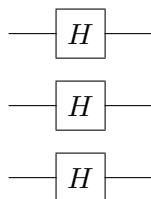


C7.4 Introduction to Quantum Information

Model Solutions

1. (a) [3 marks] [*Classification: B*] The Hadamard transform is often useful as the first operation in quantum algorithms because, when applied to n bits, it prepares an equally weighted superposition of all the numbers 0 to $2^n - 1$, so that all these numbers can be tested simultaneously. Its quantum network should consist of a series of n wires with the single-qubit Hadamard gate H applied to each of them:



- (b) [4 marks] [*Classification: B*] The first two computational steps end up with the quantum function evaluation and generate the state

$$|0\rangle|0\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle|0\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle|f(x)\rangle.$$

This is an entangled state of the two registers. Here and in the following $|0\rangle$ represents a binary string of length n with all qubits showing logical 0.

- (c) [5 marks] [*Classification: S*] If $k \in \{0,1\}^n$ is the result of the bit-by-bit measurement on the second register then the state of the first register is a superposition of exactly those values of x for which $f(x) = k$. We can write it as

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|x\rangle + |x+s\rangle).$$

for some x , such that $f(x) = f(x+s) = k$.

- (d) [6 marks] [*Classification: S*] The Hadamard transform applied to the first register after the function evaluation and the measurement on the second register gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|x\rangle + |x+s\rangle) &\mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} \left[(-1)^{x \cdot z} + (-1)^{(x+s) \cdot z} \right] |z\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot z} [1 + (-1)^{s \cdot z}] |z\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

When the first register is subsequently measured bit-by-bit in the computational basis, the probability of getting a particular binary string z is

$$\frac{1}{2^{n+1}} (1 + (-1)^{s \cdot z})^2 = \begin{cases} 1/2^{n-1} & , \text{ if } s \cdot z = 0 \\ 0 & , \text{ if } s \cdot z = 1 \end{cases}$$

- (e) [7 marks] [*Classification: N*] Students should be able to provide estimates and plausibility arguments. More detailed explanations, as presented below, are not required.

Students should notice that running the quantum network gives us a method for extracting uniformly random strings z such that $s \cdot z = 0$ for our unknown s . If $z \neq 0$, then this cuts in half the number of possible s strings consistent with this equation. In order to find s we need $n - 1$ such equations, $z_1 \cdot s = 0, z_2 \cdot s = 0, \dots, z_{n-1} \cdot s = 0$, with the z_i being linearly independent ($s = 0$ is always a solution but we have excluded it). The probability of obtaining $n - 1$ independent binary strings of length n via random sampling can be estimated in many ways. For example, one can notice that m linearly independent vectors z_1, z_2, \dots, z_m , specify a subspace with 2^m bit strings. The probability that the next bit string z_{m+1} is linearly independent is $(2^n - 2^m)/2^n$. Chaining these conditional probabilities we obtain the probability of getting $n - 1$ linearly independent bit strings,

$$\Pr = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right).$$

To bound this we then use the fact that $(1 - a)(1 - b) \geq 1 - a - b$ for $0 \leq a, b \leq 1$ to turn the products into a sum,

$$\Pr \geq 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \cdots + \frac{1}{4}\right) > \frac{1}{2}.$$

Thus with probability of greater than $1/2$ we obtain $n - 1$ linearly independent bit strings z_i and can solve for s . We may need to repeat this process a few times; the probability that we fail to find s decreases exponentially with the number of repetitions. Thus the number of runs for the quantum algorithm is of the order of n .

In contrast a classical algorithm randomly chooses x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k , evaluates $f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_k)$ and checks for collision events where $f(x_i) = f(x_j)$ for some x_i and x_j ($s = x_i + x_j$). The probability for at least one collision can be estimated in a number of different ways (the birthday paradox type calculations) and it is not greater than $k^2/2^n$. This implies that we have to sample roughly $\sqrt{2^n}$ times in order to find a collision (and hence s).

2. (a) [2 marks] [*Classification: B*] The diagonal elements of a density matrix (in any basis) are interpreted as probabilities. They are nonnegative and add up to one.
- (b) [7 marks] [*Classification: B and S*] Students should write

$$\psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}|0,0\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}|0,1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}|1,0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}|1,1\rangle$$

and $\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$. This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \rho = & \frac{1}{3}|0,0\rangle\langle 0,0| - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|0,0\rangle\langle 0,1| + \frac{1}{3}|0,0\rangle\langle 1,0| + \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|0,0\rangle\langle 1,1| \\ & - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|0,1\rangle\langle 0,0| + \frac{1}{6}|0,1\rangle\langle 0,1| - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|0,1\rangle\langle 1,0| - \frac{1}{6}|0,1\rangle\langle 1,1| \\ & + \frac{1}{3}|1,0\rangle\langle 0,0| - \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|1,0\rangle\langle 0,1| + \frac{1}{3}|1,0\rangle\langle 1,0| + \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|1,0\rangle\langle 1,1| \\ & + \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|1,1\rangle\langle 0,0| - \frac{1}{6}|1,1\rangle\langle 0,1| + \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}|1,1\rangle\langle 1,0| + \frac{1}{6}|1,1\rangle\langle 1,1|. \end{aligned}$$

In the $\{|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle\}$ basis, the matrix representation of ρ is

$$\rho = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 1 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (c) [4 marks] [*Classification: B and S*] The reduced density operator ρ_1 of qubit 1 is

$$\rho_1 = \text{Tr}_2 \rho = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

Likewise, the reduced density matrix $\rho_2 = \text{Tr}_1 \rho$ is

$$\rho_2 = \text{Tr}_1 \rho = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

- (d) [5 marks] [*Classification: easy N*] For any self-adjoint matrix A we can find an orthonormal basis such that A is diagonal, and the diagonal elements are its eigenvalues λ_i ,

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Choosing the eigenbasis of A when evaluating the trace, we get

$$\text{Tr} \left(\sqrt{A^\dagger A} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{\lambda_i^2} = \sum_{i=1}^n |\lambda_i|.$$

Since all eigenvalues of a density matrix are non-negative and add up to unity, the trace norm of a density matrix is equal to one.

- (e) [7 marks] [*Classification: N*] We need to calculate the trace distance between the reduced density matrices in (c). We have

$$\rho_1 - \rho_2 = \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad (\rho_1 - \rho_2)^\dagger (\rho_1 - \rho_2) = \frac{1}{18} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

This gives

$$\|\rho_1 - \rho_2\|_{tr} = \frac{2}{3\sqrt{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad T(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}}.$$

The maximal probability P_{\max} with which we can distinguish the two qubits in a single measurement is thus

$$P_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3\sqrt{2}} \right) = \frac{1}{12} (6 + \sqrt{2}) \approx 0.62.$$

3. (a) [6 marks] [*Classification: B*] The single-qubit Hadamard gate is given by

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

The interference network effects the following sequence of transformations,

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \\ &\xrightarrow{\varphi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle) \\ &\xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{2} [|0\rangle + |1\rangle + e^{i\varphi}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{i\varphi/2} \left[\left(e^{i\varphi/2} + e^{-i\varphi/2} \right) |0\rangle - \left(e^{i\varphi/2} - e^{-i\varphi/2} \right) |1\rangle \right] \\ &= e^{i\varphi/2} \left[\cos \frac{\varphi}{2} |0\rangle - i \sin \frac{\varphi}{2} |1\rangle \right]. \end{aligned}$$

The output state is thus given by

$$|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = e^{i\varphi/2} \left[\cos \frac{\varphi}{2} |0\rangle - i \sin \frac{\varphi}{2} |1\rangle \right].$$

The probability for the qubit to be in state $|0\rangle$ at the output is

$$P_0 = |\langle 0 | \psi_{\text{out}} \rangle|^2 = \cos^2 \frac{\varphi}{2}.$$

- (b) [12 marks] [*Classification: S*] If we follow the same steps as in (a) including the environment and the decoherence process we find

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle|e\rangle &\xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|e\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\varphi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle)|e\rangle \\ &\xrightarrow{\text{dec.}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[|0\rangle|e_0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|1\rangle|e_1\rangle] \\ &\xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{2}[(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|e_0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)|e_1\rangle]. \end{aligned}$$

The output state, including the environment, can thus be written as

$$|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = \frac{1}{2} [|0\rangle (|e_0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|e_1\rangle) + |1\rangle (|e_0\rangle - e^{i\varphi}|e_1\rangle)].$$

[4 marks up to here.]

The probability for the qubit to be in state $|0\rangle$ at the output is now

$$\begin{aligned} P_0 &= \text{Tr} [(|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle\langle\psi_{\text{out}}|)(|0\rangle\langle 0| \otimes \mathbf{1}_E)], \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \text{Tr}_E [(|e_0\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|e_1\rangle)(\langle e_0| + e^{-i\varphi}\langle e_1|)], \\ &= \frac{1}{4} (\langle e_0|e_0\rangle + \langle e_1|e_1\rangle + e^{i\varphi}\langle e_0|e_1\rangle + e^{-i\varphi}\langle e_1|e_0\rangle), \end{aligned}$$

where Tr denotes the trace over the qubit and the environment, Tr_E is the trace over the environment and $\mathbf{1}_E$ is the identity operator acting on the state space of the environment.

[4 marks for the correct expression for P_0 .]

If we write $\langle e_0|e_1\rangle = ve^{i\alpha}$ and use $\langle e_0|e_0\rangle = \langle e_1|e_1\rangle = 1$, then we find

$$P_0(\varphi, v, \alpha) = \frac{1}{4} \left[2 + v \left(e^{i(\varphi+\alpha)} + e^{-i(\varphi+\alpha)} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{2} [1 + v \cos(\varphi + \alpha)].$$

[2 marks for the correct final answer.]

If the decoherence takes place between the first Hadamard gate and the phase gate, the expression for $P_0(\varphi, v, \alpha)$ remains the same. [2 marks]

- (c) [7 marks] [*Classification: N*] As $v = |\langle e_0|e_1\rangle|$ decreases, we lose all the advantages of quantum interference. In Deutsch's algorithm we have effectively $\varphi = 0$ if f is constant or $\varphi = \pi$ if f is balanced. Thus we obtain the correct answer with probability at most $(1+v)/2$. For $\langle e_0|e_1\rangle = 0$, the perfect decoherence case, the network outputs 0 or 1 with equal probabilities, *i.e.* it is useless as a computing device. It is clear that we want to avoid decoherence, or at least diminish its impact on our computing device.