



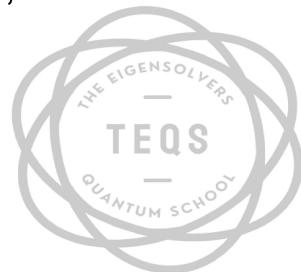
Prereqs: Mathematics and Classical Computing

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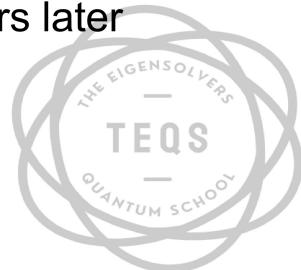
Course Overview:

- Lecture 1: Pre-requisite overview
- Lecture 2: Qubits, Quantum Logic Gates and Quantum Circuits
- Lecture 3: Teleportation, No Cloning Theorem, Superdense Coding, and BB84
- Lecture 4: Review on Quantum Circuits, Oracle, Deutsch
- Lecture 5: Practical Workshop
- Weekend: Hackathon!



Goals of this lecture

- Get you comfortable with the basic tools of mathematics commonly used in quantum computing
- Get you comfortable with Dirac notation, used in quantum mechanics and therefore in quantum computing
- Look at the inner works of classical computers so we can compare them to those of quantum computers later



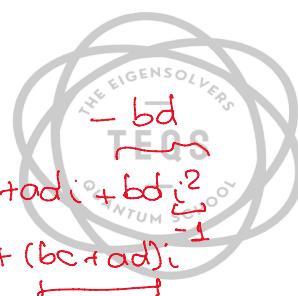
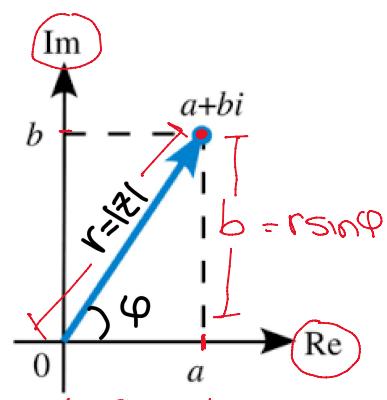
Contents

- Complex Numbers
 - Basic operations
- Linear algebra
 - Vector spaces
 - Operators
 - Eigenvalues, eigenvectors
- Classical computing
 - Gates and universality



Complex numbers

- $z = a + bi$, where $i^2 = -1$: Cartesian
- $z = \underbrace{r \cos(\varphi)}_a + i \underbrace{r \sin(\varphi)}_b$
 $= |z| (\underbrace{\cos\varphi + i \sin\varphi}_{e^{i\varphi}}) = re^{i\varphi}$
- Magnitude of z is $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$
- Addition: $\begin{aligned} z &= a+bi \\ w &= c+di \end{aligned}$ $\begin{aligned} z+w &= a+bi + c+di \\ &= (a+c) + (b+d)i \end{aligned}$
- Subtraction: $z-w = (a-c) + (b-d)i$
- Multiplication: $\begin{aligned} zw &= (a+bi)(c+di) = ac + bc i + ad i + bd i^2 \\ &= (ac - bd) + (bc + ad)i \end{aligned}$



Complex conjugation

- All it does is turn i into $-i$

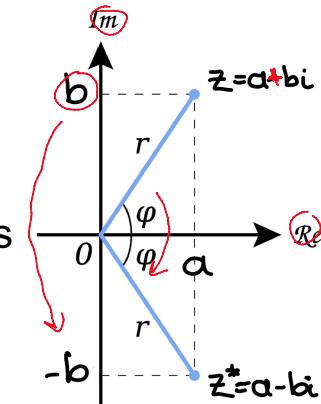
If we have a complex number $z = a + bi$, its complex conjugate is $z^* = a - bi$

- z times its conjugate:

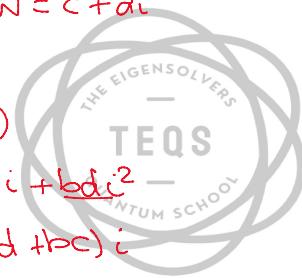
$$\begin{aligned} z z^* &= (a+bi)(a-bi) = a^2 - abi + abi - b^2 i^2 \\ &= a^2 + b^2 = |z|^2 = r^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Product of conjugates: $z^* w^* = (a-bi)(c-di)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= ac - adi - bci + bdi^2 \\ &= (ac - bd) - (ad + bc)i \\ &= (zw)^* \end{aligned}$$



$$w = c + di$$



Complex conjugate

- Sum of conjugates: $z^* + w^* = a - bi + c - di$
 $= (a+c) - (b+d)i$

- Conjugate of conjugate: $i \rightarrow -i \rightarrow -(-i) = i$

$$(z^*)^* = z$$

- Magnitude of z : $z z^* = |z|^2$

$$|z| = \sqrt{zz^*}$$



Linear algebra

- Since quantum states can be represented as vectors, we need to get into linear algebra
- Linear algebra allows us to study vectors, how they interact with each other, and how they are transformed about matrices
- The field is much broader than this, but we only need some basic concepts to get started



Vectors

- A vector has the form $\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$ or $\vec{a}^T = (a_1 \dots a_n)$
column row
- The dimension of a vector is its number of entries \sim
real numbers.

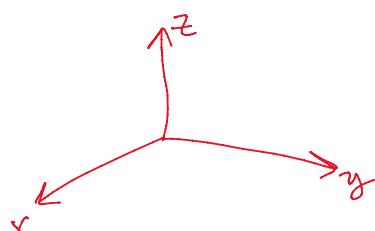
- $n = 1$



- $n = 2$



- $n = 3$



Vectors

- Vector addition

$$\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{a} + \vec{b} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 + b_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n + b_n \end{pmatrix} \quad (a_1 + b_1 \dots a_n + b_n)$$

- Scalar multiplication

k

$$k\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} ka_1 \\ \vdots \\ ka_n \end{pmatrix}$$

\dagger : dagger

- Conjugate transpose:

$$\vec{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{a}^{*\top} = \vec{a}^\dagger = (a_1^* \dots a_n^*)$$

- Magnitude:

$$\|\vec{a}\| = |\vec{a}| = \sqrt{|a_1|^2 + \dots + |a_n|^2} = \left[(a_1^* \dots a_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \right]^{1/2}$$

Vector space

$$\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots\}$$

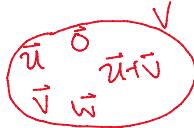
- A vector space is a collection of vectors, a field of scalars, and two operations: vector addition and scalar multiplication
- There are real vector spaces and complex vector spaces
- In quantum computing, we work with **complex vector spaces**



Vector space

- Imagine a vector space \underline{V} and two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} in it. The following are true:

- $\underline{\vec{u} + \vec{v}}$ is in \underline{V}



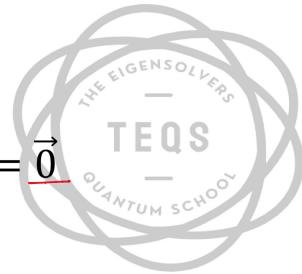
- $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} + \vec{u}$

- $(\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w} = \vec{u} + (\vec{w} + \vec{v})$, where \vec{w} is also in \underline{V}

- There is a $\vec{0}$ vector in V , where $\underline{\vec{u} + \vec{0}} = \underline{\vec{u}}$

- For every \vec{u} there is a $\underline{-\vec{u}}$ such that $\underline{\vec{u} - \vec{u}} = \underline{\vec{0}}$

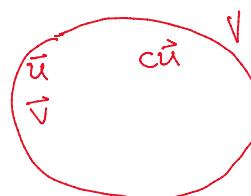
↗ inverse



Vector space

- Imagine a vector space V with scalar field \mathbb{C} , two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} in V , and scalars c and d in \mathbb{C} . The following are true:

- $\underline{c\vec{u}}$ is in V



$c, d \in \mathbb{C}$

- $c(\underline{\vec{u} + \vec{v}}) = \underline{c\vec{u}} + \underline{c\vec{v}}$

- $c(d\vec{u}) = d(c\vec{u})$

- $(c + d)\vec{u} = \underline{c\vec{u}} + \underline{d\vec{u}}$

- $1(\vec{u}) = \vec{u}$



Dot (Inner) product

- Vector space \rightarrow Hilbert Space \mathbb{C}^n $\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix}$
- The dot product of two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is denoted by: $u_1, \dots, u_n \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^* v_i = u_1^* v_1 + \dots + u_n^* v_n$$
- We can write the magnitude of a vector in terms of an inner product:

$$|\vec{u}| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^* u_i} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n |u_i|^2}$$

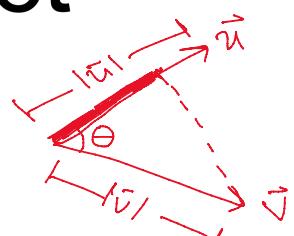
$\underbrace{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}}$ $\underbrace{[|u_1|^2 + \dots + |u_n|^2]}^{1/2}$



Dot (Inner) product

- Geometrically, the dot product is defined as

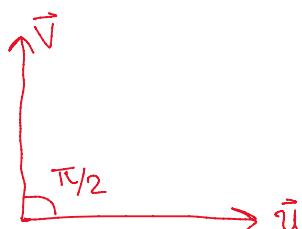
$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = |\vec{u}| |\vec{v}| \cos\theta$$



- If we are working with unit vectors,

$$|\vec{u}| = |\vec{v}| = 1$$

- If the vectors are orthogonal, $\theta = \pi/2$ and thus $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$



Orthonormal basis

Orthogonal

unit

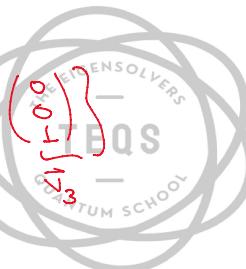
- Vectors can be represented as a sum of other vectors, i.e. a linear combination
- Particularly, we are interested in representing a vector as a sum of linearly independent vectors of unit magnitude that are orthogonal to each other

$a, b \in \mathbb{C}$

$$\bullet \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left\{ \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{v}_1}, \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{v}_2} \right\} \quad |\vec{v}_1| = |\vec{v}_2| = 1 \quad \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2 = 0$$

$$\bullet \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + c \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left\{ \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{v}_1}, \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{v}_2}, \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{v}_3} \right\}$$

Orthonormal Basis.



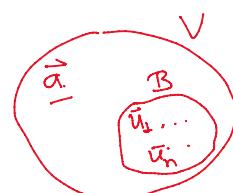
Orthonormal basis

- Given a set of basis vectors \vec{u}_i , we can write any vector as a linear combination of them

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$$\vec{a} = \sum_i \alpha_i \vec{u}_i$$

$$= \alpha_1 \vec{u}_1 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{u}_n$$



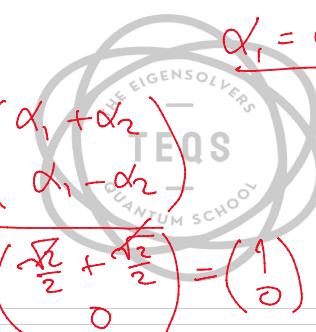
$$|\vec{u}_1| = |\vec{u}_2| = 1$$

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_2 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 0$$

$$\left\{ \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{u}_1}, \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{u}_2} \right\}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha_1 \vec{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{u}_2 = \frac{\alpha_1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{\alpha_2}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_1 - \alpha_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$



$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\pi}{2} \\ \frac{\pi}{2} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\pi}{2} \\ \frac{\pi}{2} \end{pmatrix} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Dirac notation

- Makes working with the concepts presented easier

- Uses bras and kets: $\langle \cdot |$ and $| \cdot \rangle$

Bra Ket

$$\underline{|v\rangle} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \underline{\langle v|} = \underline{|v\rangle^\dagger} = (\underline{v_1^*} \cdots \underline{v_n^*})$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = (\underbrace{u_1^* \cdots u_n^*}_{\langle u|}) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$$

- A bra-ket takes an inner product!

$$\langle v|u \rangle = (v_1^* \cdots v_n^*) \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^* u_i$$

$$\langle v|u \rangle = \langle v|u \rangle$$

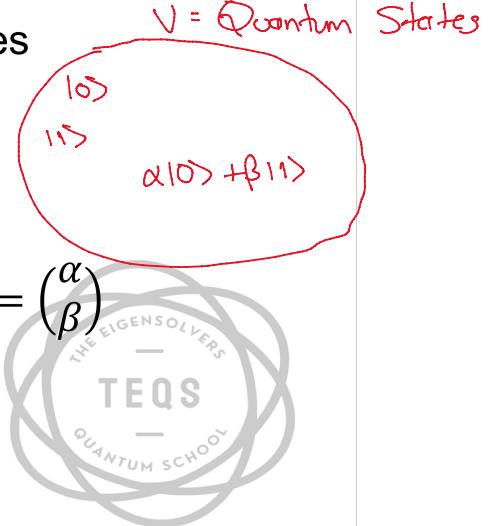
Bra-ket



Qubits as quantum states

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

- We can represent a quantum state as $|\psi\rangle = \underline{\alpha}|0\rangle + \underline{\beta}|1\rangle$
- $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are distinguishable quantum states
- $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Therefore, we can write $|\psi\rangle = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$



Qubit representation

- A qubit is represented as $|\psi\rangle = \underline{\alpha}|0\rangle + \underline{\beta}|1\rangle$
- Values α and β are called probability amplitudes. Furthermore, $|\alpha|^2$ is the probability of finding the qubit in state $|0\rangle$ and $|\beta|^2$ is the same but for state $|1\rangle$
- Therefore, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ (Statevector) In other words, $|\psi\rangle = 1$ $P_{\psi}(0) + P_{\psi}(1) = 1$



Qubit representation

- What if $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 \neq 1$? We need to normalize our state!

$$|\hat{\psi}\rangle = \frac{|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{|\psi\rangle|}}$$

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + i \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 2$$

$$\alpha = 1 \quad \beta = i$$

$$|\beta| = 1 = i^* i = -1 \cdot i^2 = 1$$

$$|\psi\rangle| = \sqrt{|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2}$$

$$|\tilde{\psi}\rangle = \frac{|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2}} = \frac{|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} \quad |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$



Multi-qubit representation

- Most of the times, we will be working with more than 1 qubit

- Suppose you have two qubits $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ and $|\phi\rangle = \delta|0\rangle + \gamma|1\rangle$. The combined state is $|\psi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle$

$$(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \otimes (\delta|0\rangle + \gamma|1\rangle)$$

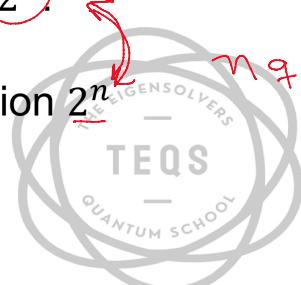
$$\alpha\delta|00\rangle + \alpha\gamma|01\rangle + \beta\delta|10\rangle + \beta\gamma|11\rangle$$

$$\alpha\delta|00\rangle + \alpha\gamma|01\rangle + \beta\delta|10\rangle + \beta\gamma|11\rangle$$

- Dimension of vector representing n qubits = 2^n .

0 1 2 3

- A statevector in a Hilbert space \mathcal{H} of dimension 2^n describes an n qubit system



Tensor product.
 1 q → 2 st.
 2 q. → 4 states
 3 q → 8 states
 ...
 n q → 2^n st..

Operators

|v>

- Operators act on qubits to transform them. $A|v\rangle = |w\rangle$
- Operators in quantum computing need to be linear and unitary to preserve probability:

Linearity

- $A(|v\rangle + |w\rangle) = A|v\rangle + A|w\rangle$
- $A(c|v\rangle) = c(A|v\rangle)$, where c is a complex scalar
- $\|A|v\rangle\| = |A|v\rangle|$, i.e., magnitude is conserved



Operators

- What is the outer product ($|a\rangle\langle b|$)?
Ket bra
- Pauli Operators:

$$\underbrace{\langle a|b\rangle}_{\langle b|} = \underbrace{\langle a|}_{\langle b|} \langle b\rangle$$

$$|a\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \langle b| = (b_1^* \dots b_n^*)$$

Identity

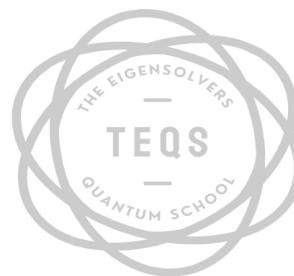
$$I = |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1|$$

$$X = |1\rangle\langle 0| \oplus |0\rangle\langle 1|$$

Pauli

$$Y = i|1\rangle\langle 0| - i|0\rangle\langle 1|$$

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



Operators

- Let's apply the Pauli operators on a qubit defined by

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \quad |0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} I|\psi\rangle &= (\underbrace{|0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1|}_{\text{Identity}})(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \\ &= \alpha|0\rangle\langle 0| + \beta|0\rangle\langle 1| + \alpha|1\rangle\langle 0| + \beta|1\rangle\langle 1| \\ &= \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = |\psi\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X|\psi\rangle &= (|0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|)(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \\ &= \alpha|0\rangle\langle 1| + \beta|0\rangle\langle 1| + \alpha|1\rangle\langle 0| + \beta|1\rangle\langle 0| \\ &= \beta|0\rangle + \alpha|1\rangle \\ &= \alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$\cdot Y, Z$



Operators as matrices

()

- To convert from outer product to matrix, just perform the operation they encode

$$|a\rangle\langle b| = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} (b_1^* \quad \dots \quad b_n^*)^T = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \cdot b_1^* & \dots & a_1 \cdot b_n^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_n \cdot b_1^* & \dots & a_n \cdot b_n^* \end{pmatrix}$$

- Now, we can write the Pauli operators as matrices

$$\bullet |0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 1 & 1 \cdot 0 \\ 0 \cdot 1 & 0 \cdot 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bullet |0\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (0 \ 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \cdot 0 & 1 \cdot 1 \\ 0 \cdot 0 & 0 \cdot 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bullet |1\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bullet |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Operators as matrices

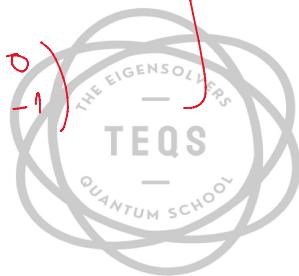
- Let's apply multiple Pauli matrices to the same qubit

$$I = \langle 10 \rangle \langle 01 + 11 \rangle \langle 11 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X = \langle 10 \rangle \langle 11 \rangle + \langle 11 \rangle \langle 01 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Y = i \langle 10 \rangle \langle 11 \rangle - i \langle 11 \rangle \langle 01 \rangle = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z = \langle 10 \rangle \langle 01 \rangle - \langle 11 \rangle \langle 11 \rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Pauli
Matrices

Operators as matrices

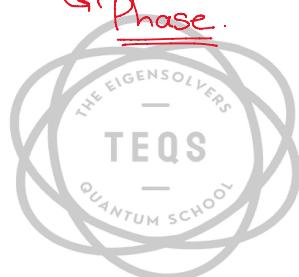
$$|+\rangle = \alpha |10\rangle + \beta |11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X|+\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z|+\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ -\beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \alpha |10\rangle \oplus \beta |11\rangle$$

Phase.



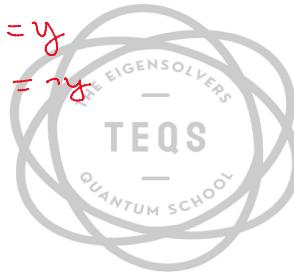
Multi-qubit operators

Controlled NOT

- The CNOT **always** acts on two qubits. It has a control qubit and a target qubit. If the control is set to $|1\rangle$, it'll apply the X operator to the target qubit.
 - Outer product representation:
- $$\text{CNOT} = |00\rangle\langle 00| + |01\rangle\langle 01| + |11\rangle\langle 10| + |10\rangle\langle 11|$$
- $$|00\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |01\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |10\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad |11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
- $$\text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} I & & & \\ & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
- If $|11\rangle = |00\rangle$ then $|1\rangle : \text{control}, \quad |0\rangle : \text{Target}$. If $|11\rangle = |00\rangle$ then $|1\rangle \rightarrow X|1\rangle \text{ and } |0\rangle \rightarrow I|0\rangle$

- We can define it as $\text{CNOT}[x, y] = (x|x \oplus y)$, where \oplus denotes addition modulo 2

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{if } x=0 & y \rightarrow 0 \oplus y = y \\ \text{if } x=1 & y \rightarrow 1 \oplus y = \bar{y} \end{array}$$



Unitary matrices

- In quantum computing, all operators **need** to be unitary matrices

Unitary \rightarrow Prob. preserved \rightarrow |Ints|

- This means that $U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = I$

Hermitian conjugate Adjoint.

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & \dots & u_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{m1} & \dots & u_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$U^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11}^* & \dots & u_{1n}^* \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_{m1}^* & \dots & u_{mn}^* \end{pmatrix}$$

$$YY^* = I \quad Y^2$$

$$Y^*Y = I$$

$$u_{ni} \rightarrow u_{in}$$

$$u_{ij} \rightarrow u_{ji}$$

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Y^* = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Y^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$YY^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \cdot i \\ i \cdot 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \cdot 0 - i \cdot i & 0 \cdot (-i) - i \cdot 0 \\ i \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot i & i \cdot (-i) + 0 \cdot 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

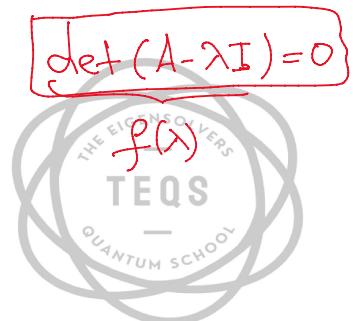
Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- The eigenvectors of a matrix are those that remain unchanged, up to a constant factor, when the matrix acts on them
- $A|u_\lambda\rangle = \lambda|u_\lambda\rangle$, A is an operator, $|u_\lambda\rangle$ is an eigenvector, and λ is the corresponding eigenvalue
- Characteristic equation:

$$A|u_\lambda\rangle = \lambda|u_\lambda\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} A|u_\lambda\rangle - \lambda|u_\lambda\rangle &= A|u_\lambda\rangle - \lambda I|u_\lambda\rangle \\ &= (A - \lambda I)|u_\lambda\rangle = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$f(\lambda) = 0$$



Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- Let's get the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of some of the Pauli matrices

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det A = ad - bc$$

Trace

$$\text{Tr } A = a + d$$

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \left[\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \right] = \det \begin{pmatrix} a-\lambda & b \\ c & d-\lambda \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

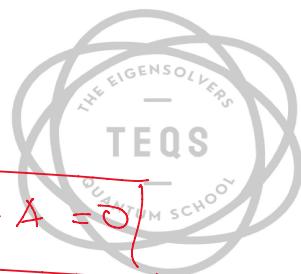
$$(a-\lambda)(d-\lambda) - bc = 0$$

$$ad - a\lambda - d\lambda + \lambda^2 - bc = 0$$

$$(ad - bc) - (\underbrace{a+d}_{\det A})\lambda + \lambda^2 = 0$$

$$\det A \quad \text{Tr } A$$

$$\boxed{\lambda^2 - \text{Tr } A \cdot \lambda + \det A = 0}$$



$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Tr } X = 0 \quad \det X = -1$$

$$\lambda^2 - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$

- Eigenvectors

$$X|u_1\rangle = |u_1\rangle$$

$$X|u_{-1}\rangle = -|u_{-1}\rangle$$

$$|u_1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1(1)} \\ u_{1(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_{1(1)} \\ u_{1(2)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1(1)} \\ u_{1(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|u_{-1}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{1(2)} \\ u_{1(1)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1(1)} \\ u_{1(2)} \end{pmatrix} \quad u_{1(1)} = u_{1(2)}$$

$$|u_1\rangle = c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|u_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

- The spectral decomposition of an operator is

$$A = \sum_i \lambda_i |u_{\lambda_i}\rangle \langle u_{\lambda_i}| = \lambda_1 |u_{\lambda_1}\rangle \langle u_{\lambda_1}| + \dots + \lambda_n |u_{\lambda_n}\rangle \langle u_{\lambda_n}|$$

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda=1 \quad |u_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda=-1 \quad |u_{-1}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

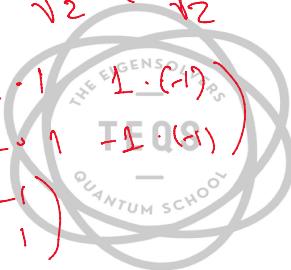
$$1 \cdot |u_1\rangle \langle u_1| - |u_{-1}\rangle \langle u_{-1}| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = X$$

Y, Z



$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = X$$

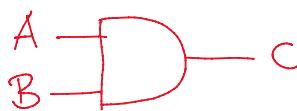
Classical computing

- In classical computing, we also use gates!

- NOT: 

True - False
High - Low
1 - 0

A	B
0	1
1	0

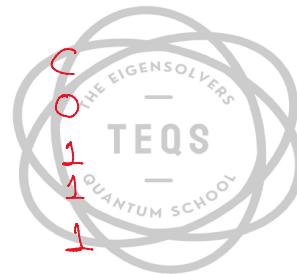
- AND: 

A	B	C = A · B
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

- OR:

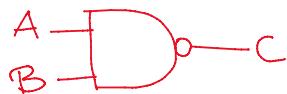


A	B
0	0
0	1
1	0
1	1



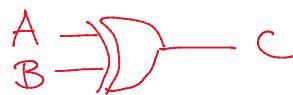
Classical computing

- NAND:

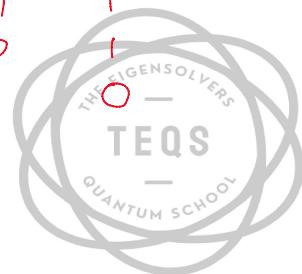


A	B	C
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

- XOR:



A	B	C = A ⊕ B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



Classical computing

- Let's build a half adder

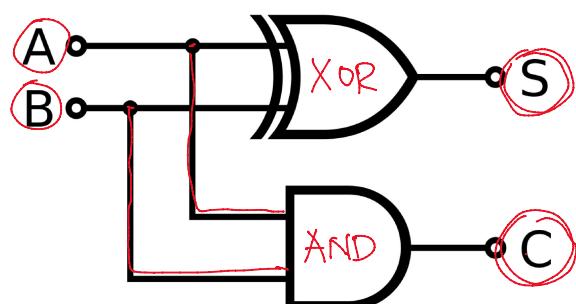
$$S = A \oplus B$$

Sum

$$C = A \cdot B$$

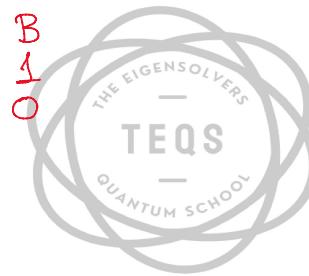
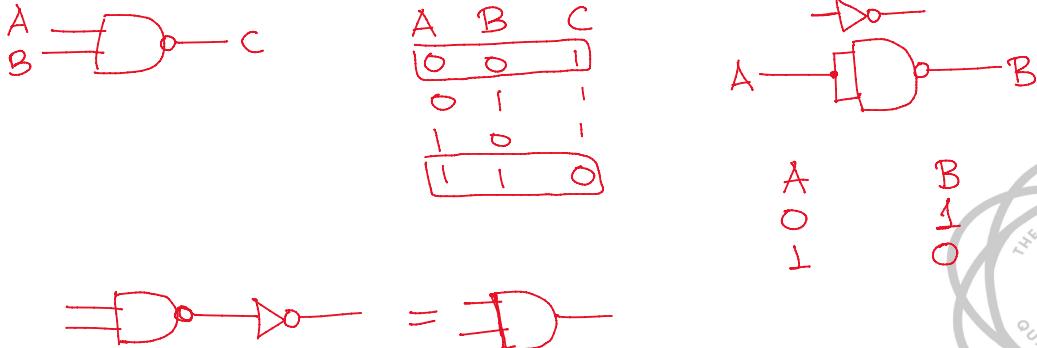
Carry

$$A + B$$



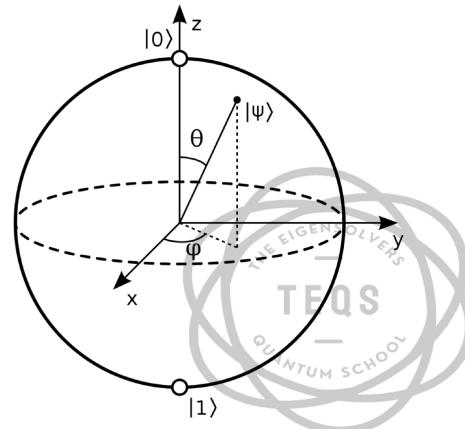
Universality of NAND

- In classical computing, you can build any gate out of NAND gates. Therefore, any computation can be done with only NAND gates
- Let's build the AND, OR, and NOT from NAND gates



Universal quantum gates

- Like in classical computing, we also have a set of universal quantum gates that can compute any function
- These are the rotation gates $R_{i \in \{x,y,z\}}$, phase shift gate $P(\theta)$, and the CNOT gate



Thanks for listening!

Good luck on Lecture 2!

