

# COL7160 : Quantum Computing

## Lecture 2: Qubits

**Instructor:** Rajendra Kumar

**Scribe:** Poojan Shah

## 1 Mathematical Notation

We represent vectors over  $\mathbb{C}^d$  using the *braket*<sup>1</sup> or the *Dirac* notation. A “ket”  $| \cdot \rangle$  represents a  $d$ -dimensional column vector in the vector space over complex number  $\mathbb{C}^d$ :

$$|v\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} v_0 \\ v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_{d-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle v| = (v_0^*, v_1^*, \dots, v_{d-1}^*)$$

Similarly, a “bra” represents a  $d$ -dimensional row vector equal to the complex conjugate of the corresponding ket. We can keep this in mind by writing  $\langle \cdot | = (|\cdot \rangle^*)^\top$ , or equivalently by writing  $\langle \cdot | = |\cdot \rangle^\dagger$ . Here,  $\dagger$  is called the *Hermitian dagger* and it represents the conjugate transpose. For any vector  $|u\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$  we have  $\langle u| = (|u\rangle^*)^\top = |u\rangle^\dagger$ . For matrices we write  $A^\dagger = (A^*)^\top$ .

An *inner product* on the complex vector space  $\mathbb{C}^d$  is a map  $\langle \cdot | \cdot \rangle : \mathbb{C}^d \times \mathbb{C}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  satisfying the following properties for all  $|u\rangle, |v\rangle, |w\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$  and all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ :

1.  $\langle u|v\rangle = \langle v|u\rangle^*$
2.  $\langle u|\alpha v + w\rangle = \alpha \langle u|v\rangle + \langle u|w\rangle$ .
3.  $\langle v|v\rangle \geq 0$ , with equality if and only if  $|v\rangle = 0$ .

Let  $|v_1\rangle = (a_1, \dots, a_d)^\top$  and  $|v_2\rangle = (b_1, \dots, b_d)^\top$ . Then the *standard inner product* on  $\mathbb{C}^d$  is defined by

$$\langle v_1|v_2\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d a_i^* b_i.$$

This can be equivalently written as  $\langle v_1|v_2\rangle = |v_1\rangle^\dagger |v_2\rangle$ . Using the inner product, we can define the length or *norm* of a ket  $|v\rangle = (v_0, \dots, v_d)^\top$  as  $\| |v\rangle \|_2 := \sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d v_i^* v_i} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d |v_i|^2}$ . If  $\| |v\rangle \| = 1$ , we say that  $|v\rangle$  is normalized.

**Example 1.** If  $|v\rangle = (1-i, 0)^\top$  and  $|w\rangle = (2i, 3)^\top$  then  $\langle v|w\rangle = -2 + 2i$ .

**Example 2.** If  $|v\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(1+i, 1-i)^\top$  then  $\| |v\rangle \|_2 = 1$ .

We will use the notation  $|j\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$  for  $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, d-1\}$  to denote the *computational basis vectors*, defined by  $|j\rangle = (0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)^\top$  where the entry 1 appears in the  $j$ -th position and all other entries are zero. Notice that  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |d-1\rangle\}$  forms an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{C}^d$ , satisfying  $\langle i|j\rangle = \delta_{ij}$ . Hence, every vector  $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^d$  can be written uniquely as a linear combination of these basis vectors:

$$|v\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{d-1} v_j |j\rangle,$$

where  $v_j = \langle j|v\rangle$  denotes the  $j$ -th coordinate of  $|v\rangle$  in the computational basis.

---

<sup>1</sup>Recall that in high-school physics we used the  $\vec{\cdot}$  to denote vectors such as  $\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$  or  $\vec{E} = \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{\vec{r}}{\|\vec{r}\|^3}$ . The braket notation can be thought of as a fancy way of doing the same thing

## 2 Quantum Bits

Classically, a bit takes values in  $\{0, 1\}$ . We represent classical bits using vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^2$  by identifying

$$0 \longleftrightarrow |0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad 1 \longleftrightarrow |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

A *quantum bit* or *qubit* can be in any state of the form

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle,$$

where  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$  satisfy

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1.$$

The complex numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are called the *amplitudes* of the qubit.

Thus, a qubit is a normalized vector in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . We therefore identify the *state space of a qubit* with  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

**Example 3.** The states

$$|+\rangle := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle), \quad |-\rangle := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

are valid qubit states.

Notice that  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  are orthonormal and form a basis for  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . This basis is called the *standard basis* or the *computational basis* of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . There are many other orthonormal bases for  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . One important example is the *Hadamard basis*

$$\mathcal{H} = \{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}.$$

**Example 4.** Verify that  $|+\rangle$  and  $|-\rangle$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

*Exercise 1.* Express  $|1\rangle$  in the Hadamard basis, i.e., find  $\alpha, \beta$  such that

$$|1\rangle = \alpha|+\rangle + \beta|-\rangle.$$

## 3 Multiple Qubits

Classically, the state of two bits is given by a string in  $\{00, 01, 10, 11\}$ . Quantum mechanically, the state of two qubits lives in the vector space

$$\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \cong \mathbb{C}^4.$$

The computational basis for two qubits is

$$\{|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle\},$$

where

$$|00\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |01\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |10\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

A *pure state* of two qubits is any normalized vector of the form

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle,$$

where  $\alpha_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}$  and

$$\sum_{i,j \in \{0,1\}} |\alpha_{ij}|^2 = 1.$$

More generally, a pure state of  $n$  qubits is a unit vector in

$$(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n} \cong \mathbb{C}^{2^n},$$

and can be written as

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \alpha_x |x\rangle, \quad \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |\alpha_x|^2 = 1.$$

The vectors  $\{|x\rangle : x \in \{0,1\}^n\}$  form the computational basis for  $n$  qubits.

## Tensor Product

If

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad |\varphi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \varphi_1 \\ \varphi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varphi_n \end{pmatrix},$$

then their tensor product is

$$|\psi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1\varphi_1 \\ \psi_1\varphi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_1\varphi_n \\ \psi_2\varphi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_m\varphi_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{mn}.$$

Let

$$|\psi_A\rangle = \alpha_0 |0\rangle + \alpha_1 |1\rangle, \quad |\psi_B\rangle = \beta_0 |0\rangle + \beta_1 |1\rangle.$$

The joint state of the two systems is given by the *tensor product*

$$|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle = \alpha_0\beta_0 |00\rangle + \alpha_0\beta_1 |01\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_0 |10\rangle + \alpha_1\beta_1 |11\rangle.$$

If  $|u\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{d_1}$  and  $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{d_2}$ , then

$$|u\rangle \otimes |v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{d_1 d_2}.$$

The tensor product satisfies the following properties:

**1. Distributivity:**

$$|u\rangle \otimes (|v\rangle + |w\rangle) = |u\rangle \otimes |v\rangle + |u\rangle \otimes |w\rangle.$$

**2. Associativity:**

$$(|u\rangle \otimes |v\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle = |u\rangle \otimes (|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle).$$

Note that, in general,

$$|u\rangle \otimes |v\rangle \neq |v\rangle \otimes |u\rangle,$$

so the tensor product is *not commutative*.

## Entanglement

**Example 5** (EPR / Bell state). The state

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

is called an *EPR pair* or a *Bell state*.

**Example 6.** Let

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+\rangle|+\rangle + |-\rangle|-\rangle).$$

Then

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

which is an EPR pair.

*Exercise 2.* Show that the EPR state  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$  cannot be written as a tensor product of two single-qubit states.

## References