## Vectors and Linear Transformations

A vector space $V$ is a set of things called basis vectors and some rules for making linear combinations of them:
$a \mathbf{x}+\mathrm{b} \mathbf{y}$ is a vector if $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ are vectors and $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ are numbers.
A linear transformation $L$ is a map from one vector space to another that obeys the superposition principle:

$$
L(a x+b y)=a L x+b L y
$$

Every linear transformation can be represented by a matrix acting on a column vector and vice versa. This is important.

An inner product $\langle\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y}\rangle$ maps two vectors to a number. The usual example is $x_{1}^{*} y_{1}+x_{2}^{*} y_{2}+\cdots$ but others exist. The inner product of a vector with itself defines a norm.

## Unitary / Orthogonal

Unitary matrices obey $U^{-1}=U^{\dagger}$. Real unitary matrices are orthogonal. U matrices preserve the usual inner product: $\langle U \mathbf{x} \mid U \mathbf{y}\rangle=\langle\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y}\rangle$. Each eigenvalue of $U$ and the determinant of $U$ must have complex magnitude 1.

The columns of $\boldsymbol{U}$ form an orthonormal basis for $\boldsymbol{V}$ (and so do the rows) if and only if $\boldsymbol{U}$ is unitary. Two matrices $L$ and $M$ are similar if $M=U L U^{-1}$ for some unitary $U$.

Every rotation and/or parity transformation between two orthonormal bases is represented by a $U$ and vice versa.

## Matrix Arithmetic

To multiply two matrices $A B$, do this: $[A B]_{i j}=\sum_{k} A_{i k} B_{k j}$ (Note: a column vector is just a $n \times 1$ matrix.)
$(A B) \mathbf{x}$ produces the same vector as "do $B$, then do $A$ to $\mathbf{x}$."
Matrices add component-wise, and $(A+B) \mathbf{x}=A \mathbf{x}+B \mathbf{x}$.
To transpose $M$, swap its rows and columns: $\left[M^{T}\right]_{i j}=M_{j i}$ An (anti) symmetric matrix equals its (minus) transpose.

The adjoint of $M$ is its conjugate transpose: $\left[M^{\dagger}\right]_{i j}=M_{j i}^{*}$. Adjoint matrices obey the rule $\langle\mathbf{x} \mid M \mathbf{y}\rangle=\left\langle M^{\dagger} \mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{y}\right\rangle$.

The inverse $M^{-1}$ has determinant $(\operatorname{det}[M])^{-1}$ if $\operatorname{det}[M] \neq 0$. A singular matrix has determinant 0 and can't be inverted.

Transposes, adjoints and inverses obey a "backwards" rule:

$$
(A B)^{-1}=B^{-1} A^{-1} \quad(A B)^{T}=B^{T} A^{T} \quad(A B)^{\dagger}=B^{\dagger} A^{\dagger}
$$

## Hermitian / Symmetric

Hermitian matrices are self-adjoint: $H^{\dagger}=H$. Real symmetric square matrices are Hermitian.

Eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{H}$ are real (but might be degenerate!). Eigenvectors of $H$ form an orthogonal basis for $V$. (Eigenvectors corresponding to the same eigenvalue are not unique, but it is always possible to choose orthogonal ones.)

A real linear combination of Hermitian matrices is Hermitian.

## Eigensystems and the Spectral Theorem

A normal matrix $N$ satisfies $N N^{\dagger}=N^{\dagger} N$. Every normal matrix is similar to a diagonal matrix: $N=U D U^{-1}$ where $U$ is unitary and $D$ is diagonal. The elements of $D$ are eigenvalues and the columns of $U$ are eigenvectors of $N$. $D$ is unique except that the order of eigenvalues is arbitrary. $\mathbf{v}_{j}$ is an eigenvector of $N$ with eigenvalue $\lambda_{j}$ if and only if $N \mathbf{v}_{j}=\lambda_{j} \mathbf{v}_{j}$.

The spectrum of $N$ (the set of its eigenvalues) can be found by solving $\operatorname{det}[N-\lambda 1]=0$, the characteristic polynomial of $N$. The product of all eigenvalues of $N$ is $\operatorname{det}[N]$ and the sum of eigenvalues is $\operatorname{tr}[N]$, the trace of $N$ (the sum of its diagonal elements). Two similar matrices $L$ and $M$ have the same spectrum, determinant, and trace (but the converse is not true).

## Misc. Terminology

A matrix $P$ is idempotent if $P P=P$. An idempotent Hermitian matrix is a projection. A positive-definite matrix has only positive real eigenvalues. $Z$ is nilpotent if $Z^{n}=0$ for some number $n$. The commutator of $L$ and $M$ is $[L, M]=L M-M L$.

## Matrix Exponentials

The exponential map of a matrix $M$ is $\operatorname{EXP}[M]=1+M+\frac{1}{2!} M^{2}+\cdots+\frac{1}{k!} M^{k}+\cdots$. The solution to the differential equation $\frac{d}{d t} \mathbf{x}(t)=M \mathbf{x}(t)$ is $\mathbf{x}(t)=\operatorname{EXP}[M t] \cdot \mathbf{x}(0)$. EXP has some, but not all, of the properties of the function $e^{x}$ :
in general: $\quad\left(e^{M}\right)^{-1}=e^{-M} \quad\left(e^{M}\right)^{T}=e^{M^{T}} \quad\left(e^{M}\right)^{\dagger}=e^{M^{\dagger}} \quad e^{(a+b) M}=e^{a M} e^{b M} \quad \operatorname{det}\left[e^{M}\right]=e^{\operatorname{tr}[M]}$ only if $M$ and $N$ commute: $e^{M+N}=e^{M} e^{N} \quad e^{N} M e^{-N}=M \quad$ only if $N$ is invertible: $e^{N M N^{-1}}=N e^{M} N^{-1}$.

