

# ITIS 6260/8260 Quantum Computing

## Lecture 2: Quantum entanglement and quantum gates

Yongge Wang

UNC Charlotte, USA

January 4, 2019

# Outline

- 1 Bloch Sphere
  - Bloch Sphere
- 2 Multiple Qubits
  - Two Qubits
  - Multiple Qubits
- 3 Quantum circuits and Quantum computation
  - Quantum computers and quantum gates
  - Quantum gates
  - Quantum parallelism

# Outline

- 1 Bloch Sphere
  - Bloch Sphere
- 2 Multiple Qubits
  - Two Qubits
  - Multiple Qubits
- 3 Quantum circuits and Quantum computation
  - Quantum computers and quantum gates
  - Quantum gates
  - Quantum parallelism

# Outline

- 1 Bloch Sphere
  - Bloch Sphere
- 2 Multiple Qubits
  - Two Qubits
  - Multiple Qubits
- 3 Quantum circuits and Quantum computation
  - Quantum computers and quantum gates
  - Quantum gates
  - Quantum parallelism

# Bloch Sphere

- For a qubit  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , we have  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ . Thus we can also write it as

$$|\psi\rangle = e^{i\gamma} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$$

where  $\theta, \phi$ , and  $\gamma$  are real numbers.

- Since  $e^{i\gamma}$  has no observable effects, we can just write

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle$$

# Bloch Sphere

- For a qubit  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ , we have  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$ . Thus we can also write it as

$$|\psi\rangle = e^{i\gamma} \left( \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$$

where  $\theta, \phi$ , and  $\gamma$  are real numbers.

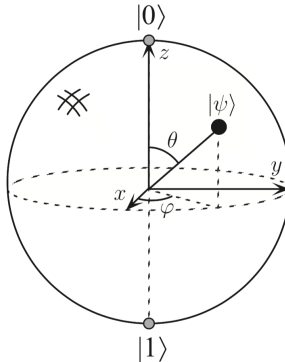
- Since  $e^{i\gamma}$  has no observable effects, we can just write

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos \frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle$$

# Bloch Sphere

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\frac{\theta}{2}|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}|1\rangle$$

where  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  define a point on the three-dimensional sphere (Bloch sphere):



# Two Qubits

- For a pair of photons, we have four basis states:

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

- a general state of two photons is:

$$|\alpha\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle$$

where  $\alpha_{00}, \alpha_{01}, \alpha_{10}, \alpha_{11}$  are complex numbers with  $\sum_{i,j} |\alpha_{ij}|^2 = 1$ .



# Two Qubits

- For a pair of photons, we have four basis states:

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

- a general state of two photons is:

$$|\alpha\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle$$

where  $\alpha_{00}, \alpha_{01}, \alpha_{10}, \alpha_{11}$  are complex numbers with  $\sum_{i,j} |\alpha_{ij}|^2 = 1$ .

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- For a two photon system, we may choose to measure the first photon and leave the second photon unmeasured

$$s = a|00\rangle + b|01\rangle + c|10\rangle + d|11\rangle$$

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- Rewrite  $s$  as

$$s = |0\rangle \otimes (a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) + |1\rangle \otimes (c|0\rangle + d|1\rangle)$$

or

$$s = |0\rangle \otimes |v\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$$

where  $\otimes$  is the tensor product of quantum states (a state that is expressed independently—no entanglement)

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- Then if we use the measurement  $M$  to measure the first photon, what is the outcome possibility? and what is the impact on the second photon?
- According to the general rule of quantum mechanics, the outcome of the measuring is  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  with probabilities  $\langle v|v\rangle$  and  $\langle w|w\rangle$  respectively.
- If the outcome is  $|0\rangle$ , then the final state of the first photon is  $|0\rangle$  and the final state of the second photon is  $|v\rangle/\sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$
- This is interesting. If the first photon is light year apart from the second photon, the second photon still changes its state!

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- Then if we use the measurement  $M$  to measure the first photon, what is the outcome possibility? and what is the impact on the second photon?
- According to the general rule of quantum mechanics, the outcome of the measuring is  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  with probabilities  $\langle v|v\rangle$  and  $\langle w|w\rangle$  respectively.
- If the outcome is  $|0\rangle$ , then the final state of the first photon is  $|0\rangle$  and the final state of the second photon is  $|v\rangle/\sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$
- This is interesting. If the first photon is light year apart from the second photon, the second photon still changes its state!

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- Then if we use the measurement  $M$  to measure the first photon, what is the outcome possibility? and what is the impact on the second photon?
- According to the general rule of quantum mechanics, the outcome of the measuring is  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  with probabilities  $\langle v|v\rangle$  and  $\langle w|w\rangle$  respectively.
- If the outcome is  $|0\rangle$ , then the final state of the first photon is  $|0\rangle$  and the final state of the second photon is  $|v\rangle/\sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$
- This is interesting. If the first photon is light year apart from the second photon, the second photon still changes its state!

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- Then if we use the measurement  $M$  to measure the first photon, what is the outcome possibility? and what is the impact on the second photon?
- According to the general rule of quantum mechanics, the outcome of the measuring is  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  with probabilities  $\langle v|v\rangle$  and  $\langle w|w\rangle$  respectively.
- If the outcome is  $|0\rangle$ , then the final state of the first photon is  $|0\rangle$  and the final state of the second photon is  $|v\rangle/\sqrt{\langle v|v\rangle}$
- This is interesting. If the first photon is light year apart from the second photon, the second photon still changes its state!

## Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- the physical interpretation of this is beyond the scope of this class
- the final state of the second photon depends on our choice of measurement to perform on the first photon
- Cryptographic implication: Alice tries to measure photon one, Bob is close to photon two. Could this measurement by Alice send some signal to Bob by Alice's choice of what to measure?
- the good news is that Alice can choose what to measure, but cannot control the outcome. Thus a simple argument could be used to show that Bob's measurement result is independent of Alice's choice. In words, Alice cannot use her choice of measurement to send a signal to Bob.



# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- the physical interpretation of this is beyond the scope of this class
- the final state of the second photon depends on our choice of measurement to perform on the first photon
- Cryptographic implication: Alice tries to measure photon one, Bob is close to photon two. Could this measurement by Alice send some signal to Bob by Alice's choice of what to measure?
- the good news is that Alice can choose what to measure, but cannot control the outcome. Thus a simple argument could be used to show that Bob's measurement result is independent of Alice's choice. In words, Alice cannot use her choice of measurement to send a signal to Bob.

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- the physical interpretation of this is beyond the scope of this class
- the final state of the second photon depends on our choice of measurement to perform on the first photon
- Cryptographic implication: Alice tries to measure photon one, Bob is close to photon two. Could this measurement by Alice send some signal to Bob by Alice's choice of what to measure?
- the good news is that Alice can choose what to measure, but cannot control the outcome. Thus a simple argument could be used to show that Bob's measurement result is independent of Alice's choice. In words, Alice cannot use her choice of measurement to send a signal to Bob.

# Measuring multiple-qubits systems

- the physical interpretation of this is beyond the scope of this class
- the final state of the second photon depends on our choice of measurement to perform on the first photon
- Cryptographic implication: Alice tries to measure photon one, Bob is close to photon two. Could this measurement by Alice send some signal to Bob by Alice's choice of what to measure?
- the good news is that Alice can choose what to measure, but cannot control the outcome. Thus a simple argument could be used to show that Bob's measurement result is independent of Alice's choice. In words, Alice cannot use her choice of measurement to send a signal to Bob.

# Entanglement

- Entanglement is the ability of quantum systems to exhibit correlations between states within a superposition.
- Imagine two qubits, each in the state  $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$ . We can entangle the two qubits such that the measurement of one qubit is always correlated to the measurement of the other qubit.

# Entanglement

- Entanglement is the ability of quantum systems to exhibit correlations between states within a superposition.
- Imagine two qubits, each in the state  $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$ . We can entangle the two qubits such that the measurement of one qubit is always correlated to the measurement of the other qubit.

# Two Qubits

- If we measure two qubits  $|\alpha\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle$  at the same time, the probability to get the output  $|ij\rangle$  is  $|\alpha_{ij}|^2$ .
- If we only measure the first qubit, the probability to get output  $|0\rangle$  is  $|\alpha_{00}|^2 + |\alpha_{01}|^2$ , and the post-measurement state will be:

$$|\phi'\rangle = \frac{\alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle}{\sqrt{|\alpha_{00}|^2 + |\alpha_{01}|^2}}$$

# Two Qubits

- If we measure two qubits  $|\alpha\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle$  at the same time, the probability to get the output  $|ij\rangle$  is  $|\alpha_{ij}|^2$ .
- If we only measure the first qubit, the probability to get output  $|0\rangle$  is  $|\alpha_{00}|^2 + |\alpha_{01}|^2$ , and the post-measurement state will be:

$$|\phi'\rangle = \frac{\alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle}{\sqrt{|\alpha_{00}|^2 + |\alpha_{01}|^2}}$$

# Bell state or EPR pair

- An important two qubit state is the Bell state or EPR pair  

$$\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$
- Measure any qubit, it has 50% probability to get 0 or 1
- However, measure any qubit will fix the state of the other qubit.



# Bell state or EPR pair

- An important two qubit state is the Bell state or EPR pair  

$$\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$
- Measure any qubit, it has 50% probability to get 0 or 1
- However, measure any qubit will fix the state of the other qubit.

# Bell state or EPR pair

- An important two qubit state is the Bell state or EPR pair  

$$\frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$
- Measure any qubit, it has 50% probability to get 0 or 1
- However, measure any qubit will fix the state of the other qubit.

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \cdots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics

# Multiple Qubits

- Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|001\rangle + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|111\rangle$$

- An  $n$  qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through  $2^n - 1$  simultaneously.
- For entangled  $n$  qubits, we need  $2^n$  complex numbers to represent them
- if the state of  $n$  photons can be expressed separately, then we say that this is a product state
- any state that is not a product state is called an entangled state
- entanglement is the essential difference of quantum mechanics from classical physics



# Quantum computers

- A quantum computer contains  $n$  qubits.
- if qubits can only be in non-entangled state, then nothing more powerful could be achieved
- The important thing is that these qubits could be entangled. There could be potentially  $2^n$  states, and we could run a function on all these inputs at the same time
- challenges in building quantum computers: how can we restrict many qubits in a controlled environments so that they will not have too much entanglement with outside world and they could sufficiently entangle with each other in a controlled way?

# Quantum computers

- A quantum computer contains  $n$  qubits.
- if qubits can only be in non-entangled state, then nothing more powerful could be achieved
- The important thing is that these qubits could be entangled. There could be potentially  $2^n$  states, and we could run a function on all these inputs at the same time
- challenges in building quantum computers: how can we restrict many qubits in a controlled environments so that they will not have too much entanglement with outside world and they could sufficiently entangle with each other in a controlled way?

# Quantum computers

- A quantum computer contains  $n$  qubits.
- if qubits can only be in non-entangled state, then nothing more powerful could be achieved
- The important thing is that these qubits could be entangled. There could be potentially  $2^n$  states, and we could run a function on all these inputs at the same time
- challenges in building quantum computers: how can we restrict many qubits in a controlled environments so that they will not have too much entanglement with outside world and they could sufficiently entangle with each other in a controlled way?

# Quantum computers

- A quantum computer contains  $n$  qubits.
- if qubits can only be in non-entangled state, then nothing more powerful could be achieved
- The important thing is that these qubits could be entangled. There could be potentially  $2^n$  states, and we could run a function on all these inputs at the same time
- challenges in building quantum computers: how can we restrict many qubits in a controlled environments so that they will not have too much entanglement with outside world and they could sufficiently entangle with each other in a controlled way?

# Quantum computers

- Traditional computers are based on the AND, OR, NAND circuit gates to manipulate signals
- In quantum computers, we need to define the operations on quantum bits
- The definition of Quantum circuits (Quantum Turing machine) only allows local unitary transformations (unitary transformations on a fixed number of bits).
- a general transformation on  $n$ -qubits could be implemented by exponentially many 2-qubits transformations (called quantum gates)
- The goal for quantum algorithm: find polynomial steps of  $n$ -qubits transformations for the target tasks

# Quantum computers

- Traditional computers are based on the AND, OR, NAND circuit gates to manipulate signals
- In quantum computers, we need to define the operations on quantum bits
- The definition of Quantum circuits (Quantum Turing machine) only allows local unitary transformations (unitary transformations on a fixed number of bits).
- a general transformation on  $n$ -qubits could be implemented by exponentially many 2-qubits transformations (called quantum gates)
- The goal for quantum algorithm: find polynomial steps of  $n$ -qubits transformations for the target tasks

# Quantum computers

- Traditional computers are based on the AND, OR, NAND circuit gates to manipulate signals
- In quantum computers, we need to define the operations on quantum bits
- The definition of Quantum circuits (Quantum Turing machine) only allows local unitary transformations (unitary transformations on a fixed number of bits).
- a general transformation on  $n$ -qubits could be implemented by exponentially many 2-qubits transformations (called quantum gates)
- The goal for quantum algorithm: find polynomial steps of  $n$ -qubits transformations for the target tasks

# Quantum computers

- Traditional computers are based on the AND, OR, NAND circuit gates to manipulate signals
- In quantum computers, we need to define the operations on quantum bits
- The definition of Quantum circuits (Quantum Turing machine) only allows local unitary transformations (unitary transformations on a fixed number of bits).
- a general transformation on  $n$ -qubits could be implemented by exponentially many 2-qubits transformations (called quantum gates)
- The goal for quantum algorithm: find polynomial steps of  $n$ -qubits transformations for the target tasks



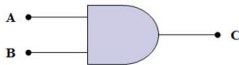
# Quantum computers

- Traditional computers are based on the AND, OR, NAND circuit gates to manipulate signals
- In quantum computers, we need to define the operations on quantum bits
- The definition of Quantum circuits (Quantum Turing machine) only allows local unitary transformations (unitary transformations on a fixed number of bits).
- a general transformation on  $n$ -qubits could be implemented by exponentially many 2-qubits transformations (called quantum gates)
- The goal for quantum algorithm: find polynomial steps of  $n$ -qubits transformations for the target tasks

# Operations on Bits and Qubits - Reversible Logic

Ex.

The AND Gate



Input		Output
A	B	C
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

In these 3 cases,  
information is  
being destroyed

- Due to the nature of quantum physics, the destruction of information in a gate will cause heat to be evolved which can destroy the superposition of qubits. Thus traditional AND gate could not be constructed in quantum computers

# Quantum Gates

- Quantum Gates are similar to classical gates, but do not have a degenerate output. i.e. their original input state can be derived from their output state, uniquely. They must be reversible.
- This means that a deterministic computation can be performed on a quantum computer only if it is reversible. Luckily, it has been shown that any deterministic computation can be made reversible (Charles Bennet, 1973).

# Quantum Gates

- Quantum Gates are similar to classical gates, but do not have a degenerate output. i.e. their original input state can be derived from their output state, uniquely. They must be reversible.
- This means that a deterministic computation can be performed on a quantum computer only if it is reversible. Luckily, it has been shown that any deterministic computation can be made reversible (Charles Bennet, 1973).

# Single qubit gate: Pauli $X$ gate (NOT gate)

- NOT gate: changes  $|0\rangle$  to  $|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$ ?
- The quantum NOT gate acts linearly: change  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  to  $\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation of the Bloch sphere around the  $X$ -axis by  $\pi$  radians.
- This is defined by the unitary transformation  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

# Single qubit gate: Pauli $X$ gate (NOT gate)

- NOT gate: changes  $|0\rangle$  to  $|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$ ?
- The quantum NOT gate acts linearly: change  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  to  $\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation of the Bloch sphere around the  $X$ -axis by  $\pi$  radians.
- This is defined by the unitary transformation  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

# Single qubit gate: Pauli $X$ gate (NOT gate)

- NOT gate: changes  $|0\rangle$  to  $|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$ ?
- The quantum NOT gate acts linearly: change  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  to  $\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation of the Bloch sphere around the  $X$ -axis by  $\pi$  radians.

- This is defined by the unitary transformation  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

# Single qubit gate: Pauli $X$ gate (NOT gate)

- NOT gate: changes  $|0\rangle$  to  $|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $|0\rangle$ ?
- The quantum NOT gate acts linearly: change  $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  to  $\alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation of the Bloch sphere around the  $X$ -axis by  $\pi$  radians.
- This is defined by the unitary transformation  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$



# Single qubit gate: Pauli $Y$ gate

- The Pauli  $Y$  gate applies a rotation around the  $Y$ -axis of the Bloch sphere by  $\pi$  radians.
- It maps  $|0\rangle$  to  $i|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $-i|0\rangle$ . It is represented by the Pauli  $Y$  matrix:

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Single qubit gate: Pauli $Y$ gate

- The Pauli  $Y$  gate applies a rotation around the  $Y$ -axis of the Bloch sphere by  $\pi$  radians.
- It maps  $|0\rangle$  to  $i|1\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  to  $-i|0\rangle$ . It is represented by the Pauli  $Y$  matrix:

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Single qubit gate: Pauli Z gate

- Z gate is defined by the unitary transformation

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

- Z gate leaves  $|0\rangle$  unchanged, and flips the sign of  $|1\rangle$  to give  $-|1\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation around the Z-axis of the Bloch sphere by  $\pi$  radians.

# Single qubit gate: Pauli Z gate

- Z gate is defined by the unitary transformation

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

- Z gate leaves  $|0\rangle$  unchanged, and flips the sign of  $|1\rangle$  to give  $-|1\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation around the Z-axis of the Bloch sphere by  $\pi$  radians.

# Single qubit gate: Pauli Z gate

- Z gate is defined by the unitary transformation

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

- Z gate leaves  $|0\rangle$  unchanged, and flips the sign of  $|1\rangle$  to give  $-|1\rangle$
- It equates to a rotation around the Z-axis of the Bloch sphere by  $\pi$  radians.

# Single qubit gate: Hadamard gate

- Hadamard gate is a unitary transformation with the effect on basis:

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

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

In other words,

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

- $H$ -gate is also called 'square-root of NOT' since both  $H|0\rangle$  and  $H|1\rangle$  are 'halfway' between  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ .
- It should also note that  $H^2 = I$ .

# Single qubit gate: Hadamard gate

- Hadamard gate is a unitary transformation with the effect on basis:

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

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

In other words,

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

- $H$ -gate is also called 'square-root of NOT' since both  $H|0\rangle$  and  $H|1\rangle$  are 'halfway' between  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ .
- It should also note that  $H^2 = I$ .

# Single qubit gate: Hadamard gate

- Hadamard gate is a unitary transformation with the effect on basis:

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

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

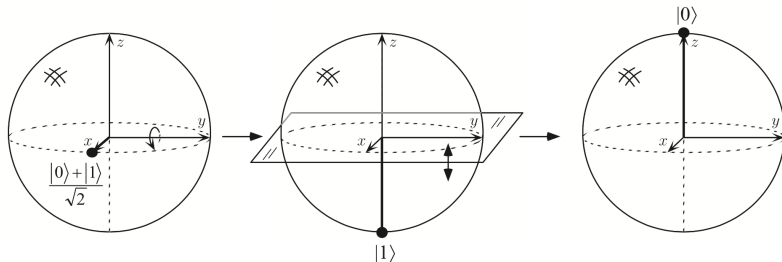
In other words,

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

- $H$ -gate is also called 'square-root of NOT' since both  $H|0\rangle$  and  $H|1\rangle$  are 'halfway' between  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ .
- It should also note that  $H^2 = I$ .

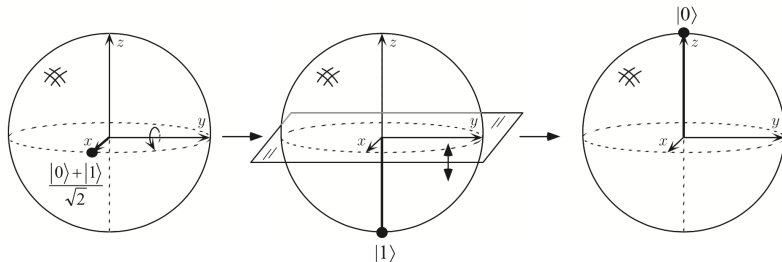


# Hadamard gate in Bloch sphere



- Single qubit gates correspond to rotations and reflections of the Bloch sphere.
- The H-operation is a rotation of the sphere about the  $y$ -axis by 90, followed by a rotation about the  $x$ -axis by 180

# Hadamard gate in Bloch sphere



- Single qubit gates correspond to rotations and reflections of the Bloch sphere.
- The H-operation is a rotation of the sphere about the  $y$ -axis by  $90^\circ$ , followed by a rotation about the  $x$ -axis by  $180^\circ$

# Phase shift

- This phase shift gates leave the basis state  $|0\rangle$  unchanged and map  $|1\rangle$  to  $e^{i\phi}|1\rangle$
- The probability of measuring a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  is unchanged after applying this gate, however it modifies the phase of the quantum state.
- This is equivalent to tracing a horizontal circle (a line of latitude) on the Bloch sphere by  $\phi$  radians.
- The matrix representation is  $R_\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\phi$  is the phase shift.
- The common shift gate example is the  $T$  gate applies a phase of  $\pi/4$  and has a matrix representation of

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Phase shift

- This phase shift gates leave the basis state  $|0\rangle$  unchanged and map  $|1\rangle$  to  $e^{i\phi}|1\rangle$
- The probability of measuring a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  is unchanged after applying this gate, however it modifies the phase of the quantum state.
- This is equivalent to tracing a horizontal circle (a line of latitude) on the Bloch sphere by  $\phi$  radians.
- The matrix representation is  $R_\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\phi$  is the phase shift.
- The common shift gate example is the  $T$  gate applies a phase of  $\pi/4$  and has a matrix representation of

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Phase shift

- This phase shift gates leave the basis state  $|0\rangle$  unchanged and map  $|1\rangle$  to  $e^{i\phi}|1\rangle$
- The probability of measuring a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  is unchanged after applying this gate, however it modifies the phase of the quantum state.
- This is equivalent to tracing a horizontal circle (a line of latitude) on the Bloch sphere by  $\phi$  radians.
- The matrix representation is  $R_\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\phi$  is the phase shift.
- The common shift gate example is the  $T$  gate applies a phase of  $\pi/4$  and has a matrix representation of

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Phase shift

- This phase shift gates leave the basis state  $|0\rangle$  unchanged and map  $|1\rangle$  to  $e^{i\phi}|1\rangle$
- The probability of measuring a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  is unchanged after applying this gate, however it modifies the phase of the quantum state.
- This is equivalent to tracing a horizontal circle (a line of latitude) on the Bloch sphere by  $\phi$  radians.
- The matrix representation is  $R_\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\phi$  is the phase shift.
- The common shift gate example is the  $T$  gate applies a phase of  $\pi/4$  and has a matrix representation of

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Phase shift

- This phase shift gates leave the basis state  $|0\rangle$  unchanged and map  $|1\rangle$  to  $e^{i\phi}|1\rangle$
- The probability of measuring a  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$  is unchanged after applying this gate, however it modifies the phase of the quantum state.
- This is equivalent to tracing a horizontal circle (a line of latitude) on the Bloch sphere by  $\phi$  radians.
- The matrix representation is  $R_\phi = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\phi} \end{bmatrix}$  where  $\phi$  is the phase shift.
- The common shift gate example is the  $T$  gate applies a phase of  $\pi/4$  and has a matrix representation of

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Bloch's theorem

Hadamard and phase-shift gates form a universal gate set of 1-qubit gates, every 1-qubit gate can be built from them.

## Bloch's Theorem

According to Bloch's theorem for solid body rotations in three dimensions, any arbitrary  $2 \times 2$  unitary matrix may be written as

$$U = e^{i\gamma} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\alpha} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\alpha} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & i \sin \theta \\ i \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\beta} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

$$= e^{i\gamma} e^{i\alpha\sigma_z} e^{i\theta\sigma_x} e^{i\beta\sigma_z}, \quad (7)$$

where  $\gamma$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\beta$  are real-valued, and  $\sigma_i$  are the Pauli matrices,

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (8)$$

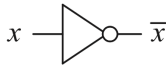
$$\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (9)$$

$$\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (10)$$

All single qubit operations may conveniently be expressed in terms of spinor rotations. For example,  $U_R = \exp(\pi i \sigma_y / 4)$ . This will later be useful in connecting such transforms with physical Hamiltonians.



# Summary of single qubit gates



$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \longrightarrow \boxed{X} \longrightarrow \beta |0\rangle + \alpha |1\rangle$$

$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \longrightarrow \boxed{Z} \longrightarrow \alpha |0\rangle - \beta |1\rangle$$

$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \longrightarrow \boxed{H} \longrightarrow \alpha \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} + \beta \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

# Quantum parallelism for $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$

- Prepare a quantum computer with  $n+1$  qubit state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}|0\rangle$
- Apply Hadamard to the first  $n$  qubits independently

$$\begin{aligned} H \otimes \dots H(|0\rangle \dots |0\rangle)|0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \dots (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|0\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle|0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to produce the state

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

- Quantum parallelism enables all possible values of the function  $f$  to be evaluated simultaneously, even though we apparently only evaluated  $f$  once

# Quantum parallelism for $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

- Prepare a quantum computer with  $n+1$  qubit state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}|0\rangle$
- Apply Hadamard to the first  $n$  qubits independently

$$\begin{aligned} H \otimes \dots H(|0\rangle \dots |0\rangle)|0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \dots (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|0\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to produce the state

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

- Quantum parallelism enables all possible values of the function  $f$  to be evaluated simultaneously, even though we apparently only evaluated  $f$  once

# Quantum parallelism for $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$

- Prepare a quantum computer with  $n+1$  qubit state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}|0\rangle$
- Apply Hadamard to the first  $n$  qubits independently

$$\begin{aligned} H \otimes \dots H(|0\rangle \dots |0\rangle)|0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \dots (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|0\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to produce the state

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

- Quantum parallelism enables all possible values of the function  $f$  to be evaluated simultaneously, even though we apparently only evaluated  $f$  once

# Quantum parallelism for $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$

- Prepare a quantum computer with  $n+1$  qubit state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}|0\rangle$
- Apply Hadamard to the first  $n$  qubits independently

$$\begin{aligned} H \otimes \dots H(|0\rangle \dots |0\rangle)|0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \dots (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)|0\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to produce the state

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

- Quantum parallelism enables all possible values of the function  $f$  to be evaluated simultaneously, even though we apparently only evaluated  $f$  once

# Quantum parallelism: A simple example

- 3-qubit quantum computer with initial state

$$|000\rangle = |0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B \otimes |0\rangle_C$$

- perform the transformation  $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes I_C$ , result is

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

- if we perform  $U_{AND}$  on this state, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)$$

- Essentially we performed the AND operation on all potential  $2^2$  inputs in one step
- NOTE:** This example shows how to simulate classical AND gate with quantum gates: create a 3-qubit input so that the first two qubits simulate the classical input and the third qubit will hold the AND result

# Quantum parallelism: A simple example

- 3-qubit quantum computer with initial state

$$|000\rangle = |0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B \otimes |0\rangle_C$$

- perform the transformation  $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes I_C$ , result is

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

- if we perform  $U_{AND}$  on this state, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)$$

- Essentially we performed the AND operation on all potential  $2^2$  inputs in one step
- NOTE:** This example shows how to simulate classical AND gate with quantum gates: create a 3-qubit input so that the first two qubits simulate the classical input and the third qubit will hold the AND result

# Quantum parallelism: A simple example

- 3-qubit quantum computer with initial state

$$|000\rangle = |0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B \otimes |0\rangle_C$$

- perform the transformation  $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes I_C$ , result is

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

- if we perform  $U_{AND}$  on this state, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)$$

- Essentially we performed the AND operation on all potential  $2^2$  inputs in one step
- NOTE:** This example shows how to simulate classical AND gate with quantum gates: create a 3-qubit input so that the first two qubits simulate the classical input and the third qubit will hold the AND result



# Quantum parallelism: A simple example

- 3-qubit quantum computer with initial state

$$|000\rangle = |0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B \otimes |0\rangle_C$$

- perform the transformation  $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes I_C$ , result is

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

- if we perform  $U_{AND}$  on this state, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)$$

- Essentially we performed the AND operation on all potential  $2^2$  inputs in one step
- NOTE:** This example shows how to simulate classical AND gate with quantum gates: create a 3-qubit input so that the first two qubits simulate the classical input and the third qubit will hold the AND result

# Quantum parallelism: A simple example

- 3-qubit quantum computer with initial state

$$|000\rangle = |0\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B \otimes |0\rangle_C$$

- perform the transformation  $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes I_C$ , result is

$$\frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

- if we perform  $U_{AND}$  on this state, we get

$$\frac{1}{2}(|000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)$$

- Essentially we performed the AND operation on all potential  $2^2$  inputs in one step
- NOTE:** This example shows how to simulate classical AND gate with quantum gates: create a 3-qubit input so that the first two qubits simulate the classical input and the third qubit will hold the AND result

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

- $f$  is a constant if  $f(x) = 0$  (or  $f(x) = 1$ ) for all  $x$
- $f$  is a balanced if  $f(x) = 0$  for exactly half of the  $2^n$  inputs  $x$ .
- Apply Hadamard gate to first  $n$  qubit state  $|0 \cdots 0\rangle$  and to the last qubit state  $|1\rangle$  to get the  $(n+1)$ -qubit state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to this state

$$\begin{aligned} U_f : |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) &\rightarrow |x\rangle(|f(x)\rangle - |f(x) \oplus 1\rangle) \\ &= \begin{cases} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ -|x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

- $f$  is a constant if  $f(x) = 0$  (or  $f(x) = 1$ ) for all  $x$
- $f$  is a balanced if  $f(x) = 0$  for exactly half of the  $2^n$  inputs  $x$ .
- Apply Hadamard gate to first  $n$  qubit state  $|0 \cdots 0\rangle$  and to the last qubit state  $|1\rangle$  to get the  $(n+1)$ -qubit state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to this state

$$\begin{aligned} U_f : |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) &\rightarrow |x\rangle(|f(x)\rangle - |f(x) \oplus 1\rangle) \\ &= \begin{cases} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ -|x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

- $f$  is a constant if  $f(x) = 0$  (or  $f(x) = 1$ ) for all  $x$
- $f$  is a balanced if  $f(x) = 0$  for exactly half of the  $2^n$  inputs  $x$ .
- Apply Hadamard gate to first  $n$  qubit state  $|0 \cdots 0\rangle$  and to the last qubit state  $|1\rangle$  to get the  $(n+1)$ -qubit state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to this state

$$\begin{aligned} U_f : |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) &\rightarrow |x\rangle(|f(x)\rangle - |f(x) \oplus 1\rangle) \\ &= \begin{cases} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ -|x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

- $f$  is a constant if  $f(x) = 0$  (or  $f(x) = 1$ ) for all  $x$
- $f$  is a balanced if  $f(x) = 0$  for exactly half of the  $2^n$  inputs  $x$ .
- Apply Hadamard gate to first  $n$  qubit state  $|0 \cdots 0\rangle$  and to the last qubit state  $|1\rangle$  to get the  $(n+1)$ -qubit state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

- Apply the circuit  $U_f$  for  $f$  to this state

$$\begin{aligned} U_f : |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) &\rightarrow |x\rangle(|f(x)\rangle - |f(x) \oplus 1\rangle) \\ &= \begin{cases} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ -|x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} \\ &= (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

$$U_f: \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Now apply  $H \otimes \dots \otimes H$  to the above state (that is, first  $n$ -qubits).

- Note that  $H|x\rangle = \sum_z (-1)^{xz} |z\rangle / \sqrt{2}$  for a single bit  $x$ . Thus

$$H^{\otimes n} |x\rangle = \frac{\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot z} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}}$$

- That is,

$$H^{\otimes n} |\phi\rangle = \sum_z \sum_x \frac{(-1)^{x \cdot z + f(x)} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^n}}$$

- Note that the amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

$$U_f: \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Now apply  $H \otimes \dots \otimes H$  to the above state (that is, first  $n$ -qubits).

- Note that  $H|x\rangle = \sum_z (-1)^{xz} |z\rangle / \sqrt{2}$  for a single bit  $x$ . Thus

$$H^{\otimes n} |x\rangle = \frac{\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot z} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}}$$

- That is,

$$H^{\otimes n} |\phi\rangle = \sum_z \sum_x \frac{(-1)^{x \cdot z + f(x)} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^n}}$$

- Note that the amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$



# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

$$U_f: \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Now apply  $H \otimes \dots \otimes H$  to the above state (that is, first  $n$ -qubits).

- Note that  $H|x\rangle = \sum_z (-1)^{xz} |z\rangle / \sqrt{2}$  for a single bit  $x$ . Thus

$$H^{\otimes n} |x\rangle = \frac{\sum_{z \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot z} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}}$$

- That is,

$$H^{\otimes n} |\phi\rangle = \sum_z \sum_x \frac{(-1)^{x \cdot z + f(x)} |z\rangle}{\sqrt{2^n}}$$

- Note that the amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

- The amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$
- If  $f$  is constant, then we get the state  $\pm|0 \dots 0\rangle$
- If  $f$  is balanced, then the term  $|0 \dots 0\rangle$  disappears. Thus measuring each bit individually shows at least one qubit is non-zero

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

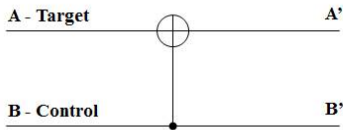
- The amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$
- If  $f$  is constant, then we get the state  $\pm |0 \dots 0\rangle$
- If  $f$  is balanced, then the term  $|0 \dots 0\rangle$  disappears. Thus measuring each bit individually shows at least one qubit is non-zero

# Quantum parallelism: The Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm (continued)

- The amplitude for the state  $|0\rangle^{\otimes n}$  is  $\sum_x (-1)^{f(x)} / 2^n$
- If  $f$  is constant, then we get the state  $\pm |0 \dots 0\rangle$
- If  $f$  is balanced, then the term  $|0 \dots 0\rangle$  disappears. Thus measuring each bit individually shows at least one qubit is non-zero

# Controlled NOT

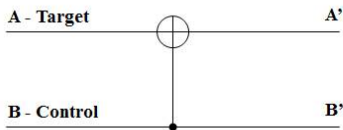
- A gate which operates on two qubits is called a Controlled-NOT (CN) Gate. If the bit on the control line is 1, invert the bit on the target line.
- The CN gate has a similar behavior to the XOR gate with some extra information to make it reversible



Input		Output	
A	B	A'	B'
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

# Controlled NOT

- A gate which operates on two qubits is called a Controlled-NOT (CN) Gate. If the bit on the control line is 1, invert the bit on the target line.
- The CN gate has a similar behavior to the XOR gate with some extra information to make it reversible

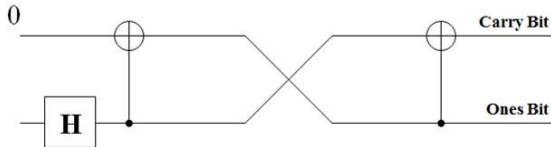


Input		Output	
A	B	A'	B'
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

# Example multiplication by 2

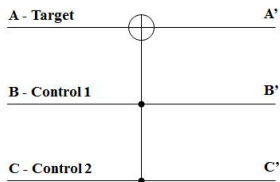
- We can build a reversible logic circuit to calculate multiplication by 2 using CN gates arranged in the following manner:

Input		Output	
Carry Bit	Ones Bit	Carry Bit	Ones Bit
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0



# Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN): Toffoli gate

- A gate which operates on three qubits is called a Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN) Gate iff the bits on both of the control lines are 1, then the target bit is inverted.
- $A' = A \oplus (B \wedge C)$

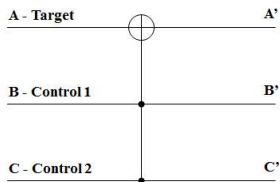


Input			Output		
A	B	C	A'	B'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1



# Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN): Toffoli gate

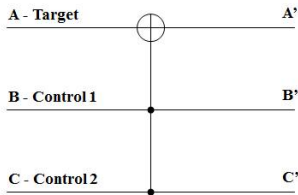
- A gate which operates on three qubits is called a Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN) Gate iff the bits on both of the control lines are 1, then the target bit is inverted.
- $A' = A \oplus (B \wedge C)$



Input			Output		
A	B	C	A'	B'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1

# A Universal Quantum Computer

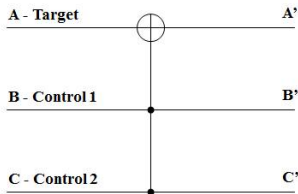
- The CCN gate has been shown to be a universal reversible logic gate as it can be used as a NAND gate.
- When the target input is 1, the target output is a result of a NAND of B and C.



Input			Output		
A	B	C	A'	B'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1

# A Universal Quantum Computer

- The CCN gate has been shown to be a universal reversible logic gate as it can be used as a NAND gate.
- When the target input is 1, the target output is a result of a NAND of B and C.



Input			Output		
A	B	C	A'	B'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1

# Q&A

# Q&A?