

CSE 470N B

Emil Sayahi

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Lecture notes from the 2023 undergraduate course Quantum Computing, given by Professor James D Kiper at Miami University at Benton Hall in the academic year 2022-2023. This course covers introductory quantum computing concepts. Credit for the material in these notes is due to Professor James D Kiper, while the structure is loosely taken from the in-class lectures. The credit for the typesetting is my own.

Disclaimer: This document will inevitably contain some mistakes—both simple typos and legitimate errors. Keep in mind that these are the notes of an undergraduate student in the process of learning the material, so take what you read with a grain of salt. If you find mistakes and feel like telling me, I will be grateful and happy to hear from you, even for the most trivial of errors. You can reach me by email, in English, at sayahie@miamioh.edu.

For more notes like this, visit [my GitHub profile](#).

Emil Sayahi,
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Miami University

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Lecture 1: Week 1, Thursday

Definition 1.1

A *bit* is a binary digit that can take on one of two values, 0 or 1.

Definition 1.2

A *qubit* is analogous to a bit in a quantum computer, but can take on a superposition of the values 0 and 1—it can be in a state of 0 and 1 at the same time.

Definition 1.3

The *planetary model of the atom* is a model of the atom in which the electrons orbit the nucleus in a circular orbit. The planetary model of the atom was developed by Niels Bohr in 1913.

The Stern-Gerlach experiment, first successfully performed in 1922, demonstrated that the magnetic field of an electron can be used to separate the electron into two different states, one with a magnetic field pointing up and one with a magnetic field pointing down. Silver atoms with random spatial orientations were sent straight between two magnets, with the atoms hitting a detector on the other side. The detector was able to detect which direction the atoms were moving in, and the results showed that the atoms were split into two groups, one with a magnetic field pointing up and one with a magnetic field pointing down—‘the magnetism was quantised’. This was not expected—the initial hypothesis was that the atoms would form a continuous pattern instead of falling onto two points on the detector, as the spatial orientations were random.

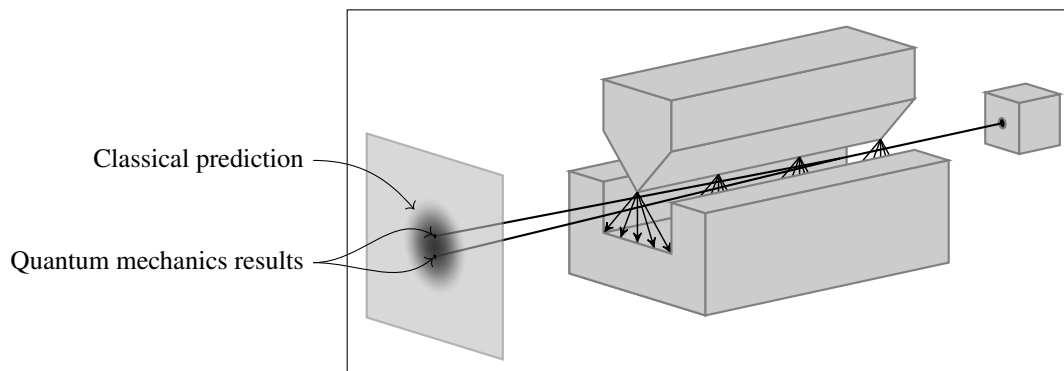


Figure 1: Stern-Gerlach Experiment. Figure designed by [Clemens Koppeneister](#)

Note:-

An electron orbiting in a circular orbit generates a magnetic field.

Particles have some properties, such as ‘colour’ (with two possible values: black or white), and ‘hardness’ (with two possible values: soft, hard). We can build detectors that, when given

many particles, show a long-run probability of detecting a particle with a certain property. These detectors can be repeated (eg, a colour detector followed by another colour detector) without the probability changing. These detectors demonstrate that the properties are also probabilistically independent (as in, the results are not correlated between a particle's colour, hardness, etc).

Definition 1.4

The *uncertainty principle* states that the probability of measuring a certain property of a particle is inversely proportional to the probability of measuring a different property of the same particle. This is demonstrated in Figure 2. In other words, the more certain we are of measuring one property of a particle, the less certain (or more uncertain) we are of measuring a different property of the same particle.

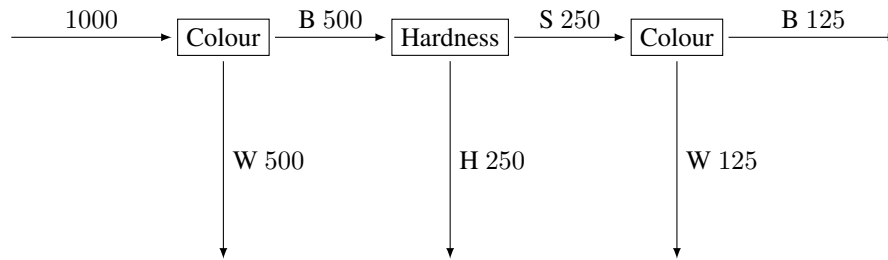


Figure 2: Repeated detectors that detect colour and hardness, demonstrating the uncertainty principle. By measuring the hardness, we became uncertain of the colour; the 250 'black' & 'soft' particles were redetected as 125 black and 125 white.

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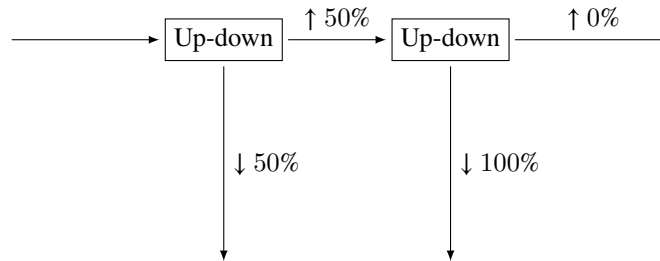
Lecture 2: Week 2, Tuesday

Figure 3: Two repeated detectors of whether a particle's spin is up or down. The same property is being measured; the percentages heading into the second detector are known.

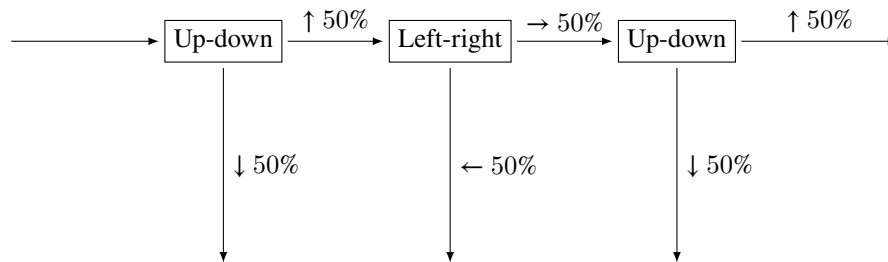


Figure 4: Three repeated detectors, now detecting three different properties of a particle. Now, the percentages for spin up or down are not known; the first and last detectors are probabilistically independent because of the middle detector.

'To talk about an electron that is both spin up and spin right is nonsensical.'

Definition 2.5

Tunneling is a phenomenon in quantum mechanics where an object on the quantum scale can penetrate barriers in a manner that's contradictory to what classical mechanics predicts. In other words, an object can sometimes move through something that should seemingly stop its movement.

Definition 2.6

Quantum decoherence is when the wave function that describes the quantum state of a particle 'collapses' (ie, the quantum state can no longer be predicted or described by the wave function). With decoherence, information about the system is lost into the environment; if a quantum system were perfectly isolated (ie, if nothing could interact with it), it would maintain coherence indefinitely.

With n qubits, a quantum algorithm can search up to 2^n states simultaneously. This is the advantage of quantum computers—modelling complex systems and searching through a large set of possibilities is where quantum computers can be useful.

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Lecture 3: Week 2, Thursday

‘The state of a quantum system corresponds to a vector in a vector space of complex numbers.’

Definition 3.7

A *vector* is a list of numbers. The length (or magnitude; denoted by $||v||$) of a vector can be found by calculating the square root of the sum of squares of the horizontal and vertical components. Scalar multiplication can be performed by multiplying every value of a vector by the scalar. A *unit vector* is a vector, \vec{v} with a magnitude $|v| = 1$. Vector addition can be performed by adding every element in a vector with the element in the corresponding position in another vector. Vector multiplication (also referred to as finding a dot product, or an inner product; denoted by the product $\langle v|w \rangle$) can be done between two vectors with the same dimensions. If the result of the multiplication is 0, the two vectors are *orthogonal*.

Example. Row (‘bra’ in Dirac notation): $\langle v| = [2 \ 3 \ 4]$

Column (‘ket’ in Dirac notation): $|w\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$

Magnitude: $|v\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}$

$$||w\rangle| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

Scalar multiplication: $|v\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$4 \cdot |v\rangle = 4 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Vector addition: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{Multiplication: } [2 \ 3 \ 4] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = -2 + 6 + 28 = 32$$

Note:-

For the purposes of this course, we must be able to find the length of a vector, perform scalar multiplication, perform vector addition, and check for orthogonality.

Definition 3.8

A set of *basis vectors* is a set of vectors that can be combined in a linear combination to make any other vector in the vector space.

Example. Possible basis vectors with two dimensions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 76.9513 \\ \pi \end{bmatrix} = 76.9513 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \pi \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Possible basis vectors with three dimensions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:-

$$|\rightarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\leftarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\nearrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\searrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

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Lecture 4: Week 3, Tuesday

Qubits are represented by unit vectors.

Definition 4.9

A vector is *orthonormal* if it is both a unit vector and orthogonal.

Example. The following are the basis vectors for R^3 :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

This means that any vector can be written as a linear combination of these basis vectors.

If we were talking about spin, for example, we could use R^2 , with the following basis

vectors:

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

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

$$|\rightarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\leftarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Meaning,

$$|\nearrow\rangle = |\uparrow\rangle \cdot |\rightarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|\searrow\rangle = |\downarrow\rangle \cdot |\leftarrow\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Definition 4.10

A *matrix* is a rectangular array of numbers.

The ‘gates’ that are the primary components of quantum computing algorithms correspond to matrices.

Definition 4.11

To *transpose* a matrix means to ‘rotate’ it so that its rows become columns, and its columns become rows.

Example. $M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

M has 3 rows by 2 columns.

$$M^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

M^T has 2 rows by 3 columns.

If multiplying two matrices, one with dimensions $n \times m$ and the other with dimensions $m \times p$, then the result will have dimensions $n \times p$ (ie, the resultant matrix's dimensions will be number of the first matrix's rows, by the number of the second matrix's columns).

Example. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 3 \\ 4 & 7 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 29 & -5 \\ 16 & 37 & -4 \\ 18 & 45 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

Definition 4.12

An *identity matrix* is a matrix when, multiplied with another matrix, simply yields that other matrix.

Example. $\begin{bmatrix} 14 & 29 & -5 \\ 16 & 37 & -4 \\ 18 & 45 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 29 & -5 \\ 16 & 37 & -4 \\ 18 & 45 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$

Note:-

If a matrix, H , were multiplied by its transpose (ie, $H \cdot H^T$), and if the multiplication were to yield an identity matrix, I , then it is orthogonal. In other words, if $H \cdot H^T = I$, then H is orthogonal. When dealing with complex numbers, this is called a *unitary matrix* instead, rather than an 'orthogonal matrix'.

Definition 4.13

A *tensor product* (represented as $A \otimes B$) can be found by, for each value in the left-hand side, multiplying said value with all of the values on the right-hand side. This operation can be referred to as calculating the *Kronecker product* or *matrix direct product*, when dealing specifically with matrices as opposed to other tensors.

A *tensor* is a generalisation of matrices; where a matrix has two dimensions (rows and columns), a tensor can have any number of dimensions.

Example. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 8 \\ 14 \\ -3 \\ 12 \\ 21 \end{bmatrix}$

The state of a quantum system corresponds to a vector. The state of a quantum system is a tensor product of qubits. A vector is separable if it can be written as a tensor product of two other vectors. A vector is entangled if it *cannot* be written as the tensor product of two other vectors.

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Lecture 5: Week 3, Tuesday

‘The state of a quantum system is a vector in a vector space of complex numbers.’

Using the following basis vectors, $|\uparrow\rangle = |0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $|\downarrow\rangle = |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, a quantum state can

be represented as $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$, where a and b are probability amplitudes (ie, a^2 is the probability of getting $|0\rangle$, b^2 is the probability of getting $|1\rangle$, and $a^2 + b^2 = 1$). To determine if a quantum state is valid, square the values of a and b , and then add them together; if the sum of the squares is not equal to 1, then the state is invalid.

If we ‘measure’ a qubit in the horizontal direction we are using the basis vectors $\left(\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \right)$.

Some of the values that we’re going to repeatedly run into may be familiar from an earlier education in trigonometry.

$$\sin(45^\circ) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\cos(45^\circ) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\sin(30^\circ) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \cos(60^\circ) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\cos(30^\circ) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad \sin(60^\circ) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

Note:-

We cannot distinguish between $|v\rangle$ and $-|v\rangle$.

$|v\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ has the same probabilities involved as $-|v\rangle = -a|0\rangle - b|1\rangle$ (being a^2 for $|0\rangle$ and b^2 for $|1\rangle$).

If we were to rotate our observation apparatus (or perspective) by Θ° , the new basis vectors would be $\left(\begin{bmatrix} \cos(\Theta) \\ -\sin(\Theta) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \sin(\Theta) \\ \cos(\Theta) \end{bmatrix} \right)$.

Notes