



# Fundamentals of Quantum Computing

## Geilo Winter School

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## Dirac/"Bra-ket" notation

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- common notation for quantum states i.e. vectors in a complex Hilbert spaces  $V$
- $| \rangle$  denotes a vector in a vector space  $V$
- $\langle |$  denotes a linear functional on  $V$ , i.e. is an element of  $V^*$
- we can identify a vector with a linear functional, i.e. a "ket" with a "bra", and vice versa
- $\langle | \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  denotes the inner product
- $| \rangle \langle | : V \times V \rightarrow V \otimes V$  denotes the outer product

# A quantum bit

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## Postulate 1 [Nielsen and Chuang(2000), page 80]

Associated to any isolated physical system is a complex vector space with inner product (that is, a Hilbert space) known as the **state space** of the system. The system is completely described by its state vector, which is a **unit vector** in the system's state space.

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A quantum bit (qubit) is a quantum mechanical system with a two-dimensional state space. A state  $|\Phi\rangle$  is a unit vector in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . Given an orthonormal basis  $|\varphi_0\rangle, |\varphi_1\rangle$ , a qubit can be written as

$$|\Phi\rangle = a_0 |\varphi_0\rangle + a_1 |\varphi_1\rangle, \text{ with } a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{C} \text{ and } \langle\Phi|\Phi\rangle = |a_0|^2 + |a_1|^2 = 1. \quad (1)$$

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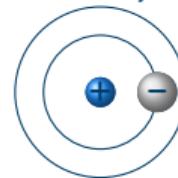
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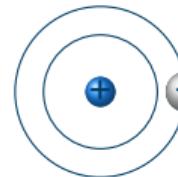
An example using states of hydrogen atoms

ground state



$$|\varphi_0\rangle = |0\rangle := \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

first excited state



$$|\varphi_1\rangle = |1\rangle := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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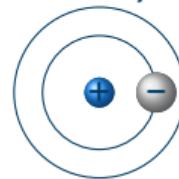
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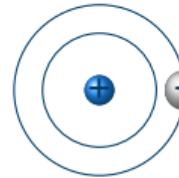
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Another example is photon polarization.

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In contrast to classical mechanics, a **superposition** of basis states is possible. An example is the state  $|\Phi\rangle = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + i\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle$ .

# Bloch sphere and superposition

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The general state of a qubit can be written using polar representation

$$|\Phi\rangle = r_0 e^{i\theta_0} |0\rangle + r_1 e^{i\theta_1} |1\rangle. \quad (2)$$

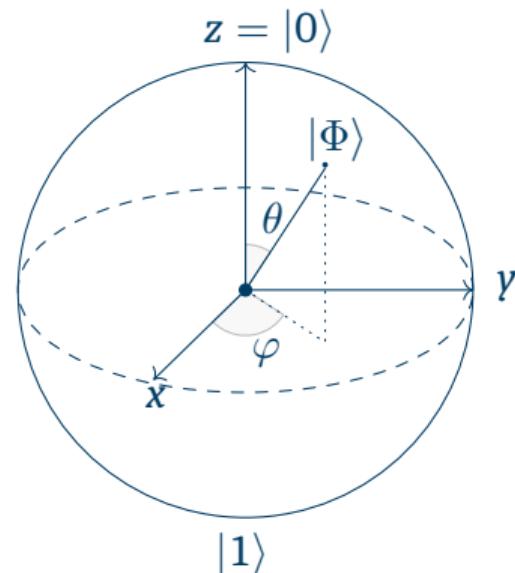
The global phase is irrelevant (for reasons explained later), we can multiply the state with  $e^{-i\theta_0}$  and our (equivalent) state is

$$|\Phi\rangle = r_0 |0\rangle + r_1 e^{i\theta} |1\rangle, \quad \theta = \theta_1 - \theta_0. \quad (3)$$

Using that we have a unit vector, we can write

$$|\phi\rangle = \cos(\theta/2) |0\rangle + \sin(\theta/2) e^{i\phi} |1\rangle, \quad (4)$$

where  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ , and  $0 \leq \phi < 2\pi$ .



## Multiple qubits

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Postulate 4 [Nielsen and Chuang(2000), page 94]

The state space of a composite physical system is the tensor product of the state spaces of the component physical systems. Moreover, if we have systems numbered 1 through  $n$ , and system number  $i$  is prepared in the state  $|\Phi_i\rangle$ , then the joint state of the total system is  $|\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\Phi_n\rangle$ .

## Reminder: Tensor product

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$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 b_1 \\ a_1 b_2 \\ a_2 b_1 \\ a_2 b_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} \\ b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} \\ b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} & a_{1,2} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} \\ b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} \\ a_{2,1} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} \\ b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} & a_{2,2} \begin{pmatrix} b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} \\ b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} \quad (6)$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1}b_{1,1} & a_{1,1}b_{1,2} & a_{1,2}b_{1,1} & a_{1,2}b_{1,2} \\ a_{1,1}b_{2,1} & a_{1,1}b_{2,2} & a_{1,2}b_{2,1} & a_{1,2}b_{2,2} \\ a_{2,1}b_{1,1} & a_{2,1}b_{1,2} & a_{2,2}b_{1,1} & a_{2,2}b_{1,2} \\ a_{2,1}b_{2,1} & a_{2,1}b_{2,2} & a_{2,2}b_{2,1} & a_{2,2}b_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

## Multiple qubits

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The general state  $|\Phi\rangle$  of  $n$  qubits is a unit vector in  $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n} = \underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{n \text{ times}}$ .

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Using the standard basis for  $\mathbb{C}^2$ , a basis for  $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n}$  is given by the following  $2^n$  vectors

$$|0\rangle_n := |\underbrace{00 \dots 00}_{n \text{ digits}}\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = (1, 0 \dots 0, 0)^\top$$

$$|1\rangle_n := |\underbrace{00 \dots 01}_{n \text{ digits}}\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 1 \dots 0, 0)^\top$$

⋮

$$|2^n - 1\rangle_n := |\underbrace{11 \dots 11}_{n \text{ digits}}\rangle = |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = (0, 0 \dots 0, 1)^\top$$

## Multiple qubits

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A general state can therefore be expressed as

$$|\Phi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} c_i |i\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_{2^n-2} \\ c_{2^n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} |c_i|^2 = 1, \quad c_i \in \mathbb{C}. \quad (8)$$

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Remark.

- The space  $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n}$  is a  $2^n$ -dimensional space. The dimension grows exponentially with the number of qubits.
- The state space of  $n$  classical bits, i.e., a binary string  $\{0, 1\}^n$  is an  $n$ -dimensional space. The dimension grows linearly with the number of bits.

## Product states and entanglement

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A quantum state  $|\Phi\rangle \in (\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes n}$  is a **product state** if it can be expressed as a tensor product of  $n$  single qubits  $|\Phi_i\rangle$ , i.e.,

$$|\Phi\rangle = \underbrace{\Phi_1 \otimes \cdots \otimes \Phi_n}_{n \text{ times}} \quad (9)$$

Otherwise, it is **entangled**.

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Examples.

- Product state:  $\frac{1}{2} (|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$
- Entangled state:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$

# Important states and conventions

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- Two-qubit Bell states

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle - |11\rangle)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle + |10\rangle)$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle - |10\rangle)$$

(They form a maximally entangled basis, known as the Bell basis, of the four-dimensional Hilbert space for two qubits.)

- Superposition states

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

$$|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

- Sometimes one writes  $|\Phi_1\rangle |\Phi_2\rangle$ , which is short hand for  $|\Phi_1\rangle \otimes |\Phi_2\rangle$ .

# Quantum evolution

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Postulate 2 [Nielsen and Chuang(2000), page 81]

The evolution of a closed quantum system is described by a unitary transformation. That is, the state  $|\Phi\rangle$  of the system at time  $t_1$  is related to the state  $|\Phi'\rangle$  of the system at time  $t_2$  by a **unitary operator**  $U$  which depends only on the times  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ ,

$$|\Phi'\rangle = U |\Phi\rangle \tag{10}$$

## Operations on qubits

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An operation applied by a quantum computer, which is also called a **gate**, to  $n$  qubits is a **unitary matrix**  $\mathbb{C}^{2^n \times 2^n}$ .

- A matrix is  $U$  unitary, if  $U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = I$ .
- Unitary matrices are norm-preserving, i.e.,  $\|U|\Phi\rangle\| = \||\Phi\rangle\|$ . This means that we get back a quantum state, which is a unit vector.
- Quantum operations are linear.
- Quantum operations are reversible.

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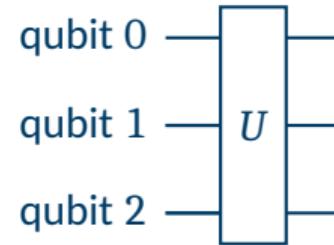
This seems restrictive at first, but:

- A universal quantum computer is Turing-complete [Deutsch(1985)].
- All computations (including classical computations) can be made reversible [Bennett(1973)].

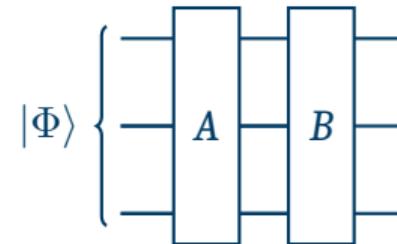
# Notation for quantum circuits

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Wires represent qubits and gates are operations:



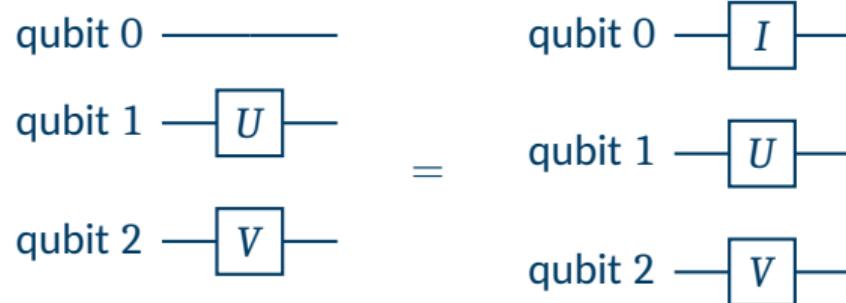
Serially wired gates. The state  $BA|\Phi\rangle$  is represented as:



# Notation for quantum circuits

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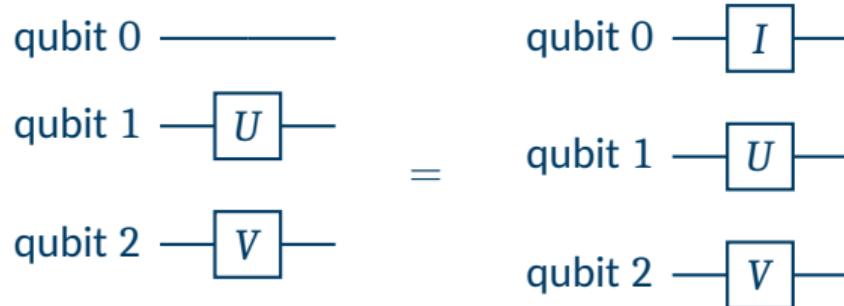
Parallel gates:



# Notation for quantum circuits

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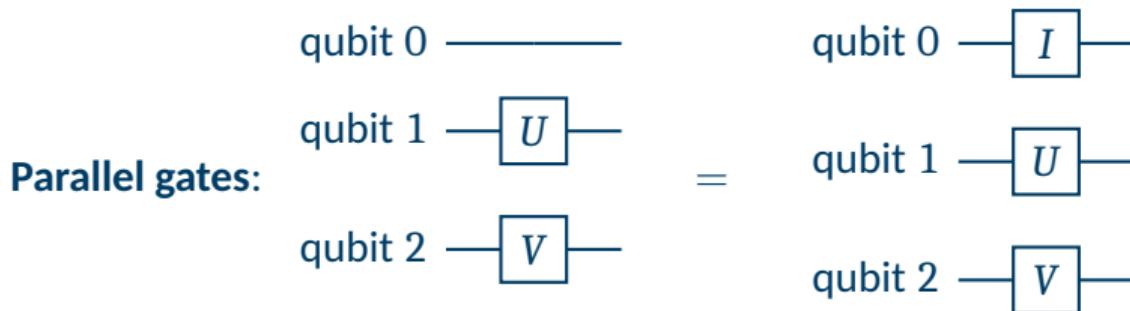
Parallel gates:



- If we have a product state  $|\psi_0\rangle \otimes |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle$  then we have

$$(I \otimes U \otimes V) |\psi_0\rangle \otimes |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle \otimes U |\psi_1\rangle \otimes V |\psi_2\rangle \quad (11)$$

# Notation for quantum circuits



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- But for a general (entangled) state  $|\Psi\rangle$  the action of  $I \otimes U \otimes V$  cannot be determined in such a simple way. We need to explicitly calculate the effect of the  $2^n \times 2^n$  matrix on the state  $|\Psi\rangle$ . This is essentially the reason why we in general need exponential amounts of memory (or time) to keep track of the full state in  $2^n$ -dimensional complex space.

## Examples of 1 qubit gates

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- Hadamard gate  $H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . We have that  $H^2 = I$ ,  $H|0\rangle = |+\rangle$ ,  $H|1\rangle = |-\rangle$ ,  $H|+\rangle = |0\rangle$ ,  $H|-\rangle = |1\rangle$ .
- Pauli gates  $X = \sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . We have that  $X^2 = I$ ,  $X|0\rangle = |1\rangle$ ,  $X|1\rangle = |0\rangle$ ,  $X|+\rangle = |+\rangle$ ,  $X|-\rangle = -|-\rangle$ .
- Pauli gates  $Y = \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . We have that  $Y^2 = I$ ,  $Y|0\rangle = i|1\rangle$ ,  $Y|1\rangle = -i|0\rangle$ .
- Pauli gates  $Z = \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ . We have that  $Z^2 = I$ ,  $Z|0\rangle = |0\rangle$ ,  $Z|1\rangle = -|1\rangle$ .
- Phase shift gates  $R_\Phi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\Phi} \end{pmatrix}$ .
- Square root of NOT gate  $\sqrt{X} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1+i & 1-i \\ 1-i & 1+i \end{pmatrix}$ . We have that  $\sqrt{X}\sqrt{X} = X$ .
- ...

## Examples of 2 qubit gates

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- controlled not gate  $CNOT = CX = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} =$  

It has the effect

$$CNOT |00\rangle = |00\rangle, CNOT |01\rangle = |01\rangle, CNOT |10\rangle = |11\rangle, CNOT |11\rangle = |10\rangle.$$

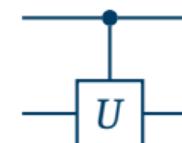
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- controlled  $U$  gate  $CU = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & u_{00} & u_{01} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{10} & u_{11} \end{pmatrix} =$  

## Examples of 2 qubit gates

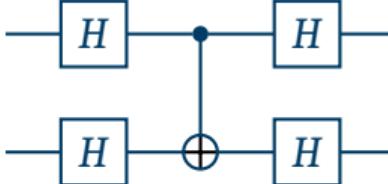
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- controlled not gate  $CNOT = CX = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ \bullet \\ \text{---} \\ \oplus \\ \text{---} \end{array}$

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

## Universal quantum gate sets

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A set  $G$  of quantum gates universal if one can approximate any unitary transformation on any number of qubits with gates from  $G$  to any desired precision  $\varepsilon$ , i.e. there is a sequence of gates  $g_1, \dots, g_k \in G$ , such that

$$\|U - U_k \dots U_2 U_1\| \leq \varepsilon. \quad (12)$$

- The operator norm is defined by  $\|U - U'\| = \max_{|v\rangle, \text{with } \| |v\rangle \| = 1} \| (U - U') |v\rangle \|$ .
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Examples of universal gate sets:

- $G = \{CNOT, H, S = R_{\pi/2}, T = R_{\pi/4}\}$
- $G = \{CNOT, U(\theta, \phi, \lambda)\}$ , where  $U(\theta, \phi, \lambda) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i(\phi+\lambda)/2} \cos(\theta/2) & -e^{-i(\phi-\lambda)/2} \sin(\theta/2) \\ e^{i(\phi-\lambda)/2} \sin(\theta/2) & e^{i(\phi+\lambda)/2} \sin(\theta/2) \end{pmatrix}$

## Solovay-Kitaev theorem

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Let  $G$  be a universal gate set that is closed under inverses (i.e. if  $g \in G$  then  $g^{-1} \in G$ ) for  $SU(n)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  a desired accuracy. Then there is a constant  $c$  such that for any  $U \in SU(n)$  there exists a finite sequence  $S$  of gates from  $G$  of length  $\mathcal{O}(\log^c(1/\varepsilon))$  such that  $d(U, S) < \varepsilon$ .

This SK algorithm provides a proof of the theorem and an algorithm to find the sequence  $S$  efficiently on a classical computer with running time  $\mathcal{O}(\log^{2.71}(1/\varepsilon))$ .

## Computational complexity

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For an efficient algorithm we require that the circuit contains polynomially many gates in the number of qubits  $n$  and each gate has a compact representation in the universal gate set provided by the quantum computer.

# Gottesman-Knill theorem

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**Beware!** A quantum circuit using only the following elements can be simulated efficiently on a classical computer:

- Preparation of qubits in computational basis states,
- Quantum gates from the Clifford group (Hadamard gates, controlled NOT gates, Phase Gate), and
- Measurements in the computational basis.

# How do we obtain information?

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Postulate 3 [Nielsen and Chuang(2000), page 84]

Quantum measurements are described by a collection  $\{M_m\}$  of measurement operators.  
[...] If the state of the quantum system is  $|\psi\rangle$  immediately before the measurement then the probability that result  $m$  occurs is given by

$$p(m) = \langle \psi | M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi \rangle \quad (13)$$

and the state of the system after the measurement is

$$\frac{M_m |\psi\rangle}{|M_m |\psi\rangle|} = \frac{M_m |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}. \quad (14)$$

The measurement operators satisfy the completeness equation  $\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = I$ .

# Measurement

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- The completeness equation expresses the fact that probabilities sum to one:

$$\sum_m p(m) = \sum_m \langle \psi | M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1 \quad (15)$$

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- An important example is "measurement of a qubit in the **computational basis**:

$M_0 = |0\rangle\langle 0|$ ,  $M_1 = |1\rangle\langle 1|$ . Notice  $M_i^\dagger = M_i$ , and  $M_i M_i = M_i$  for  $i \in \{0, 1\}$ . Given a state  $|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ , we have that

- $p(0) = \langle \psi | M_0^\dagger M_0 | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | M_0 | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | \psi \rangle = \bar{a} \langle 0 | 0 \rangle \langle 0 | 0 \rangle a = |a|^2$ , and the state after measurement is  $M_0 |\psi\rangle / |a| = a / |a| |0\rangle = e^{i\theta_a} |0\rangle$ .
- $p(1) = |b|^2$  and the resulting state is  $b / |b| |1\rangle = e^{i\theta_b} |1\rangle$

- Measurement w.r.t. to the  $|\pm\rangle$  basis.

$$\tilde{M}_0 = 1/\sqrt{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \tilde{M}_1 = 1/\sqrt{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $p(0) = 1/2(\bar{a} + \bar{b})(a + b)$ , and the state after measurement is  $\frac{a+b}{\sqrt{2p(0)}} |0\rangle$ .
- $p(1) = 1/2(\bar{a} - \bar{b})(a - b)$  and the resulting state is  $\frac{a-b}{\sqrt{2p(1)}} |1\rangle$

# Measurement

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- Let's say we want to measure a state  $|\psi\rangle$  in the basis given by a set of orthonormal vectors  $u_i$ .
- However, we can only "physically" measure in the computational basis  $P_i = |i\rangle \langle i|$ .

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Idea: Apply basis change to computational basis before measurement.

The way to achieve this is to construct the unitary matrix  $U$ , where the columns consist of the vectors  $u_i$  and apply the inverse of  $U$  before measurement.

$$p_U(m) = \langle \psi | U P_m^\dagger P_m U^\dagger | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi' | P_m^\dagger P_m | \psi' \rangle, \quad \text{with } |\psi'\rangle = U^\dagger |\psi\rangle. \quad (16)$$

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This is how we ended up with the matrices  $\widetilde{M}_0, \widetilde{M}_1$  on the previous slide.

# Measurement

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- A word of caution: It is wrong to think of a quantum state as a probability distribution.
- Coefficients are complex numbers unrestricted in sign, but probabilities are real, positive numbers.
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- Coefficients are complex numbers unrestricted in sign, but probabilities are real, positive numbers.
- A quantum state **induces** a probability distribution through measurement.
- Measurement is **irreversible**.
- Global phase: Consider  $|\phi\rangle = e^{-i\theta} |\psi\rangle$ . Then we have

$$p(m) = \langle \phi | M_m^\dagger M_m | \phi \rangle = e^{i\theta} \langle \psi | M_m^\dagger M_m e^{-i\theta} | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi \rangle \quad (17)$$

## Expectation value of an observable

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Given a state  $|\phi\rangle$  and an observable  $A$ , the expectation value of  $A$  in the state  $\phi$  is given by

$$\langle A \rangle_\phi := \langle \phi | A | \phi \rangle = \sum_i \lambda_i |\langle \phi | \psi_i \rangle|^2. \quad (18)$$

Here,  $A$  is a self-adjoint operator on the Hilbert space  $\mathbb{C}^{\otimes n}$ , and  $\{\lambda_i, |\psi_i\rangle\}$  is the set of eigenvalues and eigenvectors of  $A$ .

## No-cloning principle

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Let  $|\phi\rangle$  be an arbitrary quantum state on  $n$  qubits.  
There is no unitary matrix that maps  $|\phi\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  to  $|\phi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle$ .

# No-cloning principle

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Let  $|\phi\rangle$  be an arbitrary quantum state on  $n$  qubits.

$\nexists$  a unitary matrix that maps  $|\phi\rangle \otimes |0\rangle$  to  $|\phi\rangle \otimes |\phi\rangle$ .

Proof.

Suppose there exists such a  $U$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} U|\phi_1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle &= |\phi_1\rangle \otimes |\phi_1\rangle \\ U|\phi_2\rangle \otimes |0\rangle &= |\phi_2\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle\phi_1|\phi_2\rangle &= \langle\phi_1|\phi_2\rangle \langle 0|0\rangle = (\langle\phi_1| \otimes \langle 0|)(|\phi_2\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) \\ &= (\langle\phi_1| \otimes \langle 0|)U^\dagger U(|\phi_2\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = (\langle\phi_1| \otimes \langle\phi_1|)(|\phi_2\rangle \otimes |\phi_2\rangle) = \langle\phi_1|\phi_2\rangle^2 \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

This is only true if  $\langle\phi_1|\phi_2\rangle$  is 0 or 1. So  $|\phi_1\rangle$ ,  $|\phi_2\rangle$  are not general states.



Technology for a better society

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