

SORBONNE UNIVERSITE

MASTER 1 - QUANTUM INFORMATION

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Lecture notes
-
Quantum Kinematic



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1 Introduction

Physical system which has $d \in \mathbb{N}$ possible distinguishable states. Its physical state $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$, the Hilbert space \mathbb{C}^d .

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \psi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_d \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \forall i, \psi_i \in \mathbb{C}. \quad (1)$$

The result of the measurement in the computational basis on $|\psi\rangle$ is $i \in [1, \dots, d]$ with probability $|\psi_i|^2$.

And $\sum_{i=1}^d |\psi_i|^2 = \langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$: the state is normalized.

1.1 Dirac notation

- Ket:

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \psi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi_d \end{bmatrix} = \psi_1 |1\rangle + \dots + \psi_d |d\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^d \psi_i |i\rangle \quad (2)$$

- Bra:

$$\langle\psi| = |\psi\rangle^\dagger = |\psi^*\rangle^T \quad (3)$$

- Bracket:

$$\langle\psi|\phi\rangle = [\psi_1^* \dots \psi_d^*] \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \vdots \\ \phi_d \end{bmatrix} = \psi_1^* \phi_1 + \dots + \psi_d^* \phi_d \quad (4)$$

$\langle\psi|\phi\rangle$ is the hermitian product of ψ and ϕ .

1.2 Measurement in a basis B

B is an orthonormal basis : $B := \{|b_i\rangle\}_{i=1}^d$. B has the following properties:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall i \langle b_i | b_i \rangle &= \delta_{i,i} \quad (\text{orthonormality}) \\ \sum_{i=1}^d |b_i\rangle \langle b_i| &= I \quad (\text{completeness}) \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

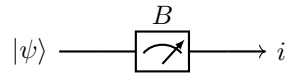


Figure 1: Circuit representation of the measurement of the state $|\psi\rangle$

The probability of the output of a measurement is given by the following formula :

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{out} = |b_i\rangle) = |\langle b_i | \psi \rangle|^2 \quad (6)$$

The physical object is projected into the state $|b_i\rangle$, this is physically called the "wave packet reduction".

1.2.1 Qubit

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \quad (8)$$

1.2.2 Measurement in the basis $\{|\pm\rangle\}$

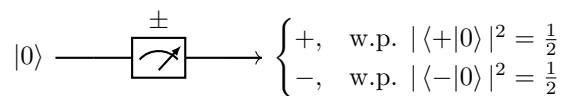


Figure 2: Measure of the state $|0\rangle$ in the basis $|\pm\rangle$

1.3 Wiesner's Quantum Money

Based on the conjugate coding.

- **bills:**
 - serial number
 - a set of random qubit $E_r \in \{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |+\rangle, |-\rangle\}^n$
 - **mint** knows {Serial Number + Random}, sends it to the bank.
- **Mint:** makes the bill, and gives it to the forger.
- **Forger:** tries to copy the bill, and spends the two to the bank.
- **Bank:** should accept the true one, reject the fake.

mint	forger basis	forger m.	bank m.
$ 0\rangle$	$\{ 0\rangle, 1\rangle\}$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$
$ 0\rangle$	$\{ \pm\rangle\}$	$\begin{cases} +\rangle, & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \\ -\rangle, & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$	$\begin{cases} 0\rangle, & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \\ 1\rangle, & \text{w.p. } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$

We therefore deduce that

$$\mathbb{P}(\text{get caught}) = 1 - (1 - \frac{1}{4})^n = 1 - (\frac{1}{4})^n \quad (9)$$

1.4 Bennett and Brassard Quantum Key Exchange: BB84

Goal: Alice and Bob \rightarrow share a secret bit string , Eve does not know anything.

Settings: Alice and Bob share a quantum channel and an authenticated classical channel.

Steps:

1. Alice prepares n qubits $E_r \in \{|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |+\rangle, |-\rangle\}^n$, and she sends them to Bob
2. Bob receives . He measures them in the basis $\{B_{0,1}, B_{+,-}\}$
3. They use the public classical channel to compare the basis Bob used. They throw away the *bad basis* qubits.
4. Alice and Bob sample the data and compare the error rate e . If $e = 0$, they keep the key; if $e = 25\%$, Eve knows the key.

What if $0 < e < 25$? Eve knows a part of the key.

2 Unitary transformation

A transformation is an isolated system, and it is reversible.

Let T to be a transformation.

$$\langle T(|\psi\rangle) | T(|\psi\rangle) \rangle = \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \quad (10)$$

T is linear.

$$T(\alpha |\psi\rangle + \beta |\phi\rangle) = \alpha T(|\psi\rangle) + \beta T(|\phi\rangle) \quad (11)$$

T acts like an unitary operator. T corresponds to a complex matrix U : $T(|\phi\rangle) = U|\phi\rangle$, $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, such that $U^\dagger U = Id$.

In the basis $\{|i\rangle\}_{i=0}^n$, $\langle T(|\psi\rangle) | T(|\psi\rangle) \rangle = \langle i | j \rangle = \delta_{i,j}$

We have :

- measurement in computational basis
- a machine making arbitrary unitary U

Let's build a measurement in basis $\{|b_i\rangle\}_i$

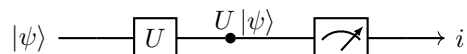


Figure 3: Circuit representation of the measurement unitary expected behavior

$$\mathbb{P}(i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\langle i | U | \psi \rangle|^2 \stackrel{\text{goal}}{=} |\langle b_i | \psi \rangle|^2 \quad \forall \psi \quad (12)$$

We want $\langle i | U = \langle b_i | \Leftrightarrow U^\dagger | i \rangle = | b_i \rangle \Leftrightarrow U = \sum_i | i \rangle \langle b_i |$

Is U an unitary ?

$$\begin{aligned}
U^\dagger U &= \left(\sum_i |b_i\rangle \langle i| \right) \left(\sum_j |j\rangle \langle b_j| \right) \\
&= \sum_{i,j} |b_i\rangle \langle i|j\rangle \langle b_j| \\
&= \sum_i |b_i\rangle \langle b_i| \\
&= Id
\end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

U is an unitary.

3 Composition of systems

Let $A \in \mathcal{H}_A = \mathbb{C}^{d_A}$ and $B \in \mathcal{H}_B = \mathbb{C}^{d_B}$ to be two systems in their respective vector spaces. Then we can construct the space

$$\mathcal{H}_{AB} = \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B \tag{14}$$

Its orthonormal basis is $\{|ij\rangle_{AB}\}_{i,j}$, and

$$\dim \mathcal{H}_{AB} = \dim \mathcal{H}_A \cdot \dim \mathcal{H}_B \tag{15}$$

If $|\alpha\rangle = \sum_i \alpha_i |i\rangle_A$ and $|\beta\rangle = \sum_i \beta_i |i\rangle_B$, then

$$|\phi\rangle_{AB} = |\alpha\rangle \otimes |\beta\rangle = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \beta_j |i\rangle_A |j\rangle_B \tag{16}$$

and $|\phi\rangle_{AB} \in \mathcal{H}_{AB}$. $|\phi\rangle_{AB}$ is a joint state of systems A and B . The inner product between two basis states can be defined as

$$\langle i, j | k, l \rangle = \langle i | k \rangle_A \langle j | l \rangle_B = \delta_{ik} \delta_{jl} \tag{17}$$

The most general state in the space \mathcal{H}_{AB} can be written

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |00\rangle + \beta |01\rangle + \gamma |10\rangle + \delta |11\rangle \tag{18}$$

with the usual condition for $|\psi\rangle$ to be normalized:

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 + |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2 = 1 \tag{19}$$

Not all states of \mathcal{H}_{AB} are separable into one state of \mathcal{H}_A and one state of \mathcal{H}_B

For example : $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \in \mathcal{H}_{AB}$, but $\nexists |\alpha\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A, |\beta\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_B$, such that $|\alpha\rangle \otimes |\beta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$.

Necessary condition on the coefficients $(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta)$ of a state to be separable:

$$\alpha\delta = \beta\gamma \tag{20}$$

3.1 No cloning theorem

The no cloning theorem

$$\text{There is no } U \text{ such that } \forall |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}, U |\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}. \tag{21}$$

Proof

Suppose there exists a such unitary U , then U is a cloning operator.

$$\begin{aligned}
U |0\rangle &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |0\rangle |0\rangle \\
U |1\rangle &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |1\rangle |1\rangle
\end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

By computing the application of U on the state $|+\rangle$, we get on the one hand, by linearity of unitaries

$$U\left(\frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \tag{23}$$

and on the other hand, by definition of the operator behavior

$$U\left(\frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \otimes \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) \tag{24}$$

which is a contradiction. Then such a U operator can not exist.

3.2 Superdense coding

Superdense coding involves two parties, **Alice** and **Bob**. The protocol allows **Alice** and **Bob** to share two bits of information by exchanging just one qubit. Basically, **Alice** is in possession of two classical bits of information, which she wishes to send to **Bob**.

Suppose **Alice** and **Bob** initially share a pair of qubits in the entangled state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \quad (25)$$

Here is the procedure.

The state Alice wants to send	The gate she applies	The states after
00	I	$\frac{ 00\rangle + 11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \phi^+\rangle$
01	Z	$\frac{ 00\rangle - 11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \phi^-\rangle$
10	X	$\frac{ 10\rangle + 01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \psi^+\rangle$
11	Y	$\frac{ 10\rangle - 01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \psi^-\rangle$

Alice send her qubit to **Bob** and he measures the resulting pair in the base $\{|\phi^+\rangle, |\phi^-\rangle, |\psi^+\rangle, |\psi^-\rangle\}$. This is indeed a basis, and its name is the *Bell basis*, and the states are called the *Bell states*.

3.3 Quantum teleportation

4 Measurements

4.1 Projective measurement

A projective measurement is described by an observable, a Hermitian operator. They are defined by a set of projectors $\{\Pi_j\}_{j=1}^k, k \leq d$.

Projectors properties:

$$\forall j, \Pi_j^2 = \Pi_j \quad \Pi_j \Pi_i = \delta_{i,j} \Pi_j \quad (26)$$

A projector is defined as follows:

$$\Pi_j = \sum_{l=1}^{d_j} |l_l^j\rangle \langle l_l^j| \quad (27)$$

Upon measuring the state $|\psi\rangle$, the probability of getting result j is given by

$$\langle \psi | \Pi_j | \psi \rangle = \|\Pi_j |\psi\rangle\|^2 \quad (28)$$

Given that outcome j occurred, the state of the quantum system immediately after the measurement is

$$\frac{\Pi_j |\psi\rangle}{\|\Pi_j |\psi\rangle\|^2} \quad (29)$$

4.2 Observables

Observables correspond to physical quantities, with values in \mathbb{R} . They are well defined in a basis $\{|b_i\rangle\}_i$ (i.e $\forall |b_i\rangle, \exists a_i \in \mathbb{R}$)

Note : $\alpha |b_1\rangle + \beta |b_2\rangle$ has **not always** a well defined value.

An observable is defined as follow:

$$O \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_i o_i \underbrace{|b_i\rangle \langle b_i|}_{\text{projector on } |b_i\rangle} = \sum_j o_j \Pi_j \quad (30)$$

O is diagonalizable by definition and $O^\dagger = O$: O is hermitian.

$$\text{Shape of } O : \begin{pmatrix} o_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & o_2 & \cdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \cdots & a_d \end{pmatrix}$$

The probability of getting the result i by measuring O on a state $|\psi\rangle$ is $\langle \psi | \Pi_i | \psi \rangle$

4.2.1 Expectation value and standard deviation

The expectation value of O , written $\langle O \rangle$, is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle O \rangle &= \sum_i o_i \mathbb{P}(i | \psi) \\
 &= \sum_i o_i \|\Pi_i |\psi\rangle\|^2 \\
 &= \sum_i o_i \langle \psi | \Pi_i | \psi \rangle \\
 &= \langle \psi | \sum_i o_i \Pi_i | \psi \rangle \\
 &= \langle \psi | O | \psi \rangle
 \end{aligned} \tag{31}$$

From this formula for the expectation value follows a formula for the standard deviation associated to the observation of O

$$\Delta^2 O = \langle (O - \langle O \rangle)^2 \rangle = \langle O^2 \rangle - \langle O \rangle^2 \tag{32}$$

Note: If $|\psi\rangle$ is an eigenstate of O , then $O|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle$.

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle O \rangle &= \langle \psi | O | \psi \rangle \\
 &= \langle \psi | \lambda | \psi \rangle \\
 &= \lambda \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \\
 &= \lambda
 \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

And:

$$\begin{aligned}
 O|\psi\rangle &= \langle O \rangle |\psi\rangle \Rightarrow \Delta^2 O = (\lambda^2 - \lambda^2) = 0 \\
 &\Rightarrow \Delta O = 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

4.2.2 Commutators

A key property of quantum physics is the existence of incompatible measurements: for any physical property A , there exists another physical property B which is incompatible with A . The incompatible means it is physically impossible to prepare a state $|\psi\rangle$ which gives perfectly predictable outputs for both measurements A and B . Let us first assume A and B to be observables. A key property of this pair of observable is their commutator

$$[A, B] := AB - BA \tag{35}$$

If A and B commute (i.e $[A, B] = 0 \Leftrightarrow AB = BA$), there exists a basis such that the result of a measurement of A and a measurement of B are perfectly defined.

Conversely, if such a basis exists, then $[A, B] = 0$

Therefore, if A and B do not commute, they correspond to incompatible measurements. (The proofs are in the 4th tutorial.)

4.2.3 The Robertson-Heisenberg uncertainty relation

This relation evaluates the sharpness of two observables we will call A and B through the standard deviations ΔA and ΔB , and the states that, for any state $|\psi\rangle$ and any observable A and B

$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle \psi | [A, B] | \psi \rangle| \tag{36}$$

4.2.4 Anti-commutator

The anti commutator of two observables A and B is defined by

$$\{A, B\} = AB + BA \tag{37}$$

Example

Using the Pauli matrix $\sigma_x = X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = |+\rangle\langle+| - |-\rangle\langle-|$.

Known results : $X|+\rangle = |+\rangle$ and $X|-\rangle = -|-\rangle$.

We define $|\theta\rangle := \cos\theta|0\rangle + \sin\theta|1\rangle$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle X \rangle_{|\theta\rangle} &= \langle \theta | X | \theta \rangle \\
 &= [\cos\theta \sin\theta] \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta \\ \sin\theta \end{bmatrix} \\
 &= 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta \\
 &= \sin 2\theta
 \end{aligned} \tag{38}$$

4.3 Generalized measurements

A generalized measurement is defined by

$$\{K_i\}_i \text{ such that } \sum_i K_i^\dagger K_i = Id \quad (39)$$

where the K_i are called Kraus Operators. The probability of getting the result i from a general measurement operator is given by $\mathbb{P}(i) = \|K_i |\psi\rangle\|^2$, and the state of the system just after the measurement is $K_i |\psi\rangle = \frac{K_i |\psi\rangle}{\|K_i |\psi\rangle\|}$

Generalized measurement \rightarrow Operator

If $i \in \{1\}$ then $K_1^\dagger K_1 = Id \Rightarrow K_1$ is unitary.

Generalized measurement \rightarrow Set of projectors

If $K_i := \Pi_i$ then $\sum_i K_i^\dagger K_i = \sum_i \Pi_i^\dagger \Pi_i = \sum_i \Pi_i = Id$

Example

With prob. P_j , I measure $\{\Pi_{ij}\}_i$ ($\sum_i \Pi_{ij} = Id$) and I measure U_j on the output state. Probability of getting ij :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(ij) &= P_j \langle \psi | \Pi_{ij} U^\dagger U \Pi_{ij} | \psi \rangle \\ &= P_j \langle \psi | \Pi_{ij} | \psi \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

And the resulting state is $\frac{U \Pi_{ij} |\psi\rangle}{\|\Pi_{ij} |\psi\rangle\|}$

Let $\{K_{ij} = \sqrt{P_j} U \Pi_{ij}\}_{ij}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{ij} K_{ij}^\dagger K_{ij} &= \sum_{ij} P_j \Pi_{ij} U^\dagger U \Pi_{ij} \\ &= \sum_j P_j \sum_i \Pi_{ij} \\ &= \sum_j P_j \\ &= Id \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

Can we associate each set $\{K_i\}_i$ with a U and a $\{\Pi_i\}_i$?

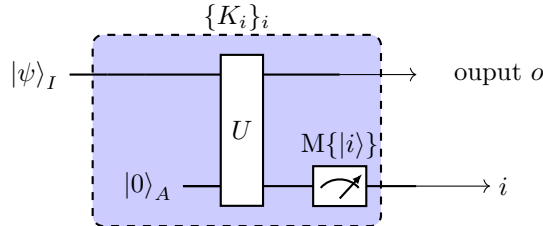


Figure 4: Circuit representation of such U and $\{\Pi_i\}_i$.

Note : $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_I = \mathcal{H}_O \otimes \mathcal{H}_M$

$\forall i$, the output state of the system is

$$(I_o \otimes |i\rangle_M \langle i|) U |\psi\rangle \otimes |0\rangle_A = |i\rangle_M \langle i| U |0\rangle_A |\psi\rangle_I \quad (42)$$

Assume $K_i = {}_M \langle i| U |0\rangle_A$. With (42), we deduce that the output state is $K_i |\psi\rangle$, w.p. $\langle \psi | K_i^\dagger K_i | \psi \rangle$. Is $\{K_i\}_i$ a valid set of operators ?

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i K_i^\dagger K_i &= \sum_i ({}_A \langle 0| \otimes I_I) U^\dagger (|i\rangle_M \otimes I_O) (I_O \otimes {}_M \langle i|) U (I_I \otimes |0\rangle_A) \\ &= ({}_A \langle 0| \otimes I_I) U^\dagger \underbrace{\left(\sum_i |i\rangle_M \otimes I_O \right)}_{=I_M} \underbrace{(I_O \otimes {}_M \langle i|)}_{=I_{OM}} (I_I \otimes |0\rangle_A) \\ &\quad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{=I_{OA}} \\ &= ({}_A \langle 0| \otimes I_I) I_{OA} (I_I \otimes |0\rangle_A) \\ &= I_O \quad \{K_i\}_i \text{ is a valid set.} \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

$\{K_i\}_i \rightarrow \mathbf{Unitary}$

Let $U := \sum_i K_i \otimes |i\rangle_{MA} \langle 0| + \dots$. The \dots represents extra terms used to make U a unitary, but can be neglected in the computation. By tensoring with $|0\rangle_A$, we obtain

$$U |\psi\rangle \otimes |0\rangle_A = \sum_i K_i |\psi\rangle \otimes |i\rangle \quad (44)$$

And then

$$\begin{aligned} {}_A \langle 0|U^\dagger U|0\rangle_A &= {}_A \langle 0| \left(\sum_i |0\rangle_{AM} \langle i| K_i^\dagger \cdot \sum_j K_j |j\rangle_{AM} \langle 0| \right) |0\rangle_A \\ &= \underbrace{{}_A \langle 0|0\rangle_A}_{=1} \cdot \sum_{ij} ({}_M \langle i| \otimes K_i^\dagger) (|j\rangle_M \otimes K_j) \underbrace{{}_A \langle 0|0\rangle_A}_{=1} \\ &= \sum_{ij} \underbrace{\langle i|j\rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} K_i^\dagger K_j \\ &= \sum_i K_i^\dagger K_i \\ &= Id \end{aligned} \quad (45)$$

4.4 POVMs

POVMs means Projective Operator Valued Measure : we "only care about the output i , not the state $K_i |\psi\rangle$ ". The probability of getting i is $\langle \psi | K_i^\dagger K_i | \psi \rangle$.

Let $E_i = K_i^\dagger K_i$. POVMs are then defined by the set $\{E_i\}_i$, such that $\sum_i E_i = Id, E_i \geq 0$.

E_i is semi-definite positive: $\forall \psi, \langle \psi | E_i | \psi \rangle \geq 0$. This implies that E_i is hermitian, and all its eigenvalues are ≥ 0 .

POVM \rightarrow Kraus operators

Let $K_i = \sqrt{E_i}$. $\{K_i\}_i$ is a well defined set of operators.

4.5 The global phase

Lemma: The global phase is irrelevant

Of course, the state $|\psi\rangle \neq e^{i\phi} |\psi\rangle$

Proof: First, we have

$$|\langle \psi | e^{i\phi} |\psi \rangle|^2 = |e^{i\phi}|^2 = 1 \quad (46)$$

Using the generalized measurements $\{K_i\}_i$ such that $\sum_i K_i = Id$
Then:

$$K_i e^{i\phi} |\psi\rangle = e^{i\phi} K_i |\psi\rangle \quad (47)$$

The phase of the input is the same as the phase of the output.

And

$$\|K_i e^{i\phi} |\psi\rangle\|_2^2 = \begin{cases} \|K_i |\psi\rangle\|_2^2 = & \sqrt{\mathbb{P}(i|\psi)} \\ \|e^{i\phi} K_i |\psi\rangle\|_2^2 = & \sqrt{\mathbb{P}(i|e^{i\phi} |\psi\rangle)} \end{cases} \quad (48)$$

Hence, the global phase is irrelevant, and there is no way to measure the global phase. However, the relative phase is important for later computations.

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + \underbrace{e^{i\phi}}_{\text{relative phase}} |1\rangle) \quad (49)$$

4.6 General quantum state

Number of parameters to describe a quantum state

Let $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^d$ and $|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H} : |\psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^d \alpha_i |i\rangle$, (with $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\sum_i |\alpha_i|^2 = 1$). If we consider $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$ is the global phase, then $2d-2$ real parameters are needed to represent the quantum state.

Example

Qubit in \mathcal{H} :

- $d = 2 \rightarrow 2 \cdot 2 - 2 = 2$ real parameters : (θ, φ) .
- $d = 3 \rightarrow 4$ real parameters.

A quantum state can be written, with the parameters θ and φ as

$$|\theta, \varphi\rangle = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \quad (50)$$

5 Bloch sphere

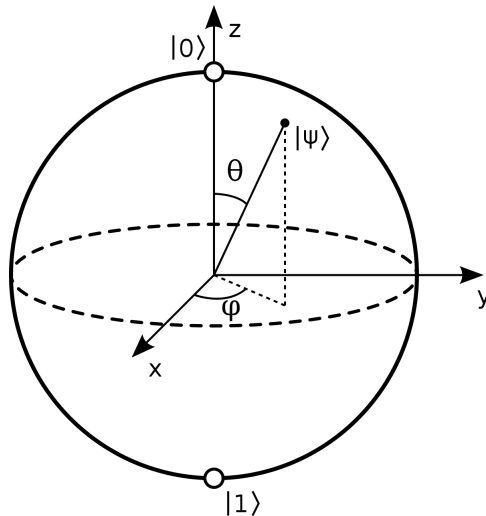


Figure 5: Graphical representation of a quantum state in the Bloch sphere

We will denote $|\psi\rangle$ as the vector \vec{m} in the later computations.

$$\vec{m} = \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ w \end{bmatrix} \text{ such that } u^2 + v^2 + w^2 = 1$$

$$\vec{m} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \cdot \cos \varphi \\ \sin \theta \cdot \sin \varphi \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \quad (51)$$

Are \vec{m} and $-\vec{m}$ orthogonal ?

$$\begin{aligned} \langle m | -m \rangle &= \langle \theta, \varphi | \pi - \theta, \varphi + \pi [2\pi] \rangle \\ &= \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 0 | + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 1 | \right) \left(\underbrace{\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2} \right)}_{\sin \frac{\theta}{2}} |0\rangle + e^{i(\varphi+\pi)} \underbrace{\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\theta}{2} \right)}_{\cos \frac{\theta}{2}} |1\rangle \right) \\ &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 0 | 0 \rangle + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} (-e^{i\varphi}) \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 1 | 1 \rangle \\ \langle m | -m \rangle &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (52)$$

Orthogonal states in the Hilbert space correspond to opposite vectors in the Bloch sphere.

6 Pauli operators

6.1 Pauli matrices and properties

There are four extremely useful two by two matrices called the *Pauli matrices*.

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_0 \equiv I &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & \sigma_1 \equiv \sigma_x = X &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \sigma_2 \equiv \sigma_y = Y &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} & \sigma_3 \equiv \sigma_z = Z &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Properties

- they are indeed hermitian:

$$\forall i \in \{1, 2, 3\} f \quad \sigma_i^\dagger \sigma = \sigma_i^2 = Id \quad (53)$$

- braket decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_x &= |0\rangle \langle 1| + |1\rangle \langle 0| \\ \sigma_y &= -i |0\rangle \langle 1| + i |1\rangle \langle 0| \\ \sigma_z &= |0\rangle \langle 1| - |1\rangle \langle 1| \end{aligned} \quad (54)$$

- commutation relation

$$[X, Y] = 2iZ; \quad [Y, Z] = 2iX; \quad [Z, X] = 2iY \quad (55)$$

6.1.1 Expectation values of the operators

- measure σ_z on the state $|\theta, \varphi\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \sigma_z \rangle &= \langle \theta, \varphi | Z | \theta, \varphi \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos \theta - \frac{1}{2} + \cos \theta \\ &= \cos \theta = w \text{ (the } w \text{ component of } \vec{m})\end{aligned}\tag{56}$$

- measure σ_x on the state $|\theta, \varphi\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \sigma_x \rangle &= \langle \theta, \varphi | X | \theta, \varphi \rangle \\ &= \left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 0 | + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \langle 1 | \right) + \underbrace{\left(\cos \frac{\theta}{2} | 1 \rangle + e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} | 0 \rangle \right)}_{=X|\theta, \varphi\rangle} \\ &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \underbrace{\left(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi} \right)}_{=2 \cos \varphi} \\ &= \sin \theta \cos \varphi = u \text{ (the } u \text{ component of } \vec{m})\end{aligned}\tag{57}$$

- measure σ_y on the state $|\theta, \varphi\rangle$

$$\langle \sigma_y \rangle = v\tag{58}$$

Hence $\vec{m} = \begin{bmatrix} \langle X \rangle \\ \langle Y \rangle \\ \langle Z \rangle \end{bmatrix}$. The set (X, Y, Z) is tomographically complete.

Pauli matrices as unitary

$$\sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_z |\theta, \varphi\rangle &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle - e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \\ &= \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i(\varphi+\pi)} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \\ &= |\theta, \varphi + \pi\rangle \\ &= R_z(\pi) |\theta, \varphi\rangle\end{aligned}\tag{59}$$

It is a rotation of an angle π around the z axis on the Bloch sphere.

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

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_x |\theta, \varphi\rangle &= e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \\ &= e^{i\varphi} \left(\cos \frac{\pi - \theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{-i\varphi} \sin \frac{\pi - \theta}{2} |1\rangle \right) \\ &= e^{i\varphi} |\pi - \theta, -\varphi\rangle \\ &= R_x(\pi) |\theta, \varphi\rangle\end{aligned}\tag{60}$$

$$\sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma_y |\theta, \varphi\rangle &= i \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle - i e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle \\ &= i \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle + i e^{i(\varphi+\pi)} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle \\ &= i e^{i(\pi+\varphi)} \left(e^{-i(\pi+\varphi)} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle \right) \\ &= i e^{i(\pi+\varphi)} \left(\cos \frac{\theta - \pi}{2} |1\rangle + e^{-i(\pi-\varphi)} \sin \frac{\pi - \theta}{2} |1\rangle \right) \\ &= i e^{i(\pi+\varphi)} |\pi + \theta, -\pi - \theta\rangle \\ &= R_y(\pi) |\theta, \varphi\rangle\end{aligned}\tag{61}$$

6.1.2 Pauli Group

The Pauli group is defined by the set $G_1 = \{\eta I, \eta \sigma_x, \eta \sigma_y, \eta \sigma_z\}_{\eta \in \{\pm 1, \pm i\}}$.

- they are their own inverse : $\sigma_i^{-1} = \sigma_i$
- their product is in G_1 : The Pauli matrices anti-commute: $\{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} = 0, \forall i \neq j$
 - $\sigma_x \sigma_y = i \sigma_z = -\sigma_y \sigma_x$
 - $\sigma_y \sigma_z = i \sigma_x = -\sigma_z \sigma_y$
 - $\sigma_z \sigma_x = i \sigma_y = -\sigma_x \sigma_z$

7 Generic observables

7.1 Projector onto \vec{m} for an arbitrary vector $|\theta, \varphi\rangle$

Following the definition (51) of the vector \vec{m} , we can define a projector onto the vector \vec{m} for any arbitrary state $|\theta, \varphi\rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\vec{m}\rangle \langle \vec{m}| &= \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle \langle 0| + \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \langle 1| + \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \left(e^{i\varphi} |1\rangle \langle 0| + e^{-i\varphi} |0\rangle \langle 1| \right) \\
 &= \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos \theta) |0\rangle \langle 0| + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos \theta) |1\rangle \langle 1|}_{\text{diagonal}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \sin \theta \left(e^{i\varphi} |1\rangle \langle 0| + e^{-i\varphi} |0\rangle \langle 1| \right)}_{\text{anti-diagonal part}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(I + \cos \theta \sigma_z + \sin \theta \cos \varphi \sigma_x + i \sin \theta \sin \varphi \sigma_y \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left(I + u \sigma_x + v \sigma_y + w \sigma_z \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (I + \vec{m} \vec{\sigma}) \quad \text{considering } \vec{\sigma} = [\sigma_x \quad \sigma_y \quad \sigma_z]
 \end{aligned} \tag{62}$$

7.2 Generic observable

Let $\sigma_{\vec{m}} := 1 |\vec{m}\rangle \langle \vec{m}| - 1 |-\vec{m}\rangle \langle -\vec{m}|$. (recall from (52), \vec{m} and $-\vec{m}$ are orthogonal).

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_{\vec{m}} &= |\vec{m}\rangle \langle \vec{m}| - |-\vec{m}\rangle \langle -\vec{m}| \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} (I + \vec{m} \vec{\sigma} - I - (-\vec{m} \vec{\sigma})) \\
 &= \vec{m} \vec{\sigma}
 \end{aligned} \tag{63}$$

We have $\sigma_{\vec{m}} = \vec{m} \vec{\sigma}$ and $\sigma_{\vec{m}}^\dagger = \sigma_{\vec{m}}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sigma_{\vec{m}}^2 &= (u \sigma_x + v \sigma_y + w \sigma_z)(u \sigma_x + v \sigma_y + w \sigma_z) \\
 &= (u^2 + v^2 + w^2) I + uv(\sigma_x \sigma_y + \sigma_y \sigma_x) + uw(\sigma_x \sigma_z + \sigma_z \sigma_x) + \dots \\
 &= \underbrace{(u^2 + v^2 + w^2) I}_{=1 \text{ (by def. 51)}} + \underbrace{uv\{\sigma_x, \sigma_y\}}_{=0} + \underbrace{uw\{\sigma_x, \sigma_z\}}_{=0} \\
 &= I
 \end{aligned} \tag{64}$$

$\sigma_{\vec{m}}$ corresponds to a rotation around the \vec{m} axis.

Example

$$\sigma_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}} = H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

7.3 Arbitrary rotation