

States and Ensembles

Hilbert space — vector space over complex numbers having an inner product defining:

$$\textcircled{1} \langle \phi | \phi \rangle > 0 \text{ for } |\phi\rangle \neq 0 \quad \text{Square of distance from origin}$$

$$\textcircled{2} |\phi\rangle^+ (a|\psi_1\rangle + b|\psi_2\rangle) = \langle \phi | (a|\psi_1\rangle + b|\psi_2\rangle)$$

$$= a \langle \phi | \psi_1 \rangle + b \langle \phi | \psi_2 \rangle \quad \text{Linearity}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \langle \phi | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \phi \rangle^* \quad \text{Skew symmetry}$$

- Complete in the norm —  $\| \psi \| = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle^{1/2}$

- an important point in infinite dimensional function spaces (ensures convergence of certain eigenfunction expansions, ex Fourier analysis).

-  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $e^{i\alpha}|\psi\rangle$  are same if  $|e^{i\alpha}| = 1$ .

Observable — a property of the system that can be measured. In quantum mechanics, an adjoint operator is a self-adjoint observable is a self-adjoint operator given by:  ~~$\langle \phi | A | \psi \rangle$~~   $\langle \phi | A | \psi \rangle = \langle \phi | A^+ | \psi \rangle$

- Given A and B are self-adjoint,

$$\textcircled{1} A + B \text{ is self adjoint } (A + B)^+ = A^+ + B^+$$

$$\textcircled{2} (AB)^+ = B^+ A^+ = BA \text{ is self adjoint iff}$$

A and B commute.

- self-adjoint operator has spectral representation its eigenstates form a complete orthonormal basis in the Hilbert space:

$$A = \sum_n a_n P_n$$

$a_n$  = eigenvalue and  $P_n = \langle n | n \rangle$  where  $|n\rangle$  is the corresponding eigenvector if  $a_n$  is nondegenerate  $P_n = |n\rangle \langle n|$  → projection onto the corresponding eigenvector → so the outer product is like a projection. →  $\textcircled{1} P_n = P_n^+ \textcircled{2} P_n \cdot P_m = \delta_{n,m} P_n$

Measurement — numerical value of an observable A after measurement is the eigenvalue  $i$ ; and the state after measurement is the eigenstate  $|i\rangle$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $i$ .

$i$  is measured with probability:  $\| A_i |\psi\rangle \|^2$

(83) square of the norm of the state after application of the eigenstate =  $\langle \psi | A_i | \psi \rangle$

Post-measurement state:  $\frac{A_i |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \psi | A_i | \psi \rangle}}$

- if measurement is repeated again, the state eigenstate comes up with probability 1.

Dynamics -  $\frac{d}{dt} |\psi(t)\rangle = -i H |\psi(t)\rangle$

$H \equiv$  self-adjoint operator called Hamiltonian.

$\rightarrow |\psi(t+dt)\rangle = \frac{(1 - iH dt)}{\downarrow \text{unitary since } H \text{ is self-adjoint}} |\psi(t)\rangle \equiv U(dt)$

Then  $U^\dagger U = I$

$$U = e^{-itH}$$

So what is the difference between a qubit and a classical bit that is probabilistic?

So what is the probabilistic classical bit - if a bit has some definite value 0 or 1 but that is unknown, so now the probability is also  $\frac{1}{2}$  in this case.

Spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ : symmetry is a transformation on the system that leaves all observables unchanged.

- if an observable  $A$  is measured in the state

$|\psi\rangle$ , it occurs with the probability  $|\langle a | \psi \rangle|^2$

$|a\rangle \equiv$  an outcome / an eigenvector of  $A$

Symmetry: mapping of vectors in the Hilbert space

$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\psi'\rangle$  that preserves absolute values of the inner products -  $|\langle \psi | \phi \rangle| = |\langle \psi' | \phi' \rangle|$  for all

$|\phi\rangle$  and  $|\psi\rangle$ . A famous theorem by Wigner states

that such a mapping can also always be chosen

to be unitary or anti-unitary, such that:

$|\psi'\rangle = U |\psi\rangle$  where  $U$  can be unitary (and

linear) or anti-unitary.

- Symmetries form a group.  
initial  $\xrightarrow{\text{dynamics}}$  final

rotation  $\xrightarrow{\text{new initial}}$  new final

dynamics

The time evolution operator commutes with symmetry

(83)  $U(R) e^{-itH} = e^{-itH} U(R)$  - where  $U(R)$  is a symmetry transformation.

$\Rightarrow U(R) H = H U(R)$  - linear order in time

- For continuous symmetry,  $R$  is very close to  $I$

$$U = I - i\varepsilon Q + O(\varepsilon^2) \text{ since } R = I + \varepsilon T$$

$U$  is unitary  $\Rightarrow Q$  is an observable. or  $Q = Q^\dagger$

$\Rightarrow$  Expanding to linear order in  $\varepsilon$ ,  $[Q, H] = 0$  somewhat like Poisson brackets.  $\hookrightarrow$  conservation law

$[Q, H] = 0 \Rightarrow$  if we prepare an eigenstate of  $Q$ , then time evolution by Schrödinger's equation preserves that eigenstate.

- Some abstract math here, but the sense that comes out is -

To implement rotations on a quantum system, self-adjoint operators  $J_x, J_y, J_z$  are found in the Hilbert space satisfying the symmetry relations

$$J_x = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_x); J_y = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_y); J_z = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma_z)$$

where  $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$  are Pauli matrices.

Eigenvalues of  $J_k = \pm \frac{1}{2}$

Return to this section some time later

Measuring the spin along  $\hat{n}$  is equivalent to rotating the system and measuring along  $\hat{z}$ .

For instance,  $|\uparrow_x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow_z\rangle + |\downarrow_z\rangle)$  if rotation allowed

and  $|\downarrow_x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow_z\rangle - |\downarrow_z\rangle)$ . Measuring along  $z$  axis

we get  $|\uparrow_z\rangle$  and  $|\downarrow_z\rangle$  with equal probability.

Now  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow_x\rangle + |\downarrow_x\rangle)$ . Measurement along  $z$ -axis giving

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow_z\rangle + |\downarrow_z\rangle) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow_z\rangle - |\downarrow_z\rangle)\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot |\uparrow_z\rangle = |\uparrow_z\rangle \quad (\text{quantum interference is at the root of all this!})$$

(84) Photon polarization - discussions on Poincaré groups

Density matrix - bipartite quantum system

The postulates of quantum mechanics give the rendering of the entire universe. If a part of it is considered, they tend to fail:

① states are no longer vectors.

② transformation  $L$  is no longer unitary

③ measurements are NOT orthogonal projections

ex observing one qubit in a system of 2 qubits.

Let the orthonormal basis be  $\{|0\rangle_A, |1\rangle_A\}$  and  $\{|0\rangle_B, |1\rangle_B\}$  — that means the Hilbert spaces of individual qubits are still separate. The quantum system is then a composite of these:

$$|\Psi\rangle_{AB} = a|0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B + b|1\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B \quad ]$$

$$\text{or } |\Psi\rangle_{AB} = [a(|0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B) + b(|1\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B)] \quad - \text{Page 76-}$$

$$\text{or } |\Psi\rangle_{AB} = |0\rangle_A \otimes a|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A \otimes b|1\rangle_B$$

or  $|\Psi\rangle_{AB}$  is correlated in this state.

A and B are correlated in this state.

Measuring A —

①  $|0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B$  with probability  $|a|^2$  / So outcomes are perfectly correlated

②  $|1\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B$  with probability  $|b|^2$  in this case.

Considering a more complex observable —  $M \otimes I$

such that M is a self-adjoint operator on A and

I is identity operator on I given by

$$M \otimes I = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11}I & m_{12}I & \dots & m_{1n}I \\ \vdots & & & \\ m_{n1}I & m_{n2}I & \dots & m_{nn}I \end{bmatrix}$$

Expectation of an observable M on  $\Psi = \langle \Psi | M | \Psi \rangle$  or probability

$$\text{Thus } \langle \Psi | M \otimes I | \Psi \rangle = [a^* \langle 0|_A \otimes \langle 0|_B + b^* \langle 1|_A \otimes \langle 1|_B]$$

$$(M \otimes I) [a|0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B + b|1\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B]$$

$$(M \otimes I)(|w\rangle \otimes |u\rangle) = A|w\rangle \otimes I|u\rangle$$

$$= [\dots] [a M|0\rangle_A \otimes I|0\rangle_B + b M|1\rangle_A \otimes I|1\rangle_B]$$

$$= [a^* a \langle 0|_A M|0\rangle_A \otimes \langle 0|_B I|0\rangle_B + b^* b \langle 1|_A M|1\rangle_A \otimes \langle 1|_B I|1\rangle_B]$$

$$= |a|^2 \langle 0|_A M|0\rangle_A + |b|^2 \langle 1|_A M|1\rangle_A$$

$$(85) \quad \langle M_A \rangle = \frac{1}{\text{Trace}} \text{Tr}(M_A \rho_A) \quad \rho_A = |a|^2 |0\rangle_A \langle 0|_A + |b|^2 |1\rangle_A \langle 1|_A$$

density matrix formalism  
-  $\rho_A$  :: density operator - self-adjoint, positive (eigenvalues are nonnegative) and has unit trace.

In general, considering two Hilbert spaces  $H_a$  and  $H_b$  and the composite system  $H_a \otimes H_b$ , the expectation of any observable  $M$  is given by :

$\langle M \rangle = \text{tr}(M \rho)$  where  $\rho$  is the density operator given by :

$\rho = \sum_a p_a |\psi_a\rangle \langle \psi_a|$  where  $|\psi_a\rangle$  is a pure state acting one on subsystem and comes with probability  $p_a$  where  $p_a = a a^*$  where  $a$  is the amplitude;

- If  $\rho$  is composed of only one state (it is pure and constitutes a vector),  $\rho^2 = \rho$ .

$|\psi_a\rangle \langle \psi_a|$  will then be a projection on the 1-D subspace spanned by  $|\psi_a\rangle$  and  $p_a = 1$

- More than 2 terms in the summation  $\Rightarrow$   $\rho$  is an incoherent superposition of states  $|\psi_a\rangle$

Relative phases of  $|\psi_a\rangle$  are inaccessible, or they are entangled (if some other subsystem exists).

- entanglement destroys the coherence of the superposition of states of A, such that some phases are inaccessible looking at A alone.

Bloch sphere — Note that  $\sigma_x$ ,  $\sigma_y$ , and  $\sigma_z$  are traceless. The most general self-adjoint matrix can be expanded in the basis  $\{I, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z\}$

$$\rho(\vec{P}) = \frac{1}{2} (I + \vec{P} \cdot \vec{\sigma}) = \frac{1}{2} (I + P_1 \sigma_x + P_2 \sigma_y + P_3 \sigma_z)$$

$$\rho(\vec{P}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 + P_3 & P_1 - iP_2 \\ P_1 + iP_2 & 1 - P_3 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \det(\rho) = \frac{1}{4} (1 - \vec{P}^2)$$

$$|\vec{P}| = 1 \text{ for pure state} \\ < 1 \text{ for mixed state.}$$

(85) Necessary and sufficient condition for  $\rho$  to have nonnegative eigenvalues -  $\vec{P}^2 \leq I$  or  $\det \rho \geq 0$   
 Thus there is a 1-1 correspondence between the possible density matrices of a single qubit and a unit 3-ball called the Bloch sphere. Such that  $0 \leq |\vec{P}| \leq 1$ .

The boundary of the sphere contains density matrices of vanishing determinant (since at boundary  $|\vec{P}| = 1$  and  $\det \rho = 0$ )  
 Skipped parts beyond my mathematical intuition.

Gleason's theorem - density matrix is a very general feature of a broader framework.  
 — starts with the understanding that quantum mechanics must assign probabilities to each orthogonal projection in the Hilbert space (i.e. the state of a quantum system is a mapping from an orthogonal projection to a non-negative real number such that):

$$E \rightarrow p(E); \quad 0 \leq p(E) \leq 1$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad p(0) = 0 \quad \textcircled{2} \quad p(1) = 1$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \text{if } E_1, E_2 = 0, \text{ then } p(E_1 + E_2) = p(E_1) + p(E_2)$$

① - there is always an outcome; ② all probs. add up to 1. ③ → if  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are orthogonal, probabilities are additive.

Theorem:  $p(E) = \text{tr}(\rho E)$   $\rho$  is a Hermitian positive  $\rho$ .

as long as dimension  $> 2$   
 — in 2 dimensions, things are simpler since there are not enough orthogonal projections. All non-trivial projections can be represented as:

$$E(\hat{n}) = \frac{1}{2}(I + \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma})$$

(87) Evolution of density operator

Assumption - the subsystems are not coupled by the Hamiltonians, so they still evolve independently  $\rightarrow$  Base

Given as  $H_A \otimes H_B = H_A \otimes I_B + I_A \otimes H_B$ . Time evolution operator  $e^{-iHt}$

A state can be represented as:

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle_{AB} = \sum_{i,j,u} a_{iu} |i(t)\rangle_A \otimes |\mu(t)\rangle_B$$

Such that  $|i(t)\rangle_A = U_A(t) |i(0)\rangle_A$  and

$$|\mu(t)\rangle_B = U_B(t) |\mu(0)\rangle_B$$

independent basis evolution as before.

Partial trace:  $\rho_A(t) = \sum_{i,j,u} a_{iu}^* |i(t)\rangle_A \langle j(t)|_A$

But it doesn't matter. They are diff...

$|i(t)\rangle_A \langle j(t)|_A$  is a projection and shall be 0

when  $i \neq j$ .  $\leftarrow$  There is no such assumption of

$$\rho_A(t) = U_A(t) \rho_A(0) U_A(t)^+$$

, Similar partial trace for  $\rho_B(t)$ .

Case:  $\rho_A(0)$  is diagonal, it is possible to

represent  $\sum_a p_a |\psi_A\rangle \langle \psi_A|$  or the fact that the pure states are orthogonal at least (and may be orthonormal; i don't know).

Schmidt decomposition:

Concept of Partial trace - any density matrix can be decomposed as (on  $H_A \otimes H_B$ )

$$\rho_{AB} = \sum_{ijkl} c_{ijkl} |a_i\rangle \langle a_j| \otimes |b_k\rangle \langle b_l|$$

$\{a_i\}$  is the orthonormal basis of  $H_A$  and  $\{b_i\}$  is the orthonormal basis of  $H_B$ .

$\text{tr}_B(\rho_{AB})$  = a density matrix in  $H_A$  given by

$$= \sum_{ijkl} c_{ijkl} |a_i\rangle \langle a_j| \langle b_l| k_l \rangle$$

88) Back to Preskill - Arbitrary vector in  $H_A \otimes H_B$  can be written as  $\sum_{ij} a_{ij} |i\rangle_A \otimes |j\rangle_B = \sum_i |i\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$

where  $|\tilde{i}\rangle_B = \sum_j a_{ij} |j\rangle_B$  need not be mutually orthogonal after all. where  $a_{ij}$  are amplitudes.

- If  $\{|i\rangle_A\}$  is the orthogonal and orthonormal basis such that  $\rho_A$  is diagonal:

$$\rho_A = \sum_i p_i |i\rangle_A \langle i|_A \text{ where } p_i \text{ is the probability.}$$

Computing  $\rho_A$  by a partial trace:  $\rho_A = \text{tr}_B (|\psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi|_{AB})$ ,

$$\text{where } |\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_{ij} c_{ij} |i\rangle_A |j\rangle_B$$

$$\text{Thus } |\psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi|_{AB} = \sum_{ijkl} c_{ij} |i\rangle_A \langle k|_A \otimes |j\rangle_B \langle l|_B$$

$$\text{tr}_B (|\psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi|_{AB}) = \sum_{ijkl} c_{ij} \langle l|_B \cdot |i\rangle_A \langle k|_A \quad \begin{matrix} \text{Best to let} \\ \text{these variables} \\ \text{be all separate} \end{matrix}$$

Equating both -  $\rho_A = \sum_{ijkl} c_{ij} \langle l|_B |i\rangle_A \langle k|_A = p_i |i\rangle_A \langle i|_A$

or  $p_i |i\rangle_A \langle i|_A = p_i \delta_{ij} |i\rangle_A \langle j|_A$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{c_{ij} \langle l|_B} = p_i \delta_{ij} \quad \text{or as Preskill did} \\ - \langle \tilde{j}|_B = p_i \delta_{ij}$$

$\Rightarrow |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$  and  $|j\rangle_B$  are orthogonal after all

Normalizing them:  $|i'\rangle_B = p^{-1/2} |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$ . Placing back;

any arbitrary vector in  $H_A \otimes H_B$  can be written

as  $\sum_i |i\rangle_A \otimes p^{-1/2} |i'\rangle_B$  (Schmidt decomposition)  
of particular orthonormal basis.

A comparison of traces from  $\rho_A$  from definition and partial trace yielded the decomposition result.

- It is easy to see the orthonormal bases used for  $H_A \otimes H_B$  will be different for different vector states  $|\psi_A\rangle_{AB}$  and  $|\phi_A\rangle_{AB}$  because of their different amplitudes..

(89) Partial trace over  $H_A$  - or  $\rho_B$ . The given arbitrary state:  $|\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_{i,j} c_{ij} |i\rangle_A \otimes |j\rangle_B$ .

Then  $|\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_{i,j} |i\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$ .  $\leftarrow$  Preskill's method.

Job is to normalize this new basis; for which we compare  $\rho_B$  from 2 sources - definition and partial trace.

$$\text{Def: } \rho_B = \sum_{ij} p_{ij} |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{j}|_B \cdot \delta_{ij}$$

$$\text{Trace - } \frac{|\psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi|_{AB}}{\text{state}} = \sum_{i,j} |i\rangle_A \langle j|_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{j}|_B$$

$$\therefore \rho_B = \text{tr}_A (|\psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \psi|_{AB})$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_B = \sum_{ij} \langle j|i\rangle_A |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{j}|_B$$

$$\text{Comparing} - \langle j|i\rangle_A |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{j}|_B = p_{ij} \cdot \delta_{ij}$$

or  $|\tilde{i}\rangle_B$  is indeed <sup>ortho.</sup> normal.

$$\text{Final form} - |\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_{ij} \sqrt{p_{ij}} |i\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$$

$$\text{such that } |\tilde{i}\rangle_B = \sqrt{p_{ij}}^{-1} |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$$

$$\rho_A = \sum_i p_i |i\rangle_A \langle i|_A \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_B = \sum_i p_i |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{i}|_B$$

- same non-zero eigenvalues. Number of zero eigenvalues may be different as  $H_A$  and  $H_B$  might have different dimensions.

Process - if there is no degenerate eigenvalue in  $\rho_A$  or  $\rho_B$ ,

① find eigenstates of  $\rho_A$  and  $\rho_B$

② diagonalize  $\rho_A$  and  $\rho_B$  to find  $|i\rangle_A$  and  $|\tilde{i}\rangle_B$ .

③ Pair eigenstates with same eigenvalue to obtain the decomposition.

q) Entanglement — Schmidt decomposition theorem —  
 Consider 2 Hilbert spaces  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ , and  
 the orthonormal bases  $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_m\} \in H_1$  and  
 $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\} \in H_2$ , and dimension of  $H_2 = n$   
 dimension of  $H_1 = m$ . Then any vector  $y$  in  $H_1 \otimes H_2$ :

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i w_i \otimes x_i \text{ where } \alpha_i \text{ is uniquely determined by } y.$$

So it is like expressing a vector in same number of orthonormal vectors, and refer to the point that says  $\rho_A$  and  $\rho_B$  have same non-zero eigenvalues. These  $m$  vectors must be the eigenvectors corresponding to those  $m$  eigenvalues.

The reason to do  $\sum_{ij} c_{ij} |i\rangle_A \otimes |j\rangle_B \rightarrow \sum_i c_i |i\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$   
 was to reduce the system to one variable, hence ensuring same number of orthonormal vectors are considered in both  $H_A$  and  $H_B$ .

Entanglement — entangled if the Schmidt no. is more than 1.

→ eigenvalue? (Yes)  
 $- |\psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_i \sqrt{p_i} |i\rangle_A \otimes |\tilde{i}\rangle_B$  is a non-entangled state if the Schmidt number is 1, or we can take a pure state in  $H_A$  and an impure state in  $H_B$  and depict  $|\psi\rangle_{AB}$  as a tensor product of the two.

Also if  $|\psi\rangle_{AB}$  is non-entangled;  $\rho_A = 1 \cdot |i\rangle_A \langle i|_A$

and  $\rho_B = 1 \cdot |\tilde{i}\rangle_B \langle \tilde{i}|_B$

Entanglement can never be created within a subsystem. Note CORRELATIONS  $\neq$  ENTANGLEMENT.  
 Correlations can exist even in non-entangled states.  $|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B$  are also correlated —  $\langle 00 \rangle$  is correlated; but  $|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B$  are also correlated.  $|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B$  can be prepared without ever interacting.

example of entangled state —  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B)$

(91) Ambiguity of ensemble representation -

① Convexity - density operator  $\rho$  - self-adjoint, unit trace, and non-negative (or has non-negative eigenvalues).

Consider a convex linear combination of 2 density matrices  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ :

$$\rho(\lambda) = \lambda \rho_1 + (1-\lambda) \rho_2 \text{ where } 0 \leq \lambda \leq 1.$$

To check if  $\rho(\lambda)$  is non-negative -  $\langle \psi | \rho(\lambda) | \psi \rangle$

$$= \langle \psi | (\lambda \rho_1 + (1-\lambda) \rho_2) | \psi \rangle = \lambda \langle \psi | \rho_1 | \psi \rangle + (1-\lambda) \langle \psi | \rho_2 | \psi \rangle$$

and  $\geq 0$ , since  $\langle \psi | \rho_i | \psi \rangle \geq 0$  and

$$\langle \psi | \rho_2 | \psi \rangle \geq 0.$$

- A set of a vector space is convex if the set contains the straight line segment connecting any 2 points on the set.

- Most density operators can be expressed as the convex sum of other density operators, but not pure states. Consider  $\rho = \frac{|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|}{\langle\psi|\psi\rangle}$

$\rho = |\phi\rangle\langle\phi|$  where  $|\phi\rangle$  is a vector. Let  $|\psi\rangle$  be orthogonal to  $|\phi\rangle$ .

Assuming  $\rho$  can be expressed as a convex sum:

$$\rho = \lambda \rho_1 + (1-\lambda) \rho_2$$

① self-adjoint ② unit trace follows immediately

③ is positive -  $\langle \psi | \rho | \psi \rangle = \lambda \underbrace{\langle \psi | \rho_1 | \psi \rangle}_{=0} + (1-\lambda) \underbrace{\langle \psi | \rho_2 | \psi \rangle}_{\text{non-negative}}$

This is possible iff  $\rho_1 = \rho_2$

or it is impossible to express a density operator formed from pure state as a convex sum of  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ . Such vectors are called extremal points. Only the pure states are extremal, because all others can be represented as

$\sum_i p_i |i\rangle\langle i|$  in the basis where  $\rho$  is diagonal,

and so is a convex of pure states.

Q1) Ensemble preparation - Consider  $\rho(\lambda) = \lambda \rho_1 + (1-\lambda) \rho_2$  and interpret the following:

$$\langle M \rangle = \lambda \langle M \rangle_1 + (1-\lambda) \langle M \rangle_2 \quad \text{where } \rho_i \text{ is prep.}$$

$$= \lambda \text{tr}(M\rho_1) + (1-\lambda) \text{tr}(M\rho_2) \quad \text{with prob. } \lambda$$

$$\langle M \rangle = \text{tr}(M \rho(\lambda)) \quad (1-\lambda)$$

Hence expectation value is indistinguishable whether  $\rho(\lambda)$  was prepared first or  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  were.

There are infinite ways to express  $\rho$  as a convex sum of  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ , and thus the ambiguity. But pure states are non-ambiguous.

How ambiguous is a mixed state? or in how many ways can  $\rho$  be written as a sum of the eigenstates/pure states/extremals? → but eigenstates ≠ pure states

Maximally mixed state of a qubit:  $\rho = \frac{1}{2} I$

can be  $\rho = \frac{1}{2} (| \uparrow \rangle_z \langle \uparrow |_z + | \downarrow \rangle_z \langle \downarrow |_z)$  or  $\frac{1}{2} (| \uparrow \rangle_x \langle \uparrow |_x + | \downarrow \rangle_x \langle \downarrow |_x)$

There is absolutely no way to know,

just by measuring spin of the system.

Recall the Bloch ball equation  $\rho = \frac{1}{2} (I + \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\sigma})$

the center yields  $\rho = \frac{1}{2} I$  (Maximally mixed state of the qubit). This could be reached by several ways (2 enumerated above).

- This ambiguous nature contrasts with the classical probability distribution.

### Faster than light

Consider a state  $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B)$ . It is

clearly an entangled state. Then:

$$|\psi\rangle \langle \psi| = \frac{1}{2} (|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B) (\langle 1|_A \langle 1|_B + \langle 1|_A \langle 1|_B)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (|1\rangle_A |1\rangle_B \langle 1|_A \langle 1|_B + \text{same})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (|1\rangle_A \langle 1|_A \otimes |1\rangle_B \langle 1|_B + |1\rangle_A \langle 1|_A \otimes |1\rangle_B \langle 1|_B)$$

$$\rho = \text{tr}(|\psi\rangle \langle \psi|) = \frac{1}{2} (\langle 1|_A |1\rangle_A + \langle 1|_B |1\rangle_B) = I$$

orthonormal, hence  $= I$

(93)  $P_A = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow\rangle_A \langle \uparrow|_A + |\downarrow\rangle_A \langle \downarrow|_A)$ . This  $P_A$  is same whether for  $\{|\uparrow_x\rangle, |\downarrow_x\rangle\}$  or  $\{|\uparrow_z\rangle, |\downarrow_z\rangle\}$ .

So if several copies of  $|\Psi\rangle_{AB}$  are prepared, and Alice and Bob sit with A and B respectively, if Bob measures his, he causes A to collapse. Same.

Now Alice measures along z-axis...

I can't quite see through the math here, but Bob needs to send classical info to Alice so she could determine things, else there are 2 ensembles with exactly the same  $P_A$ .

The possibility is that I am confusing one qubit math with a 2 qubit ensemble. In one qubit, measuring along z gives ~~to~~ always  $|\uparrow_z\rangle$  when  $|\uparrow_x\rangle$  and  $|\downarrow_x\rangle$  is used for preparation. But not here. Hence things are entangled, and hence queer.

$$\text{Suppose original ensemble is : } |\Psi\rangle_{AB} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A |\uparrow_z\rangle_B + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A |\downarrow_z\rangle_B) \\ |\Psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \Psi|_{AB} = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A |\uparrow_z\rangle_B + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A |\downarrow_z\rangle_B)^\dagger (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_z|_B + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_z|_B) \\ = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_z|_A \otimes |\uparrow_z\rangle_B \langle \uparrow_z|_B + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_z|_A \otimes |\downarrow_z\rangle_B \langle \downarrow_z|_B)$$

$$P_A = \text{tr}_B (|\Psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \Psi|_{AB}) = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_z|_A + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_z|_A)$$

$$\text{Similarly } P_A' = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_x\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_x|_A + |\downarrow_x\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_x|_A)$$

Recall that  $|\uparrow_x\rangle_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A)$  and

$$|\downarrow_x\rangle_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A - |\downarrow_z\rangle_A)$$

$$\therefore (\uparrow_x\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_x|_A = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_z|_A + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_z|_A))$$

$$(\downarrow_x\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_x|_A = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle_A \langle \downarrow_z|_A + |\downarrow_z\rangle_A \langle \uparrow_z|_A))$$

Hence implied  $P_A' = P_A$ . Thus Alice can't distinguish

94) Quantum erasure - coherent and incoherent superpositions are concepts detailing if the spin/phase is observable or not.

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbb{I}) \leftarrow \text{incoherent}; |\uparrow_z, \downarrow_z\rangle = \frac{1}{2} (|\uparrow_z\rangle \pm |\downarrow_z\rangle)$$

= coherent where the phase is observable.

Incoherence comes from entanglement with another spin, rendering that spin inaccessible. Two questions - why and how?

Why - coherence & has everything to do with interference, and interference is destroyed on measurement. Being entangled with B opens a possibility of measuring A through B, thereby destroying interference.

How - Consider a non-entangled state -  $|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle$  or their Gram Schmidt decomposition has just 1 term, then it is possible to recover information from M  $\otimes$  the system using something like

$$M \otimes I \text{ as } (M \otimes I)\{|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle\} = M|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle.$$

Now consider an entangled state -  $\frac{1}{2}[|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle + |\psi_A'\rangle \otimes |\psi_B'\rangle]$

$$\text{Application of } M \otimes I = \frac{1}{2} [M|\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle + M|\psi_A'\rangle \otimes |\psi_B'\rangle]$$

and hence no information.

Quantum erasure is the restoration of coherence through some procedure after decoherence by entanglement.

Alice's spin is entangled with Bob's. So it is in incoherent superposition with that of the pure states  $|\uparrow_z\rangle_A$  and  $|\downarrow_z\rangle_A$ . Now Bob measures his state along  $x$  and doesn't look at it. So the information is erased, and Alice's state goes back to coherence.

Q. If Alice can recover pure states from mix.

then how is  $\rho_A$  a complete description of the subsystem?

(95) they are simply different. The ensemble where Alice doesn't know is diff. from the ensemble where Alice receives information.

GHJW theorem — Generalization of quantum erasure  
 - a mixed state may be realized as an ensemble of pure states in an  $\infty$  number of ways. For a density matrix, consider one such:

$$\rho_A = \sum_i p_i |\phi_i\rangle_A \langle \phi_i|_A \text{ such that } \sum_i p_i = 1$$

where  $\{\phi_i\}$  are non normalized vectors.  
 do not assume they are mutually orthogonal.

Then a purification leads to a bipartite pure state  $|\Psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_i \sqrt{p_i} |\phi_i\rangle_A |\alpha_i\rangle_B$

where  $\{\phi_i\} \in \mathcal{H}_A$  and  $\{\alpha_i\} \in \mathcal{H}_B$  are or  
mutually orthonormal.  $\rightarrow$  pure state meaning.

$$\text{Then } \text{tr}_B(|\Psi\rangle_{AB} \langle \Psi|_{AB}) = \rho_A$$

A measurement in B projects the system to an eigenvector  $\alpha_i$  causing  $\rho_A$  to be pure  $= |\phi_i\rangle \langle \phi_i|$  since they were entangled.  
 Thus a pure state can be found in a mixed state.

Interesting — purification leading to  $\{\alpha_i\}$  may be such that  $\{\alpha_i\}$  do not span  $\mathcal{H}_B$ , but measurement outcomes orthogonal to  $\{\alpha_i\}$  never occur.

Now consider another realization of  $\rho_A$

$$\rho_A = \sum_i q_i |\psi_i\rangle_A \langle \psi_i|_A$$

$$\text{Purification: } |\Psi\rangle_{AB} = \sum_i \sqrt{q_i} |\psi_i\rangle_A |\beta_i\rangle_B$$

$$|\Psi\rangle_{AB} = (I_A \otimes U_B) |\Psi\rangle_{AB}$$

(96) the two states differ by a unitary change of basis in B alone.

Relation to Schmidt decomposition:

$$|\Psi_1\rangle_{AB} = \sum_k \sqrt{\lambda_k} |k\rangle_A |k'\rangle_B \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \lambda_k = \text{eigenvalues} \\ \text{of } \rho_A \text{ - and} \\ |\kappa\rangle_A = \text{eigenvectors.} \end{array} \right.$$
$$|\Psi_2\rangle_{AB} = \sum_k \sqrt{\lambda_k} |k\rangle_A |k_2'\rangle_B$$

and  $|k'\rangle$  and  $|k_2'\rangle$  are 2 orthonormal bases in  $\mathcal{H}_B$ , and thus  $|k'\rangle_B = U_B |k_2'\rangle_B$  or a unitary basis change transformation.

How things finally work -

in  $\rho_A = \sum_i p_i \langle \Psi_i \rangle_A \langle \Psi_i |_A$ , the relative phases are inaccessible as system A is entangled with system B, the state being:

$|\Psi_1\rangle_{AB} = \sum_k \sqrt{\lambda_k} |k\rangle_A |k'\rangle_B$ . So measuring B gives info about A, making A incoherent.

But:  $|\Psi_2\rangle_{AB} = \sum_k \sqrt{\lambda_k} |k\rangle_A |k_2'\rangle_B$  makes things interesting, as now info can be found by measuring in B and relaying information. Now we can extract one of the pure states from the ensemble.

Information is physical - info acquired by measuring B, when relayed to A changes the physical description of state of A.