

LECTURE 2

FUNDAMENTALS OF QUANTUM COMPUTING AND QUANTUM INFORMATION

INF587 Quantum computer science and applications

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To define more rigorously and deeply what we have seen during Lecture 1

→ In particular the concept of **measurement!**

1. Basics of linear algebra: spectral decomposition of normal operators and function operators...
2. Postulates of quantum mechanics:
 - State space (Hilbert),
 - Evolution (unitary),
 - Measurement (general description, projective measurements, POVM),
 - Composite systems (tensor products).
3. An application: teleportation

BASICS OF LINEAR ALGEBRA: SOME NOTATION

You have to be familiar with:

linear spaces, linear operators, basis, dimension, scalar product over Hilbert-spaces

→ We will always work in **finite** dimension

In particular: linear operator \iff matrix

The vector space of most interest to us is \mathbb{C}^N

- ▶ Given $z \in \mathbb{C}$, \bar{z} denotes its conjugate. For instance $\overline{(1+i)} = 1-i$.
- ▶ Given \mathbf{A} linear operator (*i.e.* a matrix), $\mathbf{A}^\dagger = (\bar{\mathbf{A}})^\top$ denotes its Hermitian conjugate. For instance $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{a} & \bar{c} \\ \bar{b} & \bar{d} \end{pmatrix}$.

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Dirac Notation

- **Ket:** $|\psi\rangle$ denotes an element of \mathbb{C}^N : $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_N \end{pmatrix}$ where the α_i 's are complex.

Convention: for any **A** linear operator: **A** $|\psi\rangle$ denotes **A**($|\psi\rangle$).

- **Bra:** $\langle\psi|$ denotes its conjugate transpose: $\langle\psi| = (|\psi\rangle)^\dagger = (\overline{\alpha_1} \quad \overline{\alpha_2} \quad \cdots \quad \overline{\alpha_N})$.

Convention: for any linear operator $\langle\psi| **A**[†] denotes (**A** $|\psi\rangle$)[†].$

- **Inner product:** $\langle\psi|\varphi\rangle$ inner-product between $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\varphi\rangle$: matrix multiplication $\langle\psi| \cdot |\varphi\rangle$.
- **Inner product and linear operator:** $\langle\psi| **A** $|\varphi\rangle$ inner product between $|\psi\rangle$ and **A** $|\varphi\rangle$.$
- **Ket-bra:** $|\psi\rangle\langle\varphi|$ is the linear operator s.t $|\psi\rangle\langle\varphi| |\phi\rangle = \langle\varphi|\phi\rangle |\psi\rangle$.

Let $(|i\rangle)$ be some orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^N , then

$$\sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| = \mathbf{I}_N \quad (\text{the identity operator})$$

Proof:

Let $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^N$, as $(|i\rangle)$ basis, $|v\rangle = \sum_i v_i |i\rangle$ and $v_i = \langle i|v\rangle$, as $(|i\rangle)$ **orthonormal** basis. Then

$$\left(\sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| \right) |v\rangle = \sum_i (|i\rangle\langle i| |v\rangle) = \sum_i \langle i|v\rangle |i\rangle = \sum_i v_i |i\rangle = |v\rangle.$$

When working in \mathbb{C}^2 (the qubits space)

$$|0\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad |1\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^2)

→ Don't confuse $|0\rangle$ with 0 the zero vector of \mathbb{C}^2 ($0 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$).

We will often use the following operators (in quantum computing and quantum information)

Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_0 = I_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_1 = \sigma_x = X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ (bit flip)}$$

$$\sigma_2 = \sigma_y = Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_z = Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise:

Show that:

$$I_2 = |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1|, \quad X = |1\rangle\langle 0| + |0\rangle\langle 1|, \quad Y = i|1\rangle\langle 0| - i|0\rangle\langle 1| \quad \text{and} \quad Z = |0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1|.$$

The following operator will be at the core of quantum computing
 (→ some relation to the Quantum Fourier Transform)

Hadamard matrix

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ factor is here to ensure that H is an isometry!

Exercise:

Show that

$$HH^\dagger = H^\dagger H = H^2 = I_2 \quad \text{and} \quad H = \frac{(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\langle 0| + (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\langle 1|}{\sqrt{2}}$$

LINEAR ALGEBRA: SPECTRAL DECOMPOSITION, ...

PARTICULAR CLASSES OF OPERATORS

- ▶ **Hermitian:** A s.t. $A^\dagger = A$
- ▶ **Positive:** A **Hermitian** s.t. $\forall |v\rangle \neq 0, \langle v|A|v\rangle \geq 0$ (and > 0 when **A strictly positive**)
- ▶ **Orthogonal projector:** P s.t. $P^2 = P$ and $\text{Im}(P) \perp \text{Ker}(P)$

Orthogonal projectors \subseteq Hermitian and Strictly Positive \subseteq Positive \subseteq Hermitian

- ▶ **Unitary:** U s.t. $UU^\dagger = U^\dagger U = I_N$
- ▶ **Normal:** A s.t. $A^\dagger A = AA^\dagger$

Hermitian \subseteq Normal and Unitary \subseteq Normal

→ Except some measurements, all the considered operators in this course are **normal!**

Theorem: spectral decomposition of normal operators

Any normal operator A is diagonal with respect to some **orthonormal basis**.

Conversely, any diagonalizable operator in an **orthonormal basis** is normal.

In practice

Let A be a positive, or an Hermitian, or orthogonal projector, or a unitary, or a normal operator.

Then it exists an orthonormal basis $(|i\rangle)$ and $(\lambda_i) \in \mathbb{C}^N$ s.t

$$A = \sum_i \lambda_i |i\rangle\langle i|.$$

→ **Extremely useful** in many “theoretical” proofs or to define classes of operators!

Operator functions

Let \mathbf{A} be a **normal operator** and $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ some function. The operator $f(\mathbf{A})$ is defined as follows:

1. Diagonalize \mathbf{A} in an orthonormal basis: $\mathbf{A} = \sum_i \lambda_i |i\rangle\langle i|$,
2. Define $f(\mathbf{A}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_i f(\lambda_i) |i\rangle\langle i|$.

Definition possible because **spectral decomposition** normal operators!
(you can also verify that $f(\mathbf{A})$ is uniquely defined)

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An example

$$\mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{then } \exp(\theta\mathbf{Z}) = \begin{pmatrix} e^\theta & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

Exercise

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{then } \exp(\theta\mathbf{X}) = e^\theta |+\rangle\langle +| + e^{-\theta} |-\rangle\langle -| = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} e^\theta + e^{-\theta} & e^\theta - e^{-\theta} \\ e^\theta - e^{-\theta} & e^\theta + e^{-\theta} \end{pmatrix}$$

Trace

Given some operator $\mathbf{A} = (A_{ij})_{i,j}$, its trace is defined as the sum of its diagonal elements:

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_j A_{j,j}$$

→ Independent of the choice of bases in which \mathbf{A} is written.

Properties

1. Cyclicity: $\text{tr}(\mathbf{AB}) = \text{tr}(\mathbf{BA})$,
2. Linearity: $\mathbf{A} \mapsto \text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$ is linear.
3. Decomposition: let $(|i\rangle)$ be an **orthonormal** basis, then $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_i \langle i | \mathbf{A} | i \rangle$.

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Proof 3.

Write $\mathbf{A} = (A_{i,j})$ in the basis $(|i\rangle)$. By definition $\mathbf{A} |j\rangle = \sum_i A_{i,j} |i\rangle$. Notice:

$$\langle j | \mathbf{A} | j \rangle = \langle j | \left(\sum_i A_{i,j} |i\rangle \right) = \sum_i A_{i,j} \langle j | i \rangle = A_{j,j}$$

where in the last equality we used the orthonormality. To conclude: $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$ independent of the basis in which \mathbf{A} is written.

For any unitary $|\psi\rangle$:

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \langle\psi| \mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle$$

Proof: as usual, use a well chosen **orthonormal** basis

As $|\psi\rangle$ is unitary, let $(|i\rangle)$ be an orthonormal basis such that its first element is $|\psi\rangle$. Therefore

$$\text{tr}(\mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \sum_i \langle i | (\mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) | i \rangle = \sum_i \langle i | \mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle \langle\psi| i \rangle = \langle\psi| \mathbf{A} |\psi\rangle$$

where in the last inequality we used that $\langle\psi|i\rangle = 0$ as soon as $|\psi\rangle \neq |i\rangle$ and $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$.

→ You can also prove this theorem with the vector notation (we are in finite dimension)

▶ **Positive A Hermitian** s.t. $\forall |v\rangle \neq 0, \langle v | \mathbf{A} | v \rangle \geq 0 \iff \mathbf{A}$ Hermitian + Eigenvalues $\in \mathbb{R}_+$.

▶ **Unitary: U** s.t. $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^\dagger = \mathbf{U}^\dagger\mathbf{U} \iff \forall |v\rangle, |w\rangle: \langle \mathbf{U} | w \rangle, \mathbf{U} | v \rangle \rangle = \langle w | \mathbf{U}^\dagger \mathbf{U} | v \rangle = \langle w | v \rangle$.

—→ An operator \mathbf{U} is unitary if and only if it preserves the scalar product between vectors

▶ **Orthogonal projector:** let $V \subseteq \mathbb{C}^N$ subspace of dimension K and $(|1\rangle, \dots, |K\rangle)$ be an orthonormal basis s.t. $(|1\rangle, \dots, |N\rangle)$ orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^N

$$\mathbf{P} = \sum_{i=1}^K |i\rangle\langle i| \text{ is an orthogonal projector onto } V$$

Reciprocally, given \mathbf{P} orthogonal projector, if $(|i\rangle)$ orthonormal basis of $\text{Im}(\mathbf{P})$, then

$$\mathbf{P} = \sum_i |i\rangle\langle i|.$$

POSTULATES OF QUANTUM MECHANICS

Postulate 1: State Space

Associated to any isolated physical system is an **Hilbert space** known as the state space of the system. The system is completely described by its state vectors, which are **unit vectors** in the system's state space

- ▶ Our considered Hilbert spaces will be \mathbb{C}^{2^n} for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (n register qubits),
- ▶ Be careful, state vector/quantum states $|\psi\rangle$ are such that $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$.

During this course: we will mainly consider: qubit space \mathbb{C}^2

Computational basis for qubits:

$$|0\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad |1\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

A qubit:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \quad \text{where } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1.$$

Postulate 2: Evolution

The evolution of a **closed** quantum system is described by a **unitary operator**.

The following operators over qubits are all unitaries:

$$\sigma_1 = \sigma_x = \mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_2 = \sigma_y = \mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_3 = \sigma_z = \mathbf{Z} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

→ They will be fundamental for quantum computing/information theory!

Postulate 3: Quantum measurement

Quantum measurements are described by a collection $(\mathbf{M}_m)_m$ of **measurement operators** which are operators acting on the state space.

▶ m : **measurement outcome** that may occur during the experiment

▶ given $|\psi\rangle$, **the probability to measure m** is

$$p(m) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle = \text{tr} \left(\mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | \right)$$

▶ given $|\psi\rangle$, **after measuring m** , $|\psi\rangle$ becomes

$$\frac{\mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle}} = \frac{\mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle}{\sqrt{\text{tr} \left(\mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle \langle \psi | \right)}}$$

▶ **completeness relation**

$$\sum_m \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m = \mathbf{I}_d$$

The completeness relations ensures that

$$1 = \sum_m p(m) = \sum_m \langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \left(\sum_m \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m \right) | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle$$

We have seen during course 1:

Measuring **in the basis** $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$: $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{measure}} \begin{cases} |0\rangle \text{ with probability } |\alpha|^2 \\ |1\rangle \text{ with probability } |\beta|^2 \end{cases}$

With the measurement formalism:

$$\mathbf{M}_0 = |0\rangle\langle 0| \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{M}_1 = |1\rangle\langle 1|$$

Probability to measure:

- ▶ 0: $p(0) = \langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_0^\dagger \mathbf{M}_0 | \psi \rangle = \bar{\alpha} \alpha = |\alpha|^2$
- ▶ 1: $p(1) = \langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_1^\dagger \mathbf{M}_1 | \psi \rangle = \bar{\beta} \beta = |\beta|^2$

After measuring:

- ▶ 0: $\frac{\mathbf{M}_0 |\psi\rangle}{|\alpha|} = \frac{\alpha}{|\alpha|} |0\rangle$
- ▶ 1: $\frac{\mathbf{M}_1 |\psi\rangle}{|\beta|} = \frac{\beta}{|\beta|} |1\rangle$

→ More rigorous but many times useless (too complicated) when studying quantum algorithms!

Projective measurement

Observable \mathbf{M} : Hermitian operator which has the spectral decomposition

$$\sum_m m \mathbf{P}_m$$

where \mathbf{P}_m : orthogonal projection onto the eigenspace of \mathbf{M} with eigenvalue m .

(\mathbf{P}_m) defines the associated quantum measurement to \mathbf{M} . In particular, the possible outcomes correspond to the eigenvalues m .

Exercise:

Given an observable \mathbf{M} , show that (\mathbf{P}_m) defines a measurement. In particular

- ▶ probability to measure m : $\rho(m) = \langle \psi | \mathbf{P}_m | \psi \rangle = \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_m |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|)$,
- ▶ given that m occurred, $|\psi\rangle$ becomes:

$$\frac{\mathbf{P}_m |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \psi | \mathbf{P}_m | \psi \rangle}} = \frac{\mathbf{P}_m |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_m |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|)}}$$

Given $|\psi\rangle$ what is the average outcome when given the observable \mathbf{M} ?

Average outcome for the observable \mathbf{M} given $|\psi\rangle$

$$\langle \mathbf{M} \rangle = \langle \psi | \mathbf{M} | \psi \rangle$$

Proof:

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{M}) = \sum_m m p(m) = \sum_m m \langle \psi | \mathbf{P}_m | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \left(\sum_m m \mathbf{P}_m \right) | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \mathbf{M} | \psi \rangle = \langle \mathbf{M} \rangle.$$

Given $|\psi\rangle$ what is the typical spread of the observed values upon measurement of \mathbf{M} ?

Standard deviation of the outcomes for the measurable \mathbf{M} given $|\psi\rangle$

$$\Delta(\mathbf{M}) = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{M}^2 \rangle - \langle \mathbf{M} \rangle^2}$$

During the exercise session we will show:

Measurement \iff Projective measurements

For now:

If we can perform quantum measurements, then we can perform projective measurements. The reciprocal is not clear.

Quantum measurement:

- ▶ Distribution of the outcomes,
- ▶ Rules describing the post-measurement quantum state.

What happens if we only care of the distribution of the outcomes or if we don't care of the post-measurement quantum states?

→ **Positive Operator-Valued Measure (POVM)** formalism!

POVM

Any set of operators $(E_m)_m$ be such that

1. $\forall m, E_m$ is **positive** (\iff Hermitian with eigenvalues ≥ 0),
2. Completeness relation: $\sum_m E_m = I_d$.
3. Given $|\psi\rangle$, $p(m) = \langle\psi|E_m|\psi\rangle$ is the probability to measure **m**.

Proposition

For any POVM there exists an associated quantum measurement and reciprocally

Proof:

- ▶ Let $(E_m)_m$ be a POVM. Define $M_m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{E_m}$ (E_m positive). Then $\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = \sum_m E_m = I_d$.
- ▶ Let $(M_m)_m$ be a quantum measurement. Define $E_m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} M_m^\dagger M_m$. It is a positive operator that satisfies the completeness relation.

How is defined $\sqrt{E_m}$?

DISTINGUISHING QUANTUM STATES

Let's play **together** to the following game:

1. Let $(|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_M\rangle)$ be a set of quantum states that **we** know
2. **I** choose one state, let's say $|\psi_i\rangle$ and **I** give it to **you**
3. **Your** goal is to recover i and **you** have the right to use your favourite measurement

There are three type of measurement:

- ▶ Find each time the right answer with probability one 1 (the best expected measurement)
- ▶ Never make mistake but sometimes answer "I don't know" (**unambiguous measurement**)
- ▶ Can make mistakes (**ambiguous measurement**)

→ Sometimes the best expected measurement cannot exist...

We don't require the proposed measurement to be **efficiently computable!**

Orthogonal states $|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_M\rangle$ can be easily distinguished!

→ Define the projective measurements $\mathbf{P}_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ and $\mathbf{P}_0 = \mathbf{I}_d - \sum_{i \neq 0} \mathbf{P}_i$.

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→ Define the projective measurements $P_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ and $P_0 = I_d - \sum_{i \neq 0} P_i$.

Theorem

No quantum measurement are capable of distinguishing non-orthogonal states.

Exercise: during exercise session

1. Prove the theorem,
2. Give a POVM (E_1, E_2, E_3) that never makes error to distinguish the following quantum states:

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |\psi_2\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |+\rangle$$

Two papers about this topic (to be presented at the end of the course):

- ▶ *Optimum Unambiguous Discrimination Between Linearly Independent Symmetric States*, A. Chefles and S. M. Barnett.

<https://arxiv.org/abs/quant-ph/9807023>

- ▶ *On the distinguishability of random quantum states*, A. Montanaro

<https://arxiv.org/abs/quant-ph/0607011>

Given a quantum state $|\psi\rangle$, then $e^{i\theta} |\psi\rangle$ is also a quantum state
→ $e^{i\theta} |\psi\rangle$ is said to be equal to $|\psi\rangle$ up to the global phase θ .

In quantum computation, two states equal up to some global phase can be considered as equal!

The reason:

For any measurement \mathbf{M}_m :

$$\langle \psi | \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | e^{-i\theta} \mathbf{M}_m^\dagger \mathbf{M}_m e^{i\theta} | \psi \rangle$$

→ Both quantum states have the same statistics of measurement!

Postulate 4: Composite system

The state space of a composite physical system is the tensor product of the state spaces of the component physical systems.

Moreover, if we have systems numbered 1 through n , and system number i is prepared in the state $|\psi_i\rangle$, then the joint state of the total system is $|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$.

→ The state space of a composite system:

$$\text{Span}(|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle : |\psi_i\rangle \text{'s states}) = \left\{ \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_n} \lambda_{i_1, \dots, i_n} |\psi_{i_1}\rangle \otimes |\psi_{i_2}\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_{i_n}\rangle \right\}$$

Be careful:

- $(|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle)^\dagger = \langle \psi_1| \otimes \langle \psi_2| \otimes \cdots \otimes \langle \psi_n|$ (do not reverse the order)
- It exists quantum states **that cannot be written as** $|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$.

Inner product for composite system

Let $|\mathbf{x}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$ and $|\mathbf{y}\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\varphi_1\rangle \otimes |\varphi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\varphi_n\rangle$

$$\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \psi_1 | \varphi_1 \rangle \langle \psi_2 | \varphi_2 \rangle \cdots \langle \psi_n | \varphi_n \rangle .$$

→ In particular: if $|\psi_j\rangle \perp |\varphi_j\rangle$ for **at least one** j , then $|\mathbf{x}\rangle \perp |\mathbf{y}\rangle$.

A PARTICULAR CASE: n QUBITS SPACE

As we have seen during Lecture 1:

- ▶ A **qubit** $|\psi\rangle$ is an element of \mathbb{C}^2 with Hermitian norm 1,
- ▶ A **register of n qubits** $|\psi\rangle$ is an element of $\underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{n \text{ times}} = \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ with Hermitian norm 1.

Let $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$ be an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{C}^2 . Then,

$$(|b_1\rangle \otimes |b_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |b_n\rangle) : b_1, \dots, b_n \in \{0, 1\}$$

is an orthonormal basis of $\underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{n \text{ times}} = \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$.

- ▶ Notation: for $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \{0, 1\}$

$$|b_1 b_2 \dots b_n\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |b_1\rangle \otimes |b_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |b_n\rangle$$

Separable versus entangled states

A n -qubit system $|\psi\rangle$ that can be decomposed as $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle$ is called **separable**.

When there is no such decomposition, the state is called **entangled**.

Example:

1. Separable states

$$|00\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} (|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

2. Entangled state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$$

→ **Entangled states play a crucial role** in quantum computation/information
(teleportation, quantum cryptography, etc...)

Operators over composite systems

Given A_1, \dots, A_n , the operator $A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n$ over the composite system is defined as

$$A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} A_1 |\psi_1\rangle \otimes A_2 |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes A_n |\psi_n\rangle .$$

→ The set of operators over a composite system is

$$\text{Span} (A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n : A_i \text{'s operators}) = \left\{ \sum_{i_1, \dots, i_n} \lambda_{i_1, \dots, i_n} A_{i_1} \otimes A_{i_2} \otimes \dots \otimes A_{i_n} \right\}$$

Be careful

1. $(A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n)^\dagger = A_1^\dagger \otimes A_2^\dagger \otimes \dots \otimes A_n^\dagger$ (do not reverse the order)
2. It exists operators **that cannot be written as** $A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n$.

Products of operators

Let $A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} A_1 \otimes A_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n$ and $B \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} B_1 \otimes B_2 \otimes \dots \otimes B_n$.

$$AB = A_1 B_1 \otimes A_2 B_2 \otimes \dots \otimes A_n B_n$$

AN APPLICATION: TELEPORTATION

Aim:

Alice has a state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$ that she does not know (i.e., α and β are unknown).

→ Alice's goal: send $|\psi\rangle$ to her friend Bob!

How to proceed?

→ Little crooks: a “quantum” channel is not allowed!

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→ Alice's goal: send $|\psi\rangle$ to her friend Bob!

How to proceed?

→ Little crooks: a “quantum” channel is not allowed!

Achievable:

1. Alice can send **only two bits** (“classical” information) to Bob,
2. Alice and Bob **previously shared an EPR-pair**.

→ Entanglement offers a huge power...

Alice and Bob have shared an EPR-pair: $\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$; first qubit to Alice, second qubit to Bob

Alice has access to the first two qubits of:

$$|\psi\rangle \otimes \left(\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = (\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle) \otimes \left(\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \right)$$

1. Alice sends her qubits through a CNOT-gate ($|b\rangle |b'\rangle \mapsto |b\rangle |b' + b\rangle$), the state becomes:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\alpha |0\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta |1\rangle (|10\rangle + |01\rangle))$$

2. Alice send her first qubit trough an Hadamard gate (**H**), the state becomes:

$$\frac{1}{2} (\alpha (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta (|0\rangle - |1\rangle) (|10\rangle + |01\rangle))$$

→ Well, what to do next?

Up to now, the quantum state is (Alice owes the first two qubits):

$$\frac{1}{2} (\alpha (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta (|0\rangle - |1\rangle) (|10\rangle + |01\rangle))$$

which is equal to:

$$\frac{1}{2} (|00\rangle \otimes (\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle) + |10\rangle \otimes (\alpha |0\rangle - \beta |1\rangle) + |01\rangle \otimes (\alpha |1\rangle + \beta |0\rangle) + |11\rangle \otimes (\alpha |1\rangle - \beta |0\rangle))$$

Alice measure the first two qubits (in the basis $(|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle)$) and **Bob's quantum state becomes:**

$$00 \longrightarrow \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$$

$$10 \longrightarrow \alpha |0\rangle - \beta |1\rangle$$

$$01 \longrightarrow \alpha |1\rangle + \beta |0\rangle$$

$$11 \longrightarrow \alpha |1\rangle - \beta |0\rangle$$

To achieve the teleportation

1. Alice sends to Bob her measurement: $bb' \in \{0, 1\}^2$
2. Bob applies $Z^b X^{b'}$ (for instance: $Z^1 X^1 (\alpha |1\rangle - \beta |0\rangle) = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$)

Suppose that Alice has measured 00

→ Bob has instantaneously the quantum state $\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$

It seems that Alice sends $|\psi\rangle$ to Bob faster than light...

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The answer **is no**:

- ▶ Intuitively: Bob needs to know Alice's measurement to recover $|\psi\rangle$, otherwise there is no information about $|\psi\rangle$ in his qubit
- ▶ Rigorously: **come at Lecture 3!**

EXERCISE SESSION
