COL863: Quantum Computation and Information

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Quantum Mechanics: Linear Algebra

Spectral Decomposition Theorem

Any normal operator M on a vector space V is a diagonalizable with respect to some orthonormal basis for V. Conversely, any diagononalizable operator is normal.

- Exercise: Show that a normal matrix is Hermitian if and only if it has real eigenvalues.
- Unitary matrix: A matrix U is called unitary if $UU^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger}U = I$.
- Unitary operator: An operator U is unitary if $UU^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger}U = I$.
- Exercise: Show that unitary operators preserve inner products.
- Exercise: Let $|v_i\rangle$ be any orthonormal basis set and let $|w_i\rangle = U |v_i\rangle$. Then $|w_i\rangle$ is an orthonormal basis set. Moreover, $U = \sum_i |w_i\rangle \langle v_i|$.
- <u>Exercise</u>: If $|v_i\rangle$ and $|w_i\rangle$ are two orthonormal basis sets, then $U \equiv \sum_i |w_i\rangle \langle v_i |$ is a unitary operator.
- <u>Exercise</u>: Show that all the eigenvalues of a unitary matrix have modulus 1. This means that they can be written as e^{iθ} for some real θ.

Quantum Mechanics Linear algebra: Adjoints and Hermitian operators

- Positive operator: An operator A is said to be a positive operator if for every vector $|v\rangle$, $(|v\rangle, A|v\rangle)$ is a real non-negative number.
- Positive definite operator: An operator A is said to be a positive operator if for every vector $|v\rangle$, $(|v\rangle, A|v\rangle)$ is a real number strictly greater than 0.

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- Exercises:
 - Show that a positive operator is necessarily Hermitian.
 - Show that the eigenvectors of a Hermitian operator with different eigenvalues are necessarily orthogonal.
 - Show that for any operator A, $A^{\dagger}A$ is positive.
 - Show that the eigenvalues of a projector P are all either 0 or 1.

- The tensor product is a way of putting vector spaces together to form larger vector spaces.
 - Suppose V and W are Hilbert spaces of dimension m and n respectively, then V ⊗ W denotes an mn-dimensional vector space.
 - The elements of V ⊗ W are linear combinations of tensor products |v⟩ ⊗ |w⟩ of elements |v⟩ ∈ V and |w⟩ ∈ W.
 - If $|i\rangle$'s and $|j\rangle$'s are orthonormal bases for V and W respectively, then $|i\rangle \otimes |j\rangle$'s are orthonormal basis for $V \otimes W$.
 - $|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle$ is also written as $|vw\rangle$, $|v\rangle |w\rangle$, and $|v, w\rangle$.
 - Example: If V is a two-dimensional vector space with basis $\overline{\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle}\}$, then $|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$ is an element of $V \otimes V$.
- <u>Notation</u>: $|\psi\rangle^{\otimes k}$ means $|\psi\rangle$ tensored with itself k times.

- Some properties of tensor products:
 - For any arbitrary scalar z and elements $|v\rangle \in V$ and $|w\rangle \in W$:

$$z(|v\rangle\otimes|w\rangle)=(z\,|v\rangle)\otimes|w\rangle=|v\rangle\otimes(z\,|w\rangle).$$

• For arbitrary $\ket{v_1}, \ket{v_2} \in V$ and $\ket{w} \in W$,

 $(|v_1\rangle + |v_2\rangle) \otimes |w\rangle = |v_1\rangle \otimes |w\rangle + |v_2\rangle \otimes |w\rangle.$

• For arbitrary $\ket{v} \in V$ and $\ket{w_1}, \ket{w_2} \in W$,

 $|v\rangle\otimes(|w_1\rangle+|w_2\rangle)=|v\rangle\otimes|w_1\rangle+|v\rangle\otimes|w_2\rangle$.

• Linear operators on $V \otimes W$: Let A and B be linear operators on \overline{V} and W respectively. Then $A \otimes B$ denotes a linear operator on $V \otimes W$ defined as:

$$(A \otimes B)(|v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle) = A |v\rangle \otimes B |w\rangle.$$

Furthermore, the following ensures linearity:

$$(A \otimes B)\left(\sum_{i} a_{i} |v_{i}\rangle \otimes |w_{i}\rangle\right) = \sum_{i} a_{i}A |v_{i}\rangle \otimes B |w_{i}\rangle.$$

 Let A: V → V' and B: W → W' be linear operators. An arbitrary linear operator C mapping V ⊗ W to V' ⊗ W' can be represented as a linear combination:

$$C=\sum_i c_i A_i\otimes B_i$$

where by definition:

$$\left(\sum_{i}c_{i}A_{i}\otimes B_{i}
ight)\left|v
ight
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• Let $A: V \to V'$ and $B: W \to W'$ be linear operators. An arbitrary linear operator C mapping $V \otimes W$ to $V' \otimes W'$ can be represented as a linear combination:

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where by definition:

 $(\sum_{i} c_{i}A_{i} \otimes B_{i}) |v\rangle \otimes |w\rangle \equiv \sum_{i} c_{i}A_{i} |v\rangle \otimes B_{i} |w\rangle.$ • The inner product on $V \otimes W$ is defined as:

$$\left(\sum_{i}a_{i}\left|v_{i}
ight
angle\otimes\left|w_{i}
ight
angle,\sum_{j}b_{j}\left|v_{j}'
ight
angle\otimes\left|w_{j}'
ight
angle
ight)\equiv\sum_{ij}a_{i}^{*}b_{j}\left\langle v_{i}\left|v_{j}'
ight
angle \left\langle w_{j}\right|w_{j}'
ight
angle .$$

• Matrix representation: The matrix representation for $A \otimes B$ is called the Kronecker product. Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix and B be a $p \times q$ matrix. Then the matrix representation of $A \otimes B$ is given as:

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

Example: What is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$?

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$$\underline{\text{Example: What is } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} ? \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Exercises:

Show that

 $(A \otimes B)^* = A^* \otimes B^*; (A \otimes B)^T = A^T \otimes B^T; (A \otimes B)^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger} \otimes B^{\dagger}.$

- Show that the tensor product of two unitary operators is unitary.
- Show that the tensor product of two Hermitian operators is Hermitian.
- Show that the tensor product of two positive operators is postive.
- Show that the tensor product of two projectors is a projector.

• One can define matrix functions on normal matrices by using the following construction: Let $A = \sum_{a} a |a\rangle \langle a|$ be a spectral decomposition for a normal operator A. We define:

$$f(A) = \sum_{a} f(a) \ket{a} ra{a}$$

• Exercise: Show that
$$exp(\theta Z) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{\theta} & 0\\ 0 & e^{-\theta} \end{bmatrix}$$
.
• Exercise: Find the square root of the matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 3\\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$.

• The postulates of quantum mechanics were derived after a long process of trial and error.

Postulate 1 (State space)

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

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- Determining the state space of real systems may be complicated and beyond the scope of our discussion.
- We start with a simplest quantum mechanical system (a qubit) that has a two-dimensional state space with $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ being the orthonormal basis. This system is described by a state vector $|\psi\rangle$ where $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$.

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Postulate 2 (Evolution)

The evolution of a *closed* quantum system is described by a *unitary transformation*. That is, the state $|\psi\rangle$ of the system at time t_1 is related to the state $|\psi'\rangle$ of the system at time t_2 by a unitary operator U which only depends on the times t_1 and t_2 , $|\psi'\rangle = U |\psi\rangle$.

• Doesn't applying a unitary gate contradict with the system being closed?

Quantum Mechanics Postulates

Postulate 3 (Measurement)

Quantum measurements are described by a collection $\{M_m\}$ of *measurement operators*. These are operators acting on the state space of the system being measured. The following properties hold:

- The index *m* refers to the measurement outcomes that may occur in the experiment.
- If the state of the system is $|\psi\rangle$ immediately before the measurement, then the probability that the result m occurs is given by

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

and the state of the system after the measurement is given by

$$\frac{M_m \ket{\psi}}{\sqrt{\bra{\psi} M_m^{\dagger} M_m \ket{\psi}}}$$

• The measurement operators satisfy the completeness equation,

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- The measurement operators satisfy the *completeness equation*, $\sum_{m} M_{m}^{\dagger} M_{m} = I.$
- Exercise: Show that $\sum_{m} p(m) = 1$.

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- The measurement operators satisfy the completeness equation, $\sum_{m} M_{m}^{\dagger} M_{m} = I.$
- <u>Exercise</u>: Consider a single-qubit scenario with measurement operators $M_0 = |0\rangle \langle 0|$ and $M_1 = |1\rangle \langle 1|$. Compare the above properties with what we did in earlier lectures.

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- The measurement operators satisfy the completeness equation, $\sum_{m} M_{m}^{\dagger} M_{m} = I.$
- <u>Cascaded measurements</u>: Suppose $\{L_l\}$ and $\{M_m\}$ are two sets of measurement operators. Show that a measurement defined by the measurement operators $\{L_l\}$ followed by $\{M_m\}$ is physically equivalent to a single measurement defined by the measurement operators $\{N_{lm}\}$ where $N_{lm} = M_m L_l$.

Quantum Mechanics Postulates

- We hinted earlier that distinguishing non-orthogonal states may not be possible. Now that we understands measurements, let us try to formulate and prove.
- The ability to distinguish quantum states can be formalised as the following game between two parties:

Distinguishing quantum states

Alice chooses a state $|\psi_i\rangle$ from a fixed set of states $|\psi_1\rangle$, ..., $|\psi_n\rangle$ (known to both Alice and Bob) and gives this state to Bob whose task is to identify *i*.

- <u>Claim 1</u>: There is a winning strategy for Bob if $|\psi_1\rangle$, ..., $|\psi_n\rangle$ are orthonormal states.
- <u>Claim 2</u>: There is no winning strategy for Bob if there are non-orthogonal states.

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- <u>Claim 1</u>: There is a winning strategy for Bob if $|\psi_1\rangle$, ..., $|\psi_n\rangle$ are orthonormal states.
 - Define measurement operators $M_i = |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$.
 - Define $M_0 = \sqrt{I \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i}$. Note that since $I \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i$ is a positive operator, square root is well defined.
 - <u>Claim 1.1</u>: $M_0, M_1, ..., M_n$ satisfy completeness relation.
 - Claim 1.2: Given state $|\psi_i\rangle$, p(i) = 1.

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• <u>Claim 2</u>: There is no winning strategy for Bob if there are non-orthogonal states.

Proof sketch

- Assume n = 2 and let $|\psi_1\rangle$ and $|\psi_2\rangle$ be non-orthogonal.
- The most general strategy for Bob is to measure using operators $\{M_m\}$ and use a function $f : \{1, ..., m\} \rightarrow \{1, 2\}$ to return an answer to Alice. Suppose for the sake of contradiction, there exists such a winning strategy for Bob.
- Let $E_i = \sum_{j:f(j)=i} M_j^{\dagger} M_j$ for i = 1, 2.
- Since this is a winning strategy for Bob, we have:

 $\langle \psi_1 | E_1 | \psi_1 \rangle = 1; \langle \psi_2 | E_2 | \psi_2 \rangle = 1$

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• Claim 2.1:
$$\sqrt{E_2} |\psi_1\rangle = 0$$

Quantum Mechanics Postulates

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- <u>Claim 2.1</u>: $\sqrt{E_2} |\psi_1\rangle = 0$
- <u>Claim 2.2</u>: Decompose $|\psi_2\rangle = \alpha |\psi_1\rangle + \beta |\phi\rangle$, where $|\phi\rangle$ is orthonormal to $|\psi_1\rangle$. Then $|\beta| < 1$.

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- Claim 2.1: $\sqrt{E_2} |\psi_1\rangle = 0$
- <u>Claim 2.2</u>: Decompose $|\psi_2\rangle = \alpha |\psi_1\rangle + \beta |\phi\rangle$, where $|\phi\rangle$ is orthonormal to $|\psi_1\rangle$. Then $|\beta| < 1$.
- Claim 2.3: $\langle \psi_2 | E_2 | \psi_2 \rangle = |\beta|^2 \langle \phi | E_2 | \phi \rangle \le |\beta|^2 < 1.$
- The above contradicts with the fourth bullet item.

End

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