Quantum Computing Basics: Qubits and Quantum Gates

Basis set of a two-dimensional vector space

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0 \end{bmatrix}; \ |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

Qubit = vector

$$|\psi(\theta,\phi)\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)|0\rangle + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)e^{i\phi}|1\rangle; \ \theta \in [0,\pi], \phi \in [0,2\pi]$$
 (2)

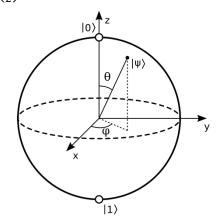


Fig. 1: Bloch sphere representation of a qubit.

(Example)

Classical bits: $|\psi(0,0)\rangle = |0\rangle; |\psi(\pi,0)\rangle = |1\rangle$

Superposed states:
$$\left|\psi(\frac{\pi}{2},0)\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\left|0\right\rangle + \left|1\right\rangle); \left|\psi(\frac{\pi}{2},\pi)\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\left|0\right\rangle - \left|1\right\rangle)$$

Quantum gate = matrix

Pauli X (NOT) gate

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},\tag{3}$$

thus

$$X|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = |1\rangle; X|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle. \tag{4}$$

Hadamard (H) gate

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \tag{5}$$

thus

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}; H|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}. \tag{6}$$

Two-qubit state = tensor product

$$|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = |x\rangle |y\rangle = |xy\rangle = (x = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle)(y = c|0\rangle + d|1\rangle) = ac|00\rangle + ad|01\rangle + bc|10\rangle + bd|11\rangle.$$
 (7)

Flat vector representation of tensor product uses the following basis set

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} = |00\rangle; \begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\0\\0 \end{bmatrix} = |01\rangle; \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\1\\0 \end{bmatrix} = |10\rangle; \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix} = |11\rangle$$

$$(8)$$

and thus

$$\begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} c \\ d \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ac \\ ad \\ bc \\ bd \end{bmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} 00 = 0 \\ 101 = 1 \\ 10 = 2 \end{vmatrix}$$
(9)

Both binary and decimal indices are shown for the flat vector representation of the tensor-product state in Eq. (9).

Two-qubit gate: Controlled NOT (CNOT or controlled X) $|x\rangle|y\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{CNOT}} \text{CNOT} \begin{pmatrix} \text{control qubit target qubit} \\ \widehat{|x\rangle} & \widehat{y\rangle} \end{pmatrix} = |x\rangle|x \oplus y\rangle , \qquad \frac{x}{0} \xrightarrow{y} \xrightarrow{x \oplus y} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & y & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & \neg y & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ (10)

where \bigoplus is the logical exclusive OR operator (defined by the truth table, in which \neg is the logical negation operator), or more specifically

$$CNOT(|00\rangle) = |00\rangle; CNOT(|01\rangle) = |01\rangle; CNOT(|10\rangle) = |11\rangle; CNOT(|11\rangle) = |10\rangle;$$
 (11)

Matrix notation of CNOT

$$U_{\text{CNOT}} = \begin{bmatrix} 00 & 01 & 10 & 11 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} 00 \\ 01 \\ 10 \\ 11 \end{array} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix}, \tag{12}$$

where I is the 2×2 identity matrix. The last notation represents the 4×4 matrix as 2×2 blocks, with each block being a 2×2 matrix.

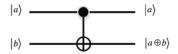


Fig. 2: Operation of CNOT gate.

In Eq. (12), the most least significant bit in a binary matrix row or column index (i.e., 00, 01, 10, 11) specifies inter intra-block index for the first second qubit.

Circuit example (try it at https://quantum-computing.ibm.com using Composer)

This circuit generates a correlated 2-qubit state, $(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$, called Bell state.

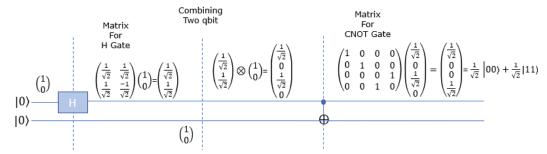


Fig. 3: Hadamard and CNOT gates example.

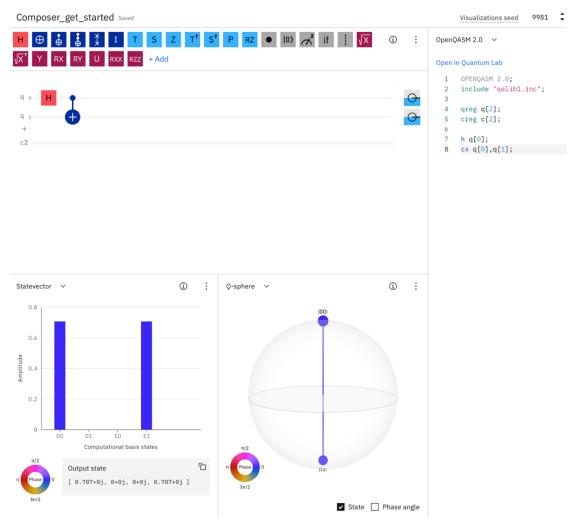


Fig. 4: Hadamard and CNOT gates example using IBM Q Composer.

Q-sphere (it's not the 1-qubit Bloch sphere) visually represents a state of $n \leq 5$ qubits. The north south pole signifies the state where all qubits are $0|1 (e.g., |000\rangle||111\rangle$, and the latitude is the Hamming distance from the all-zero state (i.e., how many qubits are not zero).

Tensor product of one-qubit quantum gates (matrices)

Consider quantum gates A and B independently operating on the first and second qubits:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}; B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{11}b_{12} & a_{12}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{12} \\ a_{11}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{22} & a_{12}b_{21} & a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} & a_{21}b_{12} & a_{22}b_{11} & a_{22}b_{12} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{22} & a_{22}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$
(13)

See Appendix for detailed explanation of Eq. (13).

This circuit transforms a pure state to a superposition of all possible states, which is a way to achieve quantum parallelism, e.g., $H \otimes H |00\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle)$.

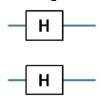


Fig. 5: An example tensor product of quantum operators.

(Application for quantum circuit reduction)

$$\Lambda = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ H & -H \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ H & -H \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} H & HX \\ H & -HX \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ H & -H \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} I + HXH & I - HXH \\ I - HXH & I + HXH \end{bmatrix}$$
(15)

Fig. 6: Quantum circuit Λ in Eq. (15).

Here, we have used the identity,

$$H^{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I, \tag{16}$$

i.e., H is a symmetric orthogonal matrix ($H = H^T$ and $H^TH = HH^T = I$).

In Eq. (15),

$$HXH = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = Z, \quad (17)$$

where Z denotes Pauli Z gate.

Substituting Eq. (17) to (15), we obtain

$$\Lambda = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ H & -H \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ 0 & X \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H & H \\ H & -H \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} I+Z & I-Z \\ I-Z & I+Z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 00 & 01 & 10 & 11 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 00 \\ 01 \\ 10 \\ 11 \end{bmatrix}$$
(18)

where we have used the relation

$$\frac{1}{2}(I \pm Z) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \pm 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \mp 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (19)

Equation (18) states that

$$\Lambda|00\rangle = |00\rangle; \ \Lambda|10\rangle = |10\rangle; \ \Lambda|01\rangle = |11\rangle; \ \Lambda|11\rangle = |01\rangle \tag{20}$$

or

$$\Lambda(x,y) = x \oplus y, y \tag{21}$$

which is CNOT gate, where the second qubit acts as the conditional qubit. Graphically, thus

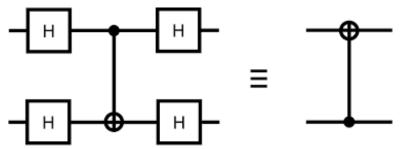


Fig. 7: Quantum-circuit equivalence.

Measurement gate

Measurement operator M projects a qubit $|\psi\rangle$ to the Z basis, *i.e.*, eigenvectors $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ with corresponding eigenvalues 1 and -1.

$$M|\psi\rangle = |z\rangle\langle z|\psi\rangle = \psi(z)|z\rangle$$
 (22)

Each measurement gate irreversibly returns the measured value, z = 0 or 1, with the probability

$$\langle \psi | M | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | z \rangle \langle z | \psi \rangle = | \psi (z) |^2 = P(z). \tag{23}$$

Measurement example (try it at https://quantum-computing.ibm.com using Composer)

Consider a two-qubit circuit, where both qubits (named q_0 and q_1) are initialized to $|0\rangle$ by default. This is simply the equivalent circuit in Fig. 7, after q_1 was flipped to $|1\rangle$. The CNOT gate conditional to q_1 then flips q_1 to $|1\rangle$. The measurements thus show both qubits are 100% in $|1\rangle$, as $\Lambda|01\rangle = |11\rangle$ shown in Eq. (20).

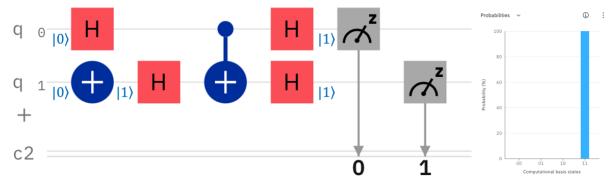


Fig. 8: (Left) Operation of the equivalent quantum circuit in Fig. 7 to qubits. (Right) Resulting probability distribution produced by IBM Q Composer.











Fig. 9: Symbols for Pauli X (NOT), Pauli Z, Hadamard (H), conditional not (CNOT) and measurement gates used in IBM Q Composer.

OpenQASM and Qiskit programs (see the code panel in Composer)

```
OPENOASM 2.0:
                                              from qiskit import QuantumRegister,
include "gelib1.inc";
                                              ClassicalRegister, QuantumCircuit
                                              from numpy import pi
qreg q[2];
creg c[2];
                                              qreg_q = QuantumRegister(2, 'q')
                                              creg_c = ClassicalRegister(2, 'c')
                                              circuit = QuantumCircuit(greg g, creg c)
h q[0];
\times q[1];
h q[1];
                                              circuit.h(greg q[0])
cx q[0], q[1];
                                              circuit.x(qreg_q[1])
h q[0];
                                              circuit.h(qreg_q[1])
h q[1];
                                              circuit.cx(qreg_q[0], qreg_q[1])
                                              circuit.h(qreg_q[0])
measure q[0] \rightarrow c[0];
measure q[1] -> c[1];
                                              circuit.h(greg g[1])
                                              circuit.measure(qreg_q[0], creg_c[0])
                                              circuit.measure(qreg_q[1], creg_c[1])
                 OpenQASM
                                                                 Oiskit
```

Table I: OpenQASM and Qiskit programs for the quantum circuit in Fig. 8.

In Qiskit programming language, h() and x() are the one-qubit Hadamard and Pauli X (NOT) operators acting on the specified qubit, cx() is the two-qubit CNOT gate acting on the specified two qubits, and measure() measures the state of the specified qubit (first argument) and stores the measured value (\in {0,1}) to the specified classical bit (second argument). QuantumRegister|ClassicalRegister() creates a quantum|classical register with the specified number of bits and optional label. QuantumCircuit() creates a quantum circuit consisting of those registers.

Appendix: Tensor Product of Quantum Gates

Let the states of two qubits be

$$|x\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}; \ |y\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} \tag{A1}$$

and one-qubit gates acting on respective qubits be

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}; B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (A2)

Tensor product of the input two-qubit state is

$$|x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 y_1 \\ x_1 y_2 \\ x_2 y_1 \\ x_2 y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \mathbf{y} \\ x_2 \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{A3}$$

where boldface font was used to indicate a two-element column vector nested inside a vector. Similarly, tensor product of the output two-qubit state, after operation of both one-qubit gates on respective qubits, is

$$A|x\rangle \otimes B|y\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})_1 \mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} \\ (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})_2 \mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2)\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} \\ (a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2)\mathbf{B}\mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}\mathbf{B} & a_{12}\mathbf{B} \\ a_{21}\mathbf{B} & a_{22}\mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1\mathbf{y} \\ x_2\mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}, \tag{A4}$$

where we have used boldface font to indicate a 2×2 matrix nested inside a vector or matrix and $(\mathbf{Ax})_1$ denotes the first element of the \mathbf{Ax} vector. Equation (A4) demonstrates the nested nature of one-qubit gates operating separably on two qubits. Namely, operators on the first and second qubits act on inter- and intra- 2×2 blocks within 4×4 matrix.