# Single-Qubit Introduction

## 1 What Is a Qubit?

A qubit is the *quantum analogue* of a classical bit. Mathematically it is a **unit vector** in a two-dimensional complex vector space. Dirac's *bra-ket* notation writes such vectors as

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle, \qquad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}, \ |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1.$$

The Greek letter  $\psi$  (psi) labels the state; the vertical bar and angle bracket form a ket.

# 2 Why Those Particular Column Vectors?

- $|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  are chosen as the *computational basis*. They are **orthonormal**—see §.
- Any qubit state can be written as a linear combination  $\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$  because  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  is a complete basis for  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

#### (What does *orthonormal* mean?)

Let  $|u\rangle$  and  $|v\rangle$  be column vectors in a complex vector space.

1. Conjugate transpose (††). Given a column vector  $|u\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$ , its conjugate

 ${f transpose}$  (also called the  ${\it Hermitian \ adjoint})$  is

$$|u\rangle^{\dagger} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^* & u_2^* & \dots & u_n^* \end{bmatrix},$$

where \* denotes complex conjugation. In words:

- 1. Transpose: turn the column into a row.
- 2. Conjugate: replace each entry a + ib with a ib.

For a matrix  $A, A^{\dagger} = (A^T)^*$ —transpose first, then conjugate every element.

**2. Inner product.** The *Dirac inner product* of  $|u\rangle$  and  $|v\rangle$  is

$$\langle u|v\rangle = |u\rangle^{\dagger}|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i^* v_i.$$

3. Orthogonality. Vectors are orthogonal when their inner product vanishes:

$$\langle u|v\rangle = 0.$$

**4. Normalisation.** A vector is **normalised** when its inner product with itself equals 1:

$$\langle u|u\rangle = 1.$$

Its **norm** (length) is  $||u\rangle|| = \sqrt{\langle u|u\rangle}$ .

**5.** Orthonormality. A set of vectors is *orthonormal* if every pair is orthogonal and every vector is normalised:

$$\langle u|v\rangle = 0, \qquad \langle u|u\rangle = 1, \ \langle v|v\rangle = 1, \dots$$

Example (computational basis).

$$\langle 0|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0, \qquad \langle 0|0\rangle = 1, \ \langle 1|1\rangle = 1.$$

Thus  $\{\left|0\right\rangle,\left|1\right\rangle\}$  is orthonormal, and  $\left\|\left|0\right\rangle\right\|=\left\|\left|1\right\rangle\right\|=1.$ 

### 3 Probabilities from Amplitudes

If  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$ , measuring in the computational basis yields

$$P(0) = |\alpha|^2, \qquad P(1) = |\beta|^2.$$

The squared modulus converts a complex amplitude into a real, non-negative probability, and normalisation  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$  guarantees the outcomes exhaust all possibilities.

### 4 Two Fundamental Single-Qubit Gates

4.1 Pauli–X Gate (Bit Flip)

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad X |0\rangle = |1\rangle, \ X |1\rangle = |0\rangle.$$

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#### 4.2 Hadamard Gate (Superposition Maker)

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad H |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle), \ H |1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle).$$

H is its own inverse  $(H^2 = I)$  and converts definite states into equal superpositions (and vice versa).

### 5 Worked Examples

Example 1: Apply X to  $|0\rangle$ 

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

Example 2: Apply H to  $|0\rangle$ 

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle).$$

Example 3: Apply H to  $|1\rangle$ 

$$H|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle).$$

Example 4: Verify  $H^2 = I$ 

$$H^2 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_2.$$

**Guided exercise.** Show that HXH = Z, where  $Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and evaluate  $HXH | 0 \rangle$  and  $XHX | 0 \rangle$ , noting the phase difference.

## 6 Key Takeaways

- 1. A qubit is a length-1 complex vector.
- 2. Orthonormal basis vectors are perpendicular ( $\langle u|v\rangle=0$ ) and length-1 ( $\langle u|u\rangle=1$ ,  $||u\rangle||=1$ ).
- 3. Conjugate transpose ( $^{\dagger}$ ) means transpose + complex conjugation.
- 4. Probabilities come from squared moduli of amplitudes.
- 5. Single-qubit gates are  $2 \times 2$  unitary matrices.