$ 

Then  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue associated with the eigenvector  $|x\rangle$ .

If one can find n linearly independent set  $\{|x_1\rangle, \ldots, |x_n\rangle\}$  of eigenvectors, then we can let  $S = [|x_1\rangle \cdots |x_n\rangle]$  such that basi

with 
$$D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$
. So,  $S^{-1}AS = D$ .

- To compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$ , one solves the characteristic equation  $\det(tI - A) = 0$ , which is a polynomial equation.
- For every t satisfying det(tI A) = 0, we solve for nonzero vectors  $|x\rangle$  such that  $A|x\rangle = t|x\rangle$
- Important facts:  $\operatorname{tr} A = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j$ ,  $\operatorname{det}(A) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_n$ . • Not every matrix in  $\mathbf{M}_n$  has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Special classes of matrices

- $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$  is Hermitian if  $A = A^{\dagger}$ . The (i, j) entry of A is the conjugate of the (j, i) entry of A.
- $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$  is unitary if  $A^{\dagger} = A^{-1}$  be,  $(AA^{\dagger} = I_n \text{ or } / \text{and } A^{\dagger}A \neq I_n$ . The columns of U form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

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•  $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$  is positive semidefinite if  $\langle x|A|x \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $|x \rangle \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . Equivalently, A is Hermitian with nonnegative eigenvalues.

 $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$  is normal if  $AA^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A$ .

 $\langle x | A | x \rangle \geq 0$  $\chi^* A \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -34 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ -24 \end{bmatrix}$ 

#### Spectral decomposition of a normal matrix

**Theorem** A matrix  $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$  is normal if and only if there is a unitary  $U = [|u_1\rangle \cdots |u_n\rangle]$  and unitary  $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n)$  such that

$$A = UDU^{\dagger} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j |u_j\rangle \langle u_j|.$$

That is A has an orthonormal set of eigenvectors  $\{|u_1\rangle, \dots, |u_n\rangle\}$  for the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  so that  $A[|u_1\rangle \cdots |u_n\rangle] = [|u_1\rangle \cdots |u_n\rangle]D.$ 

So, 
$$U^{\dagger}AU = D$$
.

Corollary Let  $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$ .

- Then A is Hermitian if and only if A is normal with real eigenvalues.
  - Then A is unitary if and only if A is normal with eigenvalues on of modulus 1.
  - Then A is positive semidefinite if and only if A is normal (Hermitian) with nonnegative eigenvalues.



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# Spectral theorem of normal matrices

Spectral theorem of normal matrices
<b>Theorem</b> Suppose $A \in \mathbf{M}_n$ is normal in the form $A = (1h)$ . $[H, J, H]$
$A = UDU^{\dagger} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j  u_j\rangle \langle u_j .$
• If k is a positive integer, then $A^k = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j^k \left[ a_{j} / \langle a_j \rangle \right]$
• If A is invertible and k is a positive integer, then $A^{-k} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_j^{-k}  u_j\rangle \langle u_j .$
• If A has positive eigenvalues, then $A^r = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j^r  u_j\rangle \langle u_j $ .
• If f is an analytic function, then $f(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(\lambda_j)  u_j\rangle \langle u_j $ .
For example: $e^A = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} A^n = \sum_{j=1}^n e^{\lambda_j} \mu_j \langle u_j  .$
If $H = H^{\dagger} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} h_j  u_j\rangle \langle u_j $ with real eigenvalues $h_1, \ldots, h_n$ , then
$e^{iH} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} e^{ih_j}  u_j\rangle \langle u_j $

is unitary.

Pauli matrices:

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

**Remark** If  $A \in \mathbf{M}_2$  is Hermitian, then

$$A = (c_0, c_x, c_y, c_y) \cdot (\sigma_0, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z) = c_0 I_2 + c_x \sigma_x + c_y \sigma_z + c_z \sigma_z$$

with  $c_0, c_x, c_y, c_z \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Example** In quantum computing, we often use  $e^{iaA}$ , where for a real unit vector  $\mathbf{n} = (n_x, n_y, n_z)$  and  $\sigma = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$ 

$$A = \mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} = (n_x, n_y, n_z) \cdot (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z) = \begin{pmatrix} n_z & n_x - in_y \\ n_x + in_y & -n_z \end{pmatrix},$$

which has eigenvalues 1, -1 and with eigenprojections

$$P_1 = \frac{1}{2}(I+A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1+n_z & n_x - in_y \\ n_x + in_y & 1-n_z \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$P_2 = \frac{1}{2}(I - A) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - n_z & -n_x + in_y \\ -n_x - in_y & 1 + n_z \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence,  $iaA = iaP_1 - iaP_2$  and

$$e^{iaA} = e^{ia}P_1 + e^{-ia}P_2 = \cos aI + i\sin aA.$$

Singular value decomposition

Singular value decomposition  
Theorem Let 
$$A \in M_{m,n}$$
 of rank  $k$ . There is an orthonormal set  
 $\{|v_1\rangle, \ldots, |v_k\rangle \subseteq \mathbb{C}^n$  such that  
 $A|v_j\rangle = s_j|u_j\rangle$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, k$ .  
where  $s_1 \ge \cdots \ge s_k > 0$ ,  $\{|u_1\rangle, \ldots, |u_k\rangle$  is an orthonormal set in  $\mathbb{C}^m$   
Equivalently, there are unitary  $U \in M_m$  and  $V \in M_n$  so that  
 $U^{\dagger}AV \supseteq \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0_{n-k,k} \\ 0_{m-k,n-} \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $D = \operatorname{diag}(s_1, \ldots, s_k)$ .  
Consequently,  $A = \sum_{i=1}^{k} s_i fu_i \rangle \langle v_j|$ , where  $s_1^2 \ge \cdots \ge s_k^2$  are the positive  
eigenvalues of  $A^{\dagger}A$  and  $AA^{\dagger}$ .  
Proof. Suppose  $V^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}AV + \operatorname{diag}(s_1^2, \ldots, s_k^2)$  with  $s_1 \ge \cdots \ge s_n \ge 0$ .  
Then the columns of  $AV$  form an orthogonal set. Suppose the first  $k$   
columns of  $AV$  are nonzero. Then  $k \le m$ . Let  $|u_i\rangle$  be the *i*th column  
of  $AV$  divided by  $s_i$ , and let  $U \in M_m$  with the first  $k$  columns equal  
to  $|u_1\rangle, \ldots, |u_k\rangle$ . Then  $U^{\dagger}AI = \Sigma^{\dagger}$   
 $A = A^{\dagger}AV$ .  
 $A = A^{\dagger}AV$ .

Example Let 
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \\ i & i \end{pmatrix}$$
. Then  $A^{\dagger}A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ .  
If  $V = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ , then  $V^{\dagger}AAV = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .  
So,  $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $AV = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 2i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .  
We may take  $U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ i & 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$  to get  $U^{\dagger}AV = \Sigma$ .

## **Tensor** products

Let  $A = (A_{ij})$  and B be two rectangular matrices. Then their tensor product (Kronecker product) is the matrix

roduct) is the matrix  

$$A \otimes B = (A_{ij}B).$$
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 $A = (A_{ij}B).$ 

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This is very important in quantum mechanics.

If  $\rho_1, \rho_2$  are quantum states of two quantum systems, then  $\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2$  is their product state in the bipartite (combined) system.

**Theorem** For matrices A, B, C, D of appropriate sizes, the following properties hold:

(1) 
$$(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) \neq (AC) \otimes (BD)$$
.  
(2)  $A \otimes (B+C) = A \otimes B + A \otimes C$ ,  
(3)  $(A \otimes B)^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger} \otimes B^{\dagger}$ ,  
(4)  $(A \otimes B)^{-1} = A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1}$ .  
Proof. (1) Let  $A \in \mathbf{M}_{m,n}, B \in \mathbf{M}_{r,s}, C \in \mathbf{M}_{n,p}$ , and  $D \in \mathbf{M}_{s,q}$ . If  $AC = (\gamma_{rs})$ , then  
 $(A \otimes B)(C \otimes D) \neq (d_{ij}B)(q_{ij}D) = (\gamma_{rs}BD)$   
 $= (\gamma_{rs}) \otimes (BD) = (AC) \otimes (BD)$ .  
(2)  $A \otimes (B+C) = (A_{ij}(B+C))$   
 $= (A_{ij}B) + (A_{ij}C) = A \otimes B + A \otimes C$ .  
(3) Let  $\gamma_{rs} = \bar{A}_{sr}$ . Then  
 $(A \otimes B)^{\dagger} = (A_{ij}B)^{\dagger} = (\gamma_{rs}B^{\dagger}) = A^{\dagger} \otimes B^{\dagger}$ .

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(4) Note that 
$$(A^{-1} \otimes B^{-1})(A \otimes B) = I \otimes I$$
.

**Corollary** For any matrices A, B, if

then $(R_1 \otimes R_2) \land A \otimes B) (S_1 \otimes S_2) = T_1 \otimes T_2.$ Applications.

• Let  $A \in \mathbf{M}_m, B \in \mathbf{M}_n$ . If  $S_1^{-1}AS_1 = D_1, S_2^{-1}BS_2 = D_2,$ 

 $R_1 A S_1 = T_1, R_2 B S_2 = T_2,$ 

where  $D_1, D_2$  are diagonal matrices, then

$$(S_1 \otimes S_2)^{-1} (A \otimes B) (S_1 \otimes S_2) = D_1 \otimes D_2$$

is a diagonal matrix.

\* If A, B are normal, we may assume that  $S_1, S_2$  be unitary. \* If  $A|u_i\rangle = \mu_i |u_i\rangle$  for  $1 \le i \le m$ , and  $B|v_j\rangle = \nu_j |v_j\rangle$   $1 \le j \le n$ ,

then

then

then  

$$(A \otimes B)(|u_i v_j\rangle) = \mu_i \nu_j |u_i v_j\rangle,$$
where  $|u_i v_j\rangle = |u_i\rangle \otimes |v_j\rangle.$ 

 $\bullet~\mbox{\it If}~A,B~\mbox{\it are rectangular matrices with singular decomposition}$ 

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i |u_i\rangle \langle v_i| \text{ and } B = \sum_{j=1}^{s} b_j |x_j\rangle \langle v_j|,$$
$$A \otimes B = \sum_{r,s} a_i b_j |u_i |x_j\rangle \langle v_i |y_j|,$$

is the singular value decomposition  $\frac{df}{df} \otimes B$ .

 $A|x\rangle = \lambda|x\rangle$ 

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