

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- For a matrix A in $C^{m \times n}$, if there is a number c in C and a vector $V \neq 0$ within C^n such that $AV = c \cdot V$, then c is called an eigenvalue of A and V an eigenvector of A associated with c.
- Some matrices have many eigenvalues and eigenvectors and some matrices have none.

Eigenspace

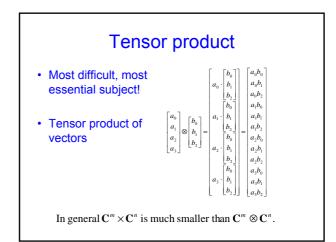
- If A has eigenvalue c₀ with eigenvector V₀, then for any c∈ C we have
 A(cV₀) = cAV₀ = c₀V₀ = c₀(cV₀)
 - which shows that cV_0 is also an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue c_0 .
- If cV_o and $c'V_o$ are two such eigenvectors, then because of $A(cV_o + c'V_o) = AcV_o + A c'V_o = cAV_o + c'AV_o$ $= c(c_oV_o) + c'(c_oV_o) = (c + c')(c_oV_o) = c_o(c+c') V_o$
- we see that the addition of two such eigenvectors is also an eigenvector.
- Therefore, every eigenvector determines a complex subvector space of the vector space. It is known as the eigenspace associated with the given eigenvector.

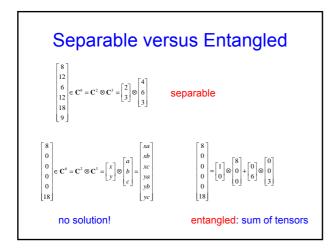
Hermitian matrices

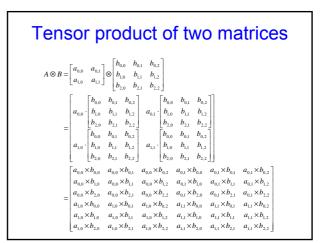
- An $n \ge n$ matrix A is called hermitian if $A^{\dagger} = A$. In other words $A[j,k] = \overline{A[k,j]}$.
- If A is a hermitian matrix then the operator that it represents is called self-adjoint
- If A is a hermitian $n \times n$ matrix, we have $\langle AV, V' \rangle = \langle V, AV' \rangle$.
- If A is hermitian, then all eigenvalues are real.
- For a given hermitian matrix, distinct eigenvectors that have distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal.
- A diagonal matrix is a square matrix whose only nonzero entries are on the diagonal. All entries off the diagonal are zero.
- Every self-adjoint operator A on a finite-dimensional complex vector space V can be represented by a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of A, and whose eigenvectors form an orthonormal basis for V (we call this basis an eigenbasis).
- With every physical observable of a quantum system there is a corresponding hermitian matrix. Measurements of the observable always leads to a state that is represented by one of the eigenvectors of the associated hermitian matrix.

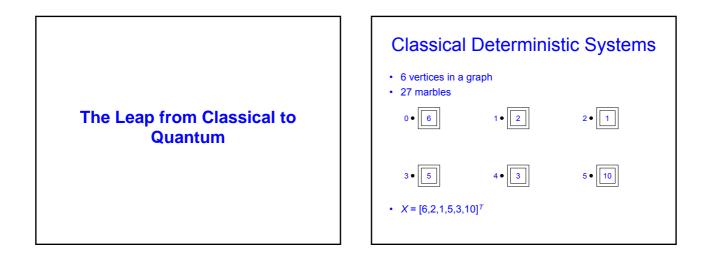
Unitary matrices

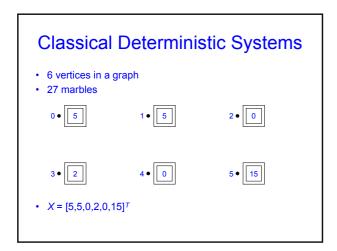
- An *n* x *n* matrix U is called unitary if $U * U^{\dagger} = I_{n}$.
- Unitary matrices preserve inner products <UV,UV'> = <V,V'>.
- Unitary matrices preserve distances d(UV₁, UV₂) = d(V₁, V₂). An operator that preserves distances is called an isometry.
- If U is unitary and UV = V', then we can easily form U^t and by multiplying both sides we get U^t UV = U^tV' or V = U^tV'. In other words U^t can "undo" the action that U performs. In the quantum world all actions (that are not measurements) are "undoable" or "reversible".

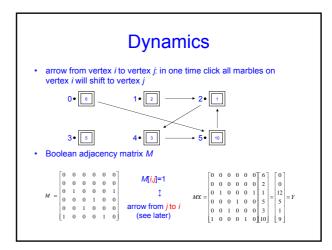












Dynamics (cont'd)

In general:

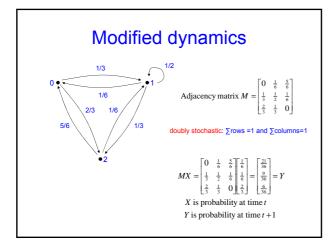
 $M^{k}[i,j] = 1$ if and only if there is a path of length k from vertex i to vertex i.

- In Quantum Computing we start with an initial state (vector of numbers), the "input" of the system. Operations correspond with multiplying the vector with matrices. The "output" is the state of the system when all operations are carried out.
- Summing up:
 - The states of a system correspond to column vectors (state vectors).
 - The dynamics of a system correspond to matrices.
 - To progress from one state to another in one time step, one must multiply the state vector by a matrix.

 - Multiple step dynamics are obtained via matrix multiplications.

Probabilistic systems

- Quantum mechanics:
 - Inherent indeterminacy in knowledge of a state
 - States change with probabilistic laws
 - States transfer with a certain likelihood.
- · Instead of many marbles, just look at one:
 - $X = [1/5, 3/10, 1/2]^T$ corresponds with
 - 1/5 chance that marble is on vertex 0
 - 3/10 chance that marble is on vertex 1
 - 1/2 chance that marble is on vertex 2
 - sum must be 1.

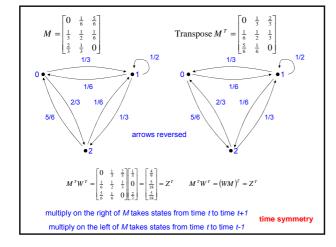


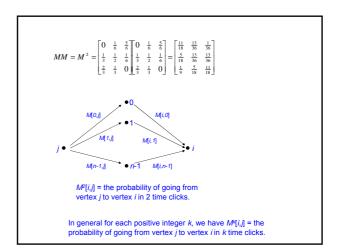


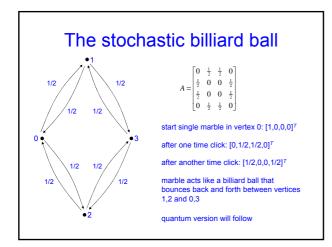
Multiplication also on the left of a matrix with a row vector (=state vector):

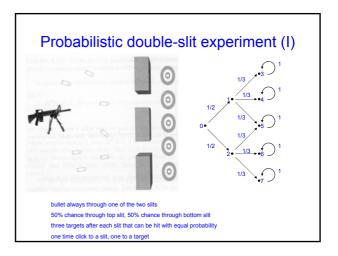
$$WM = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & 0 & \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{5}{6} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{6} \\ \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{4}{9} & \frac{5}{18} & \frac{5}{18} \end{bmatrix} = Z$$

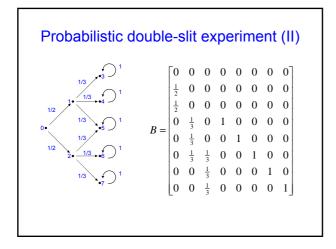
Note :
$$\sum$$
 entries $Z = 1$

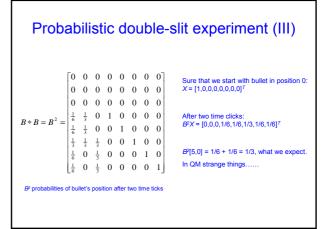










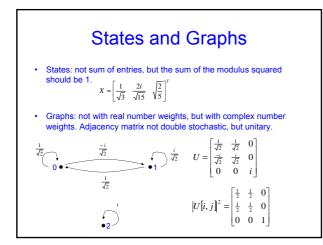


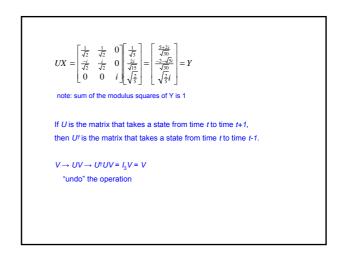
Summarizing

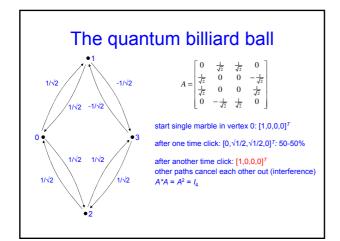
- The vectors that represent states of a probabilistic physical system express a type of indeterminacy about the exact physical state of the system.
- The matrices that represent the dynamics express a type of indeterminacy about the way the physical system will change over time. Their entries enable us to compute the likelihood of transitioning from one state to the next.
- The way in which the indeterminacy progresses is simulated by matrix multiplication, just as in the deterministic scenario.

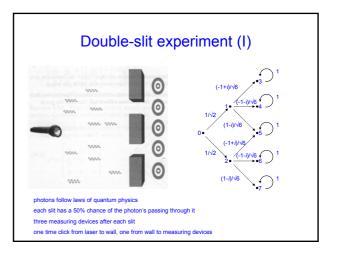
Quantum Systems

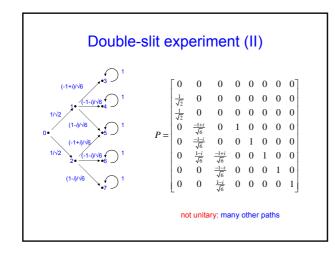
- QM: weight is not a real number *p* between 0 and 1, rather a complex number *c* such that |*c*|² is a real number between 0 and 1.
- Real number probabilities can only increase when added; complex numbers can cancel each other and lower their probability. This is called interference.

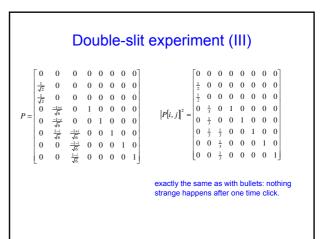


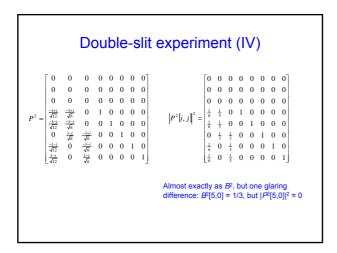


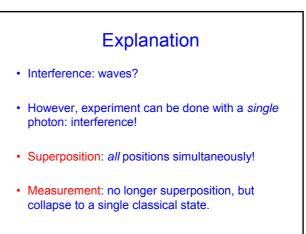












Review

- States in a quantum system are represented by column vectors of complex numbers whose sum of moduli squared is 1.
- The dynamics of a quantum system is represented by unitary matrices and is therefore reversible. The "undoing" is obtained via the algebraic inverse, i.e., the adjoint of the unitary matrix representing forward evolution.
- The probabilities of quantum mechanics are always given as the modulus square of complex numbers.
- Quantum states can be superposed, i.e., a physical system can be in more than one basic state simultaneously.

Errata

All errata: http://www.cambridge.org/resources/0521879965/7337 Errata.pdf

This link can be found on the QC-webpage.

Reading

- This lecture: Ch 2.5-2.7 & Ch 3.1-3.3, p 60-97.
- Next lecture: Ch 3.4 & (start) Ch 4.