

QUANTUM COMPUTING AND INFORMATION

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Introduction To Quantum Mechanics

SECTION 1

Linear Algebra

Fundamental objects in Linear Algebra are **Vectors Spaces**.

Elements of vector space are **vectors**, denoted by column matrix notation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Standard quantum mechanics notation for vector is $|\psi\rangle$, sometimes called *ket*. Vector Spaces also contain a special *zero vector* 0.

Multiplication by scalar and Addition Operations are defined on a vector space, with the vector space being closed under these operations.

Definition 1 Vector Subspaces: W is a vector subspace of vector space V if $W \subset V$ and W is itself a vector space.

Definition 2 Spanning Set of vector space V : A set of vectors $|v_1\rangle, \dots, |v_n\rangle$ such that any vector $|v\rangle$ in V can be written as linear combination $|v\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i |v_i\rangle$

Definition 3 Linear Dependence: A set of vectors $|v_1\rangle, \dots, |v_n\rangle$ are said to be linearly dependent if there exists a set of scalars a_1, \dots, a_n (with at least one being non-zero) such that $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i |v_i\rangle = 0$

Definition 4 Basis of Vector Space V : A spanning set of vector space which is linearly independent.
Note: Any basis of given vector space will have same number of elements. The number of elements in any basis is called *dimension* of vector space.

Definition 5 Linear Operator (Denoted by $A|v\rangle$): Defined as a function A from vector spaces $V \rightarrow W$ which is linear in inputs:

$$A\left(\sum_i a_i |v_i\rangle\right) = \sum_i a_i A(|v_i\rangle)$$

The most common example of vector spaces is \mathbb{C}^n , the space of all n-tuples (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n) , $z_i \in \mathbb{C}$

A set of vectors are linearly independent iff $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i |v_i\rangle = 0 \implies a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_n = 0$ i.e., if it is not a linearly dependent set.

Two important linear operators are:

- Identity Operator I_V or I : $I|v\rangle \equiv |v\rangle$
- Zero Operator 0: $0|v\rangle \equiv 0$

Another interpretation is that of matrix multiplication, with A being a $m \times n$ matrix and $|v\rangle$ being a $n \times 1$ column matrix being mapped to $m \times 1$ column matrix. The matrix $[A_{ij}]$ is determined by the input and output bases of V and W as follows:

$$A|v_j\rangle = \sum_i A_{ij}|w_i\rangle$$

Both the viewpoints for linear operators are equivalent.

Composition Notation:

$$BA|v\rangle \equiv B(A(|v\rangle))$$

SUBSECTION 1.1

Pauli Matrices

$$\sigma_0 \equiv I \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_1 \equiv \sigma_x \equiv X \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_2 \equiv \sigma_y \equiv Y \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_3 \equiv \sigma_z \equiv Z \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

SUBSECTION 1.2

Inner Products

A function which takes two vectors $|v\rangle$ and $|w\rangle$ from a space as input, and gives a complex number as output.

Notations: $(|v\rangle, |w\rangle)$ OR $\langle v|w\rangle$

Remark The notation $\langle v|$ is used for dual vector of $|v\rangle$. The dual is a linear operator from inner product space V to \mathbb{C} defined by

$$\langle v|(|w\rangle) \equiv \langle v|w \equiv (|v\rangle, |w\rangle)$$

Conditions for a function from $V \times V$ to \mathbb{C} to be inner product:

- $(|v\rangle, \sum \lambda_i |w_i\rangle) = \sum \lambda_i (|v\rangle, |w_i\rangle)$
- $(|v\rangle, |w\rangle) = (|w^*\rangle, |v^*\rangle)$
- $(|v\rangle, |v\rangle) \geq 0$ with equality only when $|v\rangle = 0$

A vector space equipped with inner product is called *Inner Product Space*, which is equivalent to *Hilbert Space* for the case of finite dimensional vector spaces.

Two vectors are orthogonal if their inner product is zero.

The norm of vector $\|v\| \equiv \sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$. A *unit vector* has norm 1. A set of unit vectors which are pairwise orthogonal is called *orthonormal set*.

Matrix Representation of Inner Product in Hilbert Space

Consider a Hilbert Space with a orthonormal basis $|i\rangle$. Let $|w\rangle = \sum_i w_i |i\rangle$ and $|v\rangle = \sum_j v_j |j\rangle$. Then the inner product will be:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle v|w\rangle &= \left(\sum_j v_j |j\rangle, \sum_i w_i |i\rangle \right) \\ &= \sum_{ij} v_j^* w_i \delta_{ij} \\ &= \sum_i v_i^* w_i \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} v_1^* & \cdots & v_n^* \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

Remark An interpretation of dual vector $\langle v|$ from above is the conjugate transpose of matrix representation of $|v\rangle$

Definition 6 Outer Product ($|w\rangle\langle v|$): A linear operator from V to W with action:

$$|w\rangle\langle v| (|v'\rangle) \equiv |w\rangle \langle v|v'\rangle = \langle v|v'\rangle |w\rangle$$

Completeness Relation

Consider a Hilbert Space V with orthonormal basis $|i\rangle$. Let $v = \sum_i v_i |i\rangle$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| (|v\rangle) &= \sum_i |i\rangle \langle i|v\rangle \\ &= \sum_i |i\rangle v_i \\ &= v\end{aligned}$$

Which implies:

$$\boxed{\sum_i |i\rangle\langle i| = I}$$

SUBSECTION 1.3

Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

Definition 7 For a linear operator A , a non-zero vector $|v\rangle$ which satisfies $A|v\rangle = v|v\rangle$ is known as its eigenvector with eigenvalue v .

Eigenspace of an eigenvalue v is the set of vectors which have eigenvalue v . It is a vector subspace of vector space on which A acts.

When an eigenstate has more than one dimensions, it is called *degenerate*.

Diagonal Representation of Operator

Definition 8 An operator A is said to be diagonalisable if it can be *represented* as $A = \sum \lambda_i |i\rangle\langle i|$, where $|i\rangle$ is an orthonormal set of eigenvectors of A with eigenvalues λ_i

SUBSECTION 1.4

Adjoint and Hermitian Operators

For any linear operator A on a Hilbert Space V , there exists a unique linear operator A^\dagger (called *adjoint* or *Hermitian conjugate*) such that

$$(|v\rangle, A|w\rangle) = (A^\dagger|v\rangle, |w\rangle)$$

For vectors, it is defined as: $|v\rangle^\dagger = \langle v|$

In matrix representation,

$$A^\dagger = (A^*)^T$$

(transpose of conjugate)

A is *Hermitian* or *self-adjoint* if $A = A^\dagger$

Projectors

Definition 9 Consider a k -dimensional vector subspace W of d -dimensional vector space V . We can construct an orthonormal basis $|1\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle$ of V and its subset $|1\rangle, \dots, |k\rangle$ as orthonormal basis of W . Then the projector P onto W is defined as:

$$P \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k |i\rangle\langle i|$$

The *orthogonal complement* of P is defined as $Q \equiv I - P$, and is a projector of span of $|k+1\rangle, \dots, |d\rangle$.

An operator is *normal* if $A^\dagger A = AA^\dagger$.

This definition is independent of choice of orthonormal basis used for W .

Theorem 1 Spectral Theorem

Every Normal Operator M has a diagonal representation wrt some orthonormal basis. Conversely, any diagonalisable operator is normal.

PROOF Proof by Induction for dimension d of vector space V :

The theorem is true for $d = 1$ ($Mv_1 = v_1 \implies M = I$).

Let M have an eigenvalue λ . Let P be projector onto eigenspace of λ , and Q be the orthogonal complement. Then,

$$M = (P + Q)M(P + Q) = PMP + QMP + PMQ + QMQ$$

Using $MP = \lambda P$, $PMP = \lambda P^2 = \lambda P$ (implying it is diagonal) and $QMP = \lambda QP = 0$.

Let $|v\rangle$ be a vector in subspace P . Then, $MM^\dagger P = M^\dagger MP = \lambda M^\dagger |v\rangle$. Hence $M^\dagger |v\rangle$ is eigenvector with eigenvalue λ . Hence $QM^\dagger P = 0$. Taking adjoint, $PMQ = 0$

Hence

$$M = PMP + QMQ$$

Now, $QM = QM(P + Q) = QMQ$ and $QM^\dagger = QM^\dagger Q$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
 QMQQM^\dagger Q &= QMQM^\dagger Q \\
 &= QMM^\dagger Q \\
 &= QM^\dagger MQ \\
 &= QM^\dagger QMQ \\
 &= QM^\dagger QMQMQ
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence QMQ is normal. By hypothesis of induction, it is diagonal. And PMP is already diagonal. Hence M is diagonal. \square

A matrix U is said to be unitary if $UU^\dagger = U^\dagger U = I$. An operator is unitary iff each of its matrix representation is unitary.

Remark Unitary Operators preserve inner product between vectors, i.e.,

$$(U|v\rangle, U|w\rangle) = \langle v|U^\dagger U|w\rangle = \langle v|w\rangle$$

Positive Operator

Definition 10 An operator A is *positive operator* if $\forall |v\rangle, |v\rangle, A|v\rangle \geq 0$. If it is strictly greater than 0 for all non-zero $|v\rangle$, the operator is called *positive definite*.

Theorem 2 **Hermiticity of Positive Operators**
Every Positive Operator is a Hermitian Operator.

PROOF **Lemma 1:** Any arbitrary operator A can be represented as $B + iC$ with B and C as Hermitian operators.

Proof: $B = \frac{A+A^\dagger}{2}$ and $C = \frac{A-A^\dagger}{2i}$ satisfies both the conditions.

Consider a positive operator $A = B + iC$. Then,

$$(|v\rangle, A|v\rangle) = (|v\rangle, B|v\rangle) + i(|v\rangle, C|v\rangle) = k \in \mathbb{R}$$

Taking adjoint on both sides, and using the fact that B and C are Hermitian,

$$\langle v|(B - iC)|v\rangle = k = \langle v|(B + iC)|v\rangle$$

$$\implies C = 0$$

Hence, $A = B$ which is a Hermitian matrix. \square

SUBSECTION 1.5

Tensor Products

Suppose V and W are Hilbert Spaces of dimensions m and n . Then $V \otimes W$ is a vector space of dimension mn . The vectors of this vector space are linear combination of $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$ (also written as $|v\rangle|w\rangle, |v, w\rangle, |vw\rangle$)

Properties

- For a scalar z , $z|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle = (z|v\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle = |v\rangle \otimes (z|w\rangle)$
- $(|v_1\rangle + |v_2\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle = |v_1\rangle \otimes |w\rangle + |v_2\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$
- $|v\rangle \otimes (|w_1\rangle + |w_2\rangle) = |v\rangle \otimes |w_1\rangle + |v\rangle \otimes |w_2\rangle$

Tensor products for linear operators**Definition 11**

Let A and B be linear operators on V and W respectively.

$$A \otimes B(|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) \equiv (A|v\rangle) \otimes (B|w\rangle)$$

Linearity:

$$A \otimes B \left(\sum_i a_i |v_i\rangle \otimes |w_i\rangle \right) = \sum_i A \otimes B(a_i |v_i\rangle \otimes |w_i\rangle)$$

Inner Product:

$$\left(\sum_i a_i |v_i\rangle \otimes |w_i\rangle, \sum_j b_j |v'_j\rangle \otimes |w'_j\rangle \right) = \sum_{ij} a_i^* b_j \langle v_i | v'_j \rangle \langle w_i | w'_j \rangle$$

Kronecker Product

Let A be $m \times n$ matrix and B be $p \times q$ matrix.

$$A \otimes B \equiv \begin{bmatrix} A_{11}B & A_{12}B & \cdots & A_{1n}B \\ A_{21}B & A_{22}B & \cdots & A_{2n}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ A_{m1}B & A_{m2}B & \cdots & A_{mn}B \end{bmatrix}$$

Notation: $|v\rangle^{\otimes k}$ Implies $|v\rangle$ tensored with itself k times

SUBSECTION 1.6

Operator Functions

Functions like exp, log, square root, etc defined for normal matrices.

Let $A = \sum_a a |a\rangle\langle a|$ be its spectral decomposition. Then,

$$f(A) = \sum_a f(a) |a\rangle\langle a|$$

Trace of Matrix

$$\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i A_{ii}$$

Remark

$$\text{tr}(UAU^\dagger) = \text{tr}(A)$$

Useful identity for calculating Trace of Operator:
 $\text{tr}(A|\psi\rangle\langle\psi|) = \langle\psi|A|\psi\rangle$

Hence trace remains same on unitary transformation of matrix.

So, trace of operator is defined as trace of any of its matrix representation.

SUBSECTION 1.7

Commutator and Anticommutator

Definition 12 Commutator: $[A, B] \equiv AB - BA$
If $[A, B] = 0$, we say A and B *commute*.

Anticommutator: $\{A, B\} \equiv AB + BA$
If $\{A, B\} = 0$, we say A and B *anti-commute*.

Theorem 3 **Simultaneous Diagonalization Theorem:**
Given two Hermitian Matrices A and B . Then $[A, B] = 0$ iff A and B are diagonalisable wrt a common orthonormal basis.

PROOF Let A and B commute. Let $|a, j\rangle$ be an orthonormal basis for the eigenstate V_a of A with eigenvalue a and degeneracy j . Then,

$$AB|a, j\rangle = BA|a, j\rangle = aB|a, j\rangle$$

Implying $B|a, j\rangle$ is in eigenspace of V_a .

Let P_a be projector onto V_a . Define $B_a \equiv P_a B P_a$. Since B_a is Hermitian, it has a spectral decomposition wrt an orthogonal set of eigenvectors $|a, b, k\rangle$, where a labels to eigenvector of A , b to eigenvectors of B_a , and k degeneracy of B_a .

$B|a, b, k\rangle \in V_a \implies B|a, b, k\rangle = P_a B|a, b, k\rangle$ and $P_s|a, b, k\rangle = |a, b, k\rangle$. Hence,

$$B|a, b, k\rangle = P_a B P_a|a, b, k\rangle = B_a|a, b, k\rangle$$

Hence, $|a, b, k\rangle$ is an eigenvector of B . Hence, it is orthonormal set of eigenvalues for both A and B , implying A and B are both simultaneously diagonalisable. \square

SUBSECTION 1.8

Polar and Singular Value Decompositions

Theorem 4 **Polar Decomposition**
Given a linear operator A on V , there exists an unitary U and positive operators $J \equiv \sqrt{A^\dagger A}$ and $K \equiv \sqrt{A A^\dagger}$ such that,

$$A = UJ = KU$$

PROOF $J \equiv \sqrt{A^\dagger A}$ is positive operator, and hence its spectral decomposition $J = \sum_i \lambda_i |i\rangle\langle i|$. Define $|\psi_i\rangle = A|i\rangle \implies \langle\psi_i|\psi_i\rangle = \lambda_i^2$. For non-zero λ_i , define $|e_i\rangle = |\psi_i\rangle/\lambda_i$ and use Gram-Schmidt process to extend this to make an orthonormal basis of V . Then the unitary $U = |e_i\rangle\langle i|$ satisfies $A = UJ$ for basis $|i\rangle$ \square

If A is invertible,
 $U = AJ^{-1}$ is uniquely determined.

Theorem 5 **Singular Value Decomposition**
For a square matrix A , there exists unitary matrices U and V and diagonal matrix D with non-negative entries such that

$$A = UDV$$

The diagonal entries of D are called *Singular Values* of A

PROOF | By polar decomposition $A = SJ$, with J having spectral decomposition $J = TDT^\dagger$. Hence $U = ST$ and $V = T^\dagger$ completes the proof. \square

SECTION 2

Postulates of Quantum Mechanics

SUBSECTION 2.1

Postulate 1

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

Example | The simplest quantum mechanical system is the *qubit*, with a two dimensional state space.
If $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ form an orthonormal basis for this system, any state vector can be represented as:

$$|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$$

with normalisation condition $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1 \implies |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$

In general, $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \alpha_i |\psi_i\rangle$ is called superposition of states $|\psi_i\rangle$ with **amplitudes** α_i

SUBSECTION 2.2

Postulate 2

The evolution of **closed** systems is described by **unitary transformations**, i.e, if $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\psi'\rangle$ are state vectors at time t_1 and t_2 , then,

$$|\psi'\rangle = U|\psi\rangle$$

with U being unitary operator.

Example | Hadamard Gate:
 $H|0\rangle = (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ and $H|1\rangle = (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$.
$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

2.2.1 Postulate 2'

Time Evolution of closed systems is described by **Schrödinger equation**:

$$i\hbar \frac{d|\psi\rangle}{dt} = H|\psi\rangle$$

Spectral decomposition of Hermitian $H = \sum_E E|E\rangle\langle E|$, where $|E\rangle$ are energy eigenstates or stationary states with *energy* E

General Solution:

$$|\psi(t_2)\rangle = \exp\left[\frac{-iH(t_2 - t_1)}{\hbar}\right] |\psi(t_1)\rangle = U(t_1, t_2) |\psi(t_1)\rangle$$

Proof that any operator $U = e^{iK}$ for Hermitian operator K is unitary.

H here is not the Hadamard Operator, but the *Hamiltonian* of the system, which is a Hermitian operator

State with lowest energy is called ground state

PROOF Since K is Hermitian, $K = \sum_a a |a\rangle\langle a|$ with $a \in \mathbb{R}$
Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \sum_a e^{ia} |a\rangle\langle a| \\ U^\dagger &= \sum_a e^{-ia} |a\rangle\langle a| \\ \implies UU^\dagger &= \sum_{i,j} \delta_{ij} |i\rangle\langle j| = I \end{aligned}$$

□

SUBSECTION 2.3

Postulate 3

Quantum measurements are described by a collection $\{M_m\}$ of measurement operators acting on the state space of the system being observed. Given a state $|\psi\rangle$, the probability that result m occurs is

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

and the state right after measurement is

$$\frac{M_m |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\psi| M_m^\dagger M_m |\psi\rangle}}$$

Completeness relation:

$$\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = I$$

An important result from this postulate is that non-orthogonal states cannot be distinguished, i.e., we cannot distinguish between two such states by any using any measurement operator.

Projective Measurements

Observable M , which is a Hermitian operator with a spectral decomposition $M = \sum_m m P_m$ with P_m being projector onto eigenspace of M with eigenvalue m . Upon measuring state $|\psi\rangle$, probability of getting result m is

$$p(m) = \langle\psi| P_m |\psi\rangle$$

The state just after is

$$\frac{P_m |\psi\rangle}{\|P_m |\psi\rangle\|}$$

The average value $E = \sum m p(m) = \langle\psi| M |\psi\rangle = \langle M \rangle$

The standard deviation for the observable $[\Delta M]^2 = \langle (M - \langle M \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle M^2 \rangle - \langle M \rangle^2$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Relationship

$$\Delta C \Delta D \geq \frac{|\langle\psi| [C, D] |\psi\rangle|}{2}$$

POVM Measurements:

Formalism for analysis of only probabilities of measurements and not of the state after measurement. Define, for a measurement operator M_m , a positive operator:

$$E_m \equiv M_m^\dagger M_m$$

Hence, $p(m) = \langle \psi | E_m | \psi \rangle$.

The operators E_m are called POVM *elements* and the set $\{E_m\}$ is called POVM (Positive Operator Value Measure)

SUBSECTION 2.4

Postulate 4

The state space of composite system is the tensor product of the state spaces of composite systems.

Moreover, if we have states $1, 2, \dots, n$ with states $|\psi_i\rangle$, then joint state of total system is $|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$

2.4.1 Entangled States

States of composite system which cannot be expressed as product of its constituent states are called entangled states.

Example

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \neq |a\rangle |b\rangle \quad \text{for all } a, b \text{ as states of individual qubits}$$

Remark

Bell States/Bell Basis:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ & \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ & \frac{|10\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ & \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

SUBSECTION 2.5

Density Operator

Ensembles of Quantum States

Definition 13

Given a quantum system which is in one of the states $|\psi_i\rangle$ with probabilities p_i , we call $\{p_i, |\psi_i\rangle\}$ ensemble of pure states. The density operator (or interchangeably density matrix) is defined as:

$$\rho \equiv \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$$

Time evolution of density operator: $\{p_i, |\psi_i\rangle\} \rightarrow \{p_i, U |\psi_i\rangle\}$.

Hence, $\rho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| \rightarrow \sum_i p_i U |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i| U^\dagger = U \rho U^\dagger$

Probability of measurement:

$$\begin{aligned} p(m|i) &= \langle \psi_i | M_m^\dagger M_m | \psi_i \rangle \\ &= \text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i |) \quad (\text{Identity in sidenotes from trace section}) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $p(m) = \sum p(m|i)p_i$

$$\begin{aligned} p(m) &= p_i \text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M | \psi_i \rangle \langle \psi_i |) \\ &= \text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M \rho) \end{aligned}$$

The density operator just after becomes:

$$\rho' = \frac{M_m \rho M_m^\dagger}{\text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M_m \rho)}$$

Definition 14 **Pure State:** The quantum system is exactly known to be in state $|\psi\rangle$. ($\text{tr}(\rho^2) = 1$)
Mixed State: The quantum system has many states with different probabilities. ($\text{tr}(\rho^2) < 1$)

Properties An operator ρ is density operator associated with an ensemble of states $\{p_i, |\psi_i\rangle\}$ iff it satisfies:

- $\text{tr}(\rho) = 1$
- It is positive operator.

The first part can be directly checked from definition. For converse, any positive operator has a spectral decomposition $\rho = \sum_i \lambda_i |i\rangle \langle i|$ with $\lambda_i > 0$. Trace condition gives $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$. Hence $\{\lambda_i, |i\rangle \langle i|\}$ is an ensemble with ρ as density operator

Postulate 1

Any isolated system is completely described by its *density operator* ρ acting on the state space of the system.

Postulate 2

Time evolution of a system is described by unitary transformations:

$$\rho' = U \rho U^\dagger$$

Postulate 3

Collection $\{M_m\}$ describes measurements on a system.

$$\begin{aligned} p(m) &= \text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M_m \rho) \\ |\psi\rangle' &= \frac{M_m \rho M_m^\dagger}{\text{tr}(M_m^\dagger M_m \rho)} \end{aligned}$$

Postulate 4

State of a composite system is given by:

$$\rho_1 \otimes \rho_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes \rho_n$$

Remark Many **different** ensembles can give rise to same density operator

Theorem 6 **Unitary freedom in the ensemble for density matrices**

Consider $\rho = \sum |\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle\langle\tilde{\psi}_i|$ where $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sqrt{p_i}|\psi_i\rangle$. Then the sets $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle$ and $|\tilde{\varphi}_i\rangle$ give same density operator iff

$$|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sum_j u_{ij} |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle$$

Where u_{ij} is a unitary matrix, and we 'pad' the smaller set with 0 as elements ($p_i = 0$).

PROOF Let $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sum_j u_{ij} |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i |\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle\langle\tilde{\psi}_i| &= \sum_{ijk} u_{ij} u_{ik}^* |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle\langle\tilde{\varphi}_k| \\ &= \sum_{jk} \left(\sum_i u_{ki}^\dagger u_{ij} \right) |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle\langle\tilde{\varphi}_k| \\ &= \sum_{jk} \delta_{kj} |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle\langle\tilde{\varphi}_k| \\ &= \sum_j |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle\langle\tilde{\varphi}_j| \end{aligned}$$

For converse, assume $A = \sum_i |\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle\langle\tilde{\psi}_i| = \sum_j |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle\langle\tilde{\varphi}_j|$

Let $A = \sum \lambda_k |k\rangle\langle k|$ be the spectral decomposition, and let $|\tilde{k}\rangle = \sqrt{\lambda_k} |k\rangle$. Let $|\psi\rangle$ be any vector orthonormal to space spanned by $|\tilde{k}\rangle$. Then,

$$\langle\psi| A |\psi\rangle = 0 = \sum_i \langle\psi|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle \langle\tilde{\psi}_i|\psi\rangle = \sum_i |\langle\tilde{\psi}_i|\psi\rangle|^2$$

Implying $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle$ is orthonormal to $|\psi\rangle$. Hence it can be written as linear combination of $|\tilde{k}\rangle \implies |\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sum_k c_{ik} |\tilde{k}\rangle$

Using $A = \sum_k |\tilde{k}\rangle\langle\tilde{k}| = \sum_i |\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle\langle\tilde{\psi}_i|$,

$$\sum_k |\tilde{k}\rangle\langle\tilde{k}| = \sum_{kl} \left(\sum_i c_{ik} c_{il}^* \right) |\tilde{k}\rangle\langle\tilde{l}|$$

Since $|\tilde{k}\rangle$ and $|\tilde{l}\rangle$ are linearly independent, $\sum_i c_{ik} c_{il}^* = \delta_{kl}$. Hence by adding extra columns if needed and appending 0 to set of $|\tilde{k}\rangle$, we can make c a unitary matrix v such that $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sum_k v_{ik} |\tilde{k}\rangle$. Similary, we can obtain $|\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle$ in same form (let unitary matrix in this case be u). And hence, $|\tilde{\psi}_i\rangle = \sum_j w_{ij} |\tilde{\varphi}_j\rangle$, where $w = vu^\dagger$ \square

2.5.1 Reduced Density Operator

Definition 15 Consider two systems A and B , whose state is described by density operator ρ^{AB} . The reduced density operator for A is defined as

$$\rho^A \equiv \text{tr}_B(\rho^{AB})$$

Where, tr_B is a map of operators

$$\text{tr}_B(|a_1\rangle\langle a_2| \otimes |b_1\rangle\langle b_2|) = |a_1\rangle\langle a_2| \text{tr}(|b_1\rangle\langle b_2|)$$

SUBSECTION 2.6

Schmidt Decomposition

Theorem 7

Given a pure state $|\psi\rangle$ of composite system AB , there exists orthonormal states $|i_A\rangle$ and $|i_B\rangle$ for systems A and B such that:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \lambda_i |i_A\rangle |i_B\rangle$$

Where λ_i are non negative with $\sum_i \lambda_i^2 = 1$, called **Schmidt coefficients**.

The bases i_A and i_B are called **Schmidt Bases** and number of non-zero λ_i is called **Schmidt number**.

Quantum Entanglement:
It is possible that the joint state be a pure state, but the state of individual systems be a mixed state.

Schmidt number quantifies ‘amount’ of entanglement between systems A and B. It remains invariant under unitary transformations.

SUBSECTION 2.7

Purification

Given a state ρ^A of a quantum system A , it is possible to introduce another system R (called *reference system*) and define a pure state $|AR\rangle$ for the joint system AR such that $\rho^A = \text{tr}_R(|AR\rangle\langle AR|)$. This procedure is called **purification** and allows us to associate pure states with mixed states.

Procedure to obtain reference system

Suppose $\rho^A = \sum_i p_i |i^A\rangle\langle i^A|$ (orthonormal decomposition). Now consider system R which has same state space as system A with orthonormal basis states $|i^R\rangle$. Then we define a pure state for the combined system as:

$$|AR\rangle = \sum_i \sqrt{p_i} |i^A\rangle |i^R\rangle$$

Quantum Circuits

SECTION 3

Single Qubit Operations

Operators on a qubit must preserve the norm $\| |\psi\rangle \| = 1$, and hence are 2×2 unitary matrices.

SUBSECTION 3.1

Important Quantum Gates

Pauli Gates

$$X \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad Y \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}; \quad Z \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix};$$

Hadamard Gate

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Phase Gate

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

$\pi/8$ Gate / T Gate

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \exp(i\pi/4) \end{bmatrix}$$

SUBSECTION 3.2

Bloch Sphere Representation

Given state as $|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$, it can be represented on a unit sphere on the point $(\cos(\phi)\sin(\theta), \sin(\phi)\sin(\theta), \cos(\theta))$ with

$$a = \cos(\theta/2)$$

$$b = e^{i\phi} \sin(\theta/2)$$

Rotation about Bloch Sphere

Rotation matrices about $\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}$ axes on Bloch Sphere are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned}
R_x(\theta) &\equiv \exp\left(\frac{-i\theta X}{2}\right) \\
R_Y(\theta) &\equiv \exp\left(\frac{-i\theta Y}{2}\right) \\
R_Z(\theta) &\equiv \exp\left(\frac{-i\theta Z}{2}\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Where the matrices are calculated using following result:

If $A^2 = I$, $\exp(iAx) = \cos(x)I + i\sin(x)A$

Can be proved using Taylor expansion of $\exp(x)$

General Rotation: Rotation about a general $\hat{\theta} \equiv (n_x, n_y, n_z)$ axis is defined as:

$$R_n(\theta) = \exp\left(\frac{-i\theta \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma}}{2}\right)$$

Where $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \equiv n_x X + n_y Y + n_z Z$ and (X, Y, Z) are the Pauli Matrices.

Theorem 8

Z-Y Decomposition of Unitary Matrix

There exists real numbers $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ for any arbitrary unitary matrix U such that:

$$U = e^{i\alpha} R_z(\beta) R_y(\gamma) R_z(\delta)$$

Remark

Any two Pauli Matrices / Two non parallel unit vectors can be taken for decomposition of unitary matrices

Useful Identities to Simplify Circuits:

$$H X H = Z$$

$$H Y H = -Y$$

$$H Z H = X$$

Composition of Operators: If rotation of β_1 about axis \hat{n}_1 is followed by rotation of β_2 about axis \hat{n}_2 , then overall rotation is given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
\cos\left(\frac{\beta_{12}}{2}\right) &= \cos\left(\frac{\beta_1}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{\beta_1}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2}\right) \hat{n}_1 \cdot \hat{n}_2 \\
\sin\left(\frac{\beta_{12}}{2}\right) \hat{n}_{12} &= \sin\left(\frac{\beta_1}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2}\right) \hat{n}_1 + \cos\left(\frac{\beta_1}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2}\right) \hat{n}_2 - \\
&\quad \sin\left(\frac{\beta_1}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\beta_2}{2}\right) \hat{n}_1 \times \hat{n}_2
\end{aligned}$$

SECTION 4

Controlled Operations

SUBSECTION 4.1

CNOT / Controlled-NOT Gate

Two input qubits: *Control qubit* and *Target qubit*, with the action of cnot gate on computational basis is given by:

$$|c\rangle |t\rangle \rightarrow |c\rangle |t \oplus c\rangle$$

that is, flip the second qubit only if first qubit is $|1\rangle$. The matrix representation is:

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

and the circuit representation is:



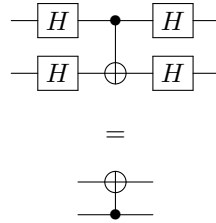
The top qubit represents control qubit and bottom target qubit

More generally, a controlled U operator on two qubits has a action on computational basis such that U is applied to target qubit only if control qubit is $|1\rangle$, represented by

$$|c\rangle |t\rangle \rightarrow |c\rangle U^c |t\rangle$$



Remark



SUBSECTION 4.2

Representing General Controlled Gates using CNOT and single qubit gates

Theorem 9 Any unitary operator U can be represented as

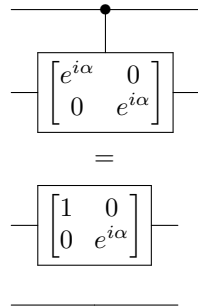
$$U = e^{i\alpha} A X B X C$$

where X is the Pauli X gate and $ABC = I$

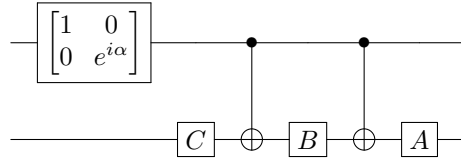
To construct a controlled U gate, first step: Apply controlled phase shift $\exp(i\alpha)$ on target qubit:

$$|00\rangle \rightarrow |00\rangle \quad |01\rangle \rightarrow |01\rangle \quad |10\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} |10\rangle \quad |11\rangle \rightarrow e^{i\alpha} |11\rangle$$

which can be achieved by single qubit gate as:



Next Apply C on target qubit, CNOT, B on target qubit, CNOT and A on target qubit. Result is such that if control qubit is $|0\rangle$, $ABC = I$ is applied to target qubit, else $AXBXC$ is applied.

**Definition 16**

Consider $n + k$ qubits and U , a k qubit unitary operator. We define controlled $C^n(U)$ operator with $|x_1\rangle, |x_2\rangle, \dots, |x_n\rangle$ as control qubits (that is, in computational basis, apply U only if all control qubits are $|1\rangle$) by the equation:

$$C^n(U) |x_1 x_2 \dots x_n\rangle |\psi\rangle = |x_1 x_2 \dots x_n\rangle U^{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n} |\psi\rangle$$

Example

A $C^2(U)$ gate can be implemented as follows using single qubit unitary operator V such that $V^2 = U$

