An Introduction to Quantum Computing

Lecture 12: On Measurements and Quantum Key Distribution

Paolo Zuliani

Dipartimento di Informatica Università di Roma "La Sapienza", Rome, Italy



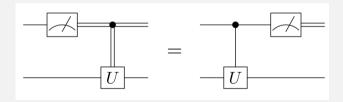
Agenda

- Principle of Deferred Measurement
- Measurements in Non-Diagonal Bases
- Bell's Inequalities
- The E91 Quantum Key Distribution Protocol

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Pictorially:



https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Qcircuit_measurement-commute.svg

In our "programming notation" (assuming two qubits q_0, q_1):

$$b = \mathsf{Measure}(q_0);$$
 if b then $q_1 = U(q_1)$ else skip \equiv Controlled $U(q_0, q_1);$ $b = \mathsf{Measure}(q_0)$

Let's why this is true. We start from the LHS:

$$\alpha_0 \left| 00 \right\rangle + \alpha_1 \left| 01 \right\rangle + \alpha_2 + \left| 10 \right\rangle + \alpha_3 \left| 11 \right\rangle$$

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Execute:
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$$\begin{split} &\alpha_0 \left| 00 \right\rangle + \alpha_1 \left| 01 \right\rangle + \alpha_2 + \left| 10 \right\rangle + \alpha_3 \left| 11 \right\rangle \\ &\text{Execute:} \quad b = \mathsf{Measure}(q_0) \\ & \begin{cases} b = 0 & \left| 0 \right\rangle \left(\left| 0 \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with probability} \left| \alpha_0 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 \\ b = 1 & \left| 1 \right\rangle \left(\left| 0 \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with probability} \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_3 \right|^2 \end{cases} \end{split}$$

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The initial state of our program/circuit is an arbitrary state of two qubits q_0, q_1 :

$$\begin{split} &\alpha_0 \left| 00 \right\rangle + \alpha_1 \left| 01 \right\rangle + \alpha_2 + \left| 10 \right\rangle + \alpha_3 \left| 11 \right\rangle \\ &\text{Execute:} \quad b = \mathsf{Measure}(q_0) \\ &\left\{ \begin{array}{l} b = 0 & \left| 0 \right\rangle \left(\left| 0 \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with probability} \left| \alpha_0 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 \\ b = 1 & \left| 1 \right\rangle \left(\left| 0 \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with probability} \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_3 \right|^2 \\ &\text{Execute:} \quad \mathsf{if } b \; \mathsf{then} \; q_1 = U(q_1) \; \mathsf{else } \; \mathsf{skip} \\ &\left\{ \begin{array}{l} b = 0 & \left| 0 \right\rangle \left(\left| 0 \right\rangle + \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with } \; \mathsf{probability} \left| \alpha_0 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 \\ b = 1 & \left| 1 \right\rangle \left(U \left| 0 \right\rangle + U \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) & \mathsf{with } \; \mathsf{probability} \left| \alpha_1 \right|^2 + \left| \alpha_3 \right|^2 \\ \end{split}$$

Compute the RHS as an exercise!

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Theorem (Spectral Theorem)

The set of all eigenvectors of a self-adjoint operator acting on a Hilbert space $\mathcal H$ is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal H$.

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The set of all eigenvectors of a self-adjoint operator acting on a Hilbert space $\mathcal H$ is an orthonormal basis for $\mathcal H$.

Therefore:

- unitarily change from a non-diagonal basis to the diagonal basis;
- measure diagonally.

Let $\{e_i\}$ and $\{f_i\}$ be two orthonormal bases.

To change basis from, say $\{f_i\}$ to $\{e_i\}$ we need an operator that satisfies:

$$|f_i
angle
ightarrow |e_i
angle \quad ext{for all } i$$

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This can be obtained by the unitary operator (exercise):

$$\sum_{i}\left|e_{i}
ight
angle \left\langle f_{i}
ight|$$

Example. Measure a qubit in the basis $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$:

$$|+\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$
 $|-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$

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U is unitary since $U^\dagger=(|0\rangle\!\langle +|\ +\ |1\rangle\!\langle -|)^\dagger=|+\rangle\!\langle 0|+|-\rangle\!\langle 1|$ and thus

$$UU^{\dagger} = (|0\rangle\langle +| + |1\rangle\langle -|)(|+\rangle\langle 0| + |-\rangle\langle 1|)$$

$$= |0\rangle\langle +| |+\rangle\langle 0| + |0\rangle\langle +| |-\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle -| |+\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle -| |-\rangle\langle 1|$$

$$= |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1| = I$$

Similary for $U^{\dagger}U$.

Recall that $H\ket{0}=\ket{+}$ and $H\ket{1}=\ket{-}$, and that $H=H^{\dagger}.$

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Hence, we have that $H|+\rangle=|0\rangle$ and $H|-\rangle=|1\rangle$, and thus U=H. In fact, let us write the matrix representation of U:

$$\begin{split} U &= |0\rangle\!\langle +| \ + \ |1\rangle\!\langle -| \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}^T + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\-1 \end{pmatrix}^T \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1&1\\0&0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0&0\\1&-1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1&1\\1&-1 \end{pmatrix} = H \end{split}$$

Also known as Bell's Theorem, after physicist John Bell (1928-1990). Result first presented in "On the Einstein Podolsky Rosen Paradox", 1964.

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The EPR thought experiment:

Alice
$$\stackrel{one \ particle}{\longleftarrow} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle - |10\rangle) \stackrel{one \ particle}{\longrightarrow} \mathsf{Bob}$$

EPR's "paradox": Alice's and Bob's measurement results (in the *diagonal* basis) are always <u>anticorrelated!</u>

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Suppose now that Alice measures one of <u>two different observables</u> (say Q and R), and Bob one of another <u>pair of observables</u> (say S and T, not necessarily the same as Alice's). What happens?

Suppose the four observables (Alice's + Bob's) always return ± 1 , *i.e.*, the eigenvalues of the four self-adjoint operators are ± 1 .

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Hence, we can say that Alice's particle has two "properties" that describe the result of measuring either of the two possible measurements, say, $Q=\pm 1$ and $R=\pm 1$. Similarly for Bob's particle with, say, $S=\pm 1$ and $T=\pm 1$.

Graphically:



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Let us consider the quantity: QS + RS + RT - QT. It is easy to see that:

$$QS + RS + RT - QT \leq 2$$
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Now suppose we perform repeated experiments in which EPR particles are sent to Alice and Bob, who will randomly and independently decide which observable to measure, while respecting the two previous assumptions.

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$$\mathcal{A} = E[QS] + E[RS] + E[RT] - E[QT] \leqslant 2 \qquad \text{(Bell's inequality)}$$

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 (Bell's inequality)

Let us test this inequality in quantum mechanics!

Try this "experimental setting":

Alice measures one of
$$\begin{cases} Q = Z \\ R = X \end{cases}$$

Bob measures one of
$$\begin{cases} S = \frac{-Z - X}{\sqrt{2}} \\ T = \frac{Z - X}{\sqrt{2}} \end{cases}$$

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One can show (Rule 3 of Quantum Mechanics) that

$$E[QS] = \langle QS \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}; \quad \langle RS \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}; \quad \langle RT \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}; \quad \langle QT \rangle = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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and thus

$$\mathcal{A} = \langle \textit{QS} \rangle + \langle \textit{RS} \rangle + \langle \textit{RT} \rangle - \langle \textit{QT} \rangle = 2\sqrt{2}$$

The Bell inequality is violated by quantum mechanics!!!!

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Does this actually happen?

$$\mathcal{A} = \langle QS \rangle + \langle RS \rangle + \langle RT \rangle - \langle QT \rangle = 2\sqrt{2}$$

Does this actually happen?

YES!!

The 2022 Nobel Prize in Physics was given to Aspect, Clauser, and Zeilinger for "for experiments with entangled photons, establishing the violation of Bell inequalities and pioneering quantum information science".

The E91 Protocol

After Artur Ekert, 1991.

Quantum key distribution protocol similar to BB84, except that eavesdropping is tested with the Bell inequality.

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Say, Alice and Bob take a random portion of their qubits and use them for computing the value of $\mathcal{A}=\langle QS\rangle+\langle RS\rangle+\langle RT\rangle-\langle QT\rangle$:

- if $A \approx 2\sqrt{2}$ then all fine (distil and generate key as BB84);
- else abort (too much eavesdropping or noise).

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Research: can you find other uses of the Bell inequalities?