# **Elementary Notions**

# **Complex Numbers**

 $\mathbb C$  is the field of complex numbers:  $\alpha=a+b\cdot i$  with a and b reals and i the **imaginary** number :  $i^2=-1$ 

We denote :  $\overline{\alpha} = a - b \cdot i$  called the **complex conjugate** of  $\alpha$ .

$$|\alpha| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$
 absolute value of  $\alpha$ 

$$|\alpha|^2 = \alpha \cdot \overline{\alpha}$$

because

$$\alpha \cdot \overline{\alpha} = (a + b \cdot i)(a - b \cdot i) = a^2 + ab \cdot i - ab \cdot i + (b \cdot i)(-b \cdot i) = a^2 - i^2 \cdot b^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

#### Radial representation of complex numbers

$$\alpha = |\alpha| \cdot \left( \frac{a}{|\alpha|} + \frac{b}{|\alpha|} \cdot i \right)$$
on a  $\left( \frac{a}{|\alpha|} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{b}{|\alpha|} \right)^2 = 1$ 

So there is an angle  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi[$  such that  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{a}{|\alpha|}$  and  $\sin(\theta) = \frac{b}{|\alpha|}$   $\alpha = |\alpha| \cdot (\cos(\theta) + \sin(\theta) \cdot i)$ 

Also: 
$$cos(\theta) + i \cdot sin(\theta) = e^{i\theta}$$

Why?

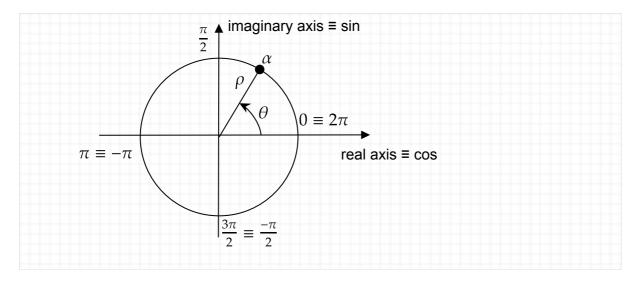
On a 
$$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$
  $\cos(\theta) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\theta^{2n}}{(2n)!}$   $\sin(\theta) = \sum_n (-1)^n \frac{\theta^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$ 

One can try to do

$$e^{i\theta} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(i\theta)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{i^n \theta^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\theta^{2n}}{(2n)!} + i \cdot \sum_n (-1)^n \frac{\theta^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

$$= \cos(\theta) + i \cdot \sin(\theta)$$

Our complex number can then be written as a "canonical" form  $\alpha = \rho \cdot e^{i\theta}$  with  $\rho$  positive real : the **amplitude** of  $\alpha$ , while  $\theta$  is the **phase** 



$$i = e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}$$

$$-1 = e^{i\pi} = e^{-i\pi}$$

Some equalities :  $e^{a+b}=e^ae^b$   $\overline{e^a}=e^{\overline{a}}$  --- in particular, if  $\theta$  is real :  $\overline{e^{i\theta}}=e^{-i\theta}$ 

Yet another one :  $e^{ab} = (e^a)^b$ 

### Hilbert spaces

In this course, vectorial spaces have in finite dimension!

For us : we choose a **basis**, that is, a set X, for instance  $\left\{|0\rangle,|1\rangle\right\}$  (for now, just notation for set elements) --  $|\dots\rangle$  is called a **"ket"** One can say that  $|0\rangle$  = "false" and  $|1\rangle$  = "true"

From *X* one can build the set of linear combinations on *X*:

$$v = \sum_{x \in X} \alpha_x \cdot x$$

with  $\alpha_x \in \mathbb{C}$ 

These are formal linear combinations, but they behave in the usual way:

$$id w = \sum_{x \in X} \beta_x \cdot x$$

then 
$$v + w = \sum_{x \in X} (\alpha_x + \beta_x) \cdot x$$

we also have 0, the empty linear combination :  $0 = \sum_{x \in X} 0 \cdot x$ 

and scalar multiplication is distributive  $\beta \cdot v = \sum_{x \in X} (\beta \alpha_x) \cdot x$ 

When X is  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , we get :  $|v\rangle = \alpha \cdot |0\rangle + \beta \cdot |1\rangle$ 

(The "ket" notation is also used for vectors)

With the lexicographic ordering on X, :  $|0\rangle < |1\rangle$  one can represent  $|v\rangle$  as a column vector

$$|v\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$
 Thus  $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$  and  $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ 

A Hilbert space is a vector space with a **scalar product** and a **norm** In two dimensions:

$$\left\langle \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha_1 \\ \beta_1 \end{array} \right) \middle| \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{array} \right) \right\rangle = \overline{\alpha_1} \cdot \alpha_2 + \overline{\beta_1} \cdot \beta_2$$

and the norm of v is  $||v|| = \sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$ 

So in particular

$$||\alpha \cdot |0\rangle + \beta \cdot |1\rangle|| = \sqrt{\left\langle \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array} \right) \left| \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array} \right) \right\rangle} = \sqrt{\overline{\alpha}\alpha + \overline{\beta}\beta} = \sqrt{|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2}$$

From the scalar product we derive a notion of **orthogonality**:

we say that  $v \perp w$  when  $\langle v | w \rangle = 0$ 

For instance,  $|0\rangle \perp |1\rangle$ 

A basis is **orthonormal** if all of its elements are pairwise orthogonal and if they are all of norm 1.

For instance,  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  is an orthonormal basis.

In a Hilbert space we usually only consider orthonormal bases.

Note:  $|v\rangle$  is always a column vector. Scalar product of  $v=\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1\\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$  with  $w=\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_2\\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$  is

written

$$\left\langle \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha_1 \\ \beta_1 \end{array} \right) \middle| \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{array} \right) \right\rangle = \overline{\alpha_1} \cdot \alpha_2 + \overline{\beta_1} \cdot \beta_2 = \left( \overline{\alpha_1} \ \overline{\beta_1} \right) \cdot \left( \begin{array}{c} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{array} \right)$$

So we can say that  $\langle v|w\rangle=\langle v|\cdot|w\rangle$  where  $\langle v|$  is the row-vector, conjugate transpose of  $|v\rangle$ 

We call  $\langle v |$  a "bra"

"bra"'s are row-vectors while "ket"'s are column vectors.

Example of orthonormal basis:

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

Are they orthogonal?

$$\langle +|\cdot|-\rangle = \frac{1}{2} \Big( \Big( \langle 0|+\langle 1|\Big) \cdot \Big( |0\rangle - |1\rangle \Big) \Big) = \frac{1}{2} (1-1) = 0$$
  
So yes...

Another example:

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

To conclude:

The state of a qubit is of the form  $\alpha \cdot |0\rangle + \beta \cdot |1\rangle$  of **norm 1** so  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$  in general, modulo a **global phase**,  $\cos(\theta/2) \cdot |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin(\theta/2) \cdot |1\rangle$  with  $\theta, \phi \in [0, 2\pi[$ 

Finally, one can work with qu-n-bits with more than 2 valeurs :  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |2\rangle... |n\rangle\}$ 

## Tensor (Kronecker Product)

Morally, when given 2 qubits, the two corresponding particles are spacially separated.

The state of the joint system ends up being a vector in the tensor product of the two original systems.

If first qubit state space is spanned with  $|0_a\rangle$ ,  $|1_a\rangle$  and second qubit state space spanned with  $|0_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_b\rangle$ 

then the space of the two qubits in the tensor space is spanned with

$$|0_a0_b\rangle$$
,  $|0_a1_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_a0_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_a1_b\rangle$ 

(of dimention 4)

With a third qubit  $|0_c\rangle$ ,  $|1_c\rangle$ 

The global state spave is

$$|0_c0_a0_b\rangle$$
,  $|0_c0_a1_b\rangle$ ,  $|0_c1_a0_b\rangle$ ,  $|0_c1_a1_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_c0_a0_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_c0_a1_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_c1_a0_b\rangle$ ,  $|1_c1_a1_b\rangle$  (dimension... 8)

If I have n qubits, the memory state is of dimension  $2^n$ : the superposition of all possible chains of n bits.

Question : how to denote this with column vector ? We need an ordering on the basis. We pick the lexicographic ordering: in the case of the 3-qbit system, we had c then a then b, so if  $\mathcal{H}_a$  is the state of the a-qubit (etc), the state  $\mathcal{H}_c \otimes \mathcal{H}_a \otimes \mathcal{H}_b$ 

$$|0_{c}0_{a}0_{b}\rangle, |0_{c}0_{a}1_{b}\rangle, |0_{c}1_{a}0_{b}\rangle, |0_{c}1_{a}1_{b}\rangle, |1_{c}0_{a}0_{b}\rangle, |1_{c}0_{a}1_{b}\rangle, |1_{c}1_{a}0_{b}\rangle, |1_{c}1_{a}1_{b}\rangle$$

$$|\alpha_{000}\rangle \langle \alpha_{001}\rangle \langle \alpha_{011}\rangle \langle \alpha_{010}\rangle \langle \alpha_{101}\rangle \langle \alpha_{101}\rangle \langle \alpha_{111}\rangle \langle \alpha_{110}\rangle \langle \alpha_{111}\rangle \langle \alpha_{111}\rangle$$

If qubits a and b are in states 
$$|a\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 et  $|b\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$ 

The memory state with a AND b will be

$$|a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle = (\alpha_1|0_a\rangle + \beta_1|1_a\rangle) \otimes (\alpha_2|0_b\rangle + \beta_2|1_b\rangle) = (\alpha_1\alpha_2) \cdot |0_a0_b\rangle + \dots$$
 where  $|0_a0_b\rangle \equiv |0_a\rangle \otimes |0_b\rangle$ 

In column vector notation:

$$|a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 |b\rangle \\ \beta_1 |b\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix} \\ \beta_1 \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \alpha_2 \\ \alpha_1 \beta_2 \\ \beta_1 \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 \beta_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note :  $||v \otimes w|| = ||v|| \cdot ||w||$ 

And  $\langle v_1 \otimes w_1 \, | \, v_2 \otimes w_2 \rangle = \langle v_1 \, | \, v_2 \rangle \cdot \langle w_1 \, | \, w_2 \rangle$  if the dimensions of  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are the same, et and the dimensions of  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are the same.

For instance :  $\langle 01|00\rangle = \langle 0|0\rangle\langle 1|0\rangle = 0$  (they are orthogonal)