

Title: Quantum Theory - Lecture 15

Date: Sep 28, 2012 09:00 AM

URL: <http://pirsa.org/12090018>

Abstract:

Concepts & Examples from Q. Information

Typically consider $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^D = \overbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}^{n \text{ 2-lvl systems}}$

Each $|i\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$ is called a quantum bit
or "qubit"

Contrast with \wedge_n classical bits $\{0,1\}^n$

Concepts & Examples from Q. Information

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Each $|i\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$ is called a quantum
or "qubit"

Contrast with n classical bits $\{0, 1\}^n$

\hookrightarrow state space $\{00 \dots 0, 00 \dots 1, \dots\}$

Q. Computing

- Initial state $|s(0)\rangle = |0\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^D$

↳ element of computational

basis $\{|00\dots 0\rangle, |00\dots 10\rangle$

Q. Computing

- Init state $|q(0)\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n} \in \mathbb{C}^D$

...ment of computational

asis $\{ |00\dots 0\rangle, |00\dots 1\rangle, |00\dots 10\rangle, \dots, |11\dots 1\rangle \}$

Q. Computing

- Initial state $|ψ(0)⟩ = \underline{|0⟩}^{\otimes n} \in \mathbb{C}^D$

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⇒ set of D O.N.

Transfo

Q. Computing

- Initial state $|ψ(0)⟩ = \underline{|0⟩}^{\otimes n} \in \mathbb{C}^D$

+ set of computational

$\{ |00\dots 0⟩, |00\dots 1⟩, |00\dots 10⟩, \dots, |11\dots 1⟩ \}$

\Rightarrow set of D O.N. q states.

Transformation is
an arbitrary $U \in U(D)$

Q. Computing

- 1 state $|q(0)\rangle = \underline{|0\rangle}^{\otimes n} \in \mathbb{C}^D$
- element of computational basis $\{|00\dots 0\rangle, |00\dots 1\rangle, |00\dots 10\rangle, \dots, |11\dots 1\rangle\}$
 \Rightarrow set of D O.N. q states

Transformation is an arbitrary $U \in \text{SU}(D)$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} U(D) & \text{vs} & \text{SU}(D) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ e^{i\varphi} U & & U \\ \varphi \in (0, 2\pi] & & \end{array}$$

We call $U \in \text{SU}(D)$ an algorithm when U is designed to solve some problem.

Q. Computing

- Initial state $|q(0)\rangle = \underline{|0\rangle}^{\otimes n} \in \mathbb{C}^D$

↳ element of computational

basis $\{ |00\dots 0\rangle, |00\dots 1\rangle, |00\dots 10\rangle,$

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⇒ set of D O.N. q states

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$U(D)$ vs $\text{SU}(D)$

$e^{i\varphi} U$ U

$\varphi \in (0, 2\pi]$

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Measurement

PVM into computational
basis

$\{ |010\rangle, |101\rangle, |010\rangle, |101\rangle$
& friends }

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Measurement

- PVM onto computational basis

$$\{ |0\rangle, |1\rangle \}$$

entire

ing

-b

Measurement

- PVM onto computational basis

$$\{ |0\rangle, |1\rangle, \dots, |0\rangle, |1\rangle \text{ & friends} \}$$

- Complete measurement of quantum state yields ~~bit~~ string.
an n-bit

Measurement $\{ |j\rangle \}_{j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}}$

- PVM onto computational basis

$\{ |010 \dots 101\rangle, |010 \dots 101\rangle, \dots, |010 \dots 101\rangle \}$
& friends

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Q Circuit

Any U can be decomposed into a sequence of elementary gates.

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- PVM onto computational basis

$|010\rangle \dots |01X010\rangle \dots |011\rangle$
& friends

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Q Circuit

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Measurement $\{ |j\rangle \}_{j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^n - 1\}}$

- PVM onto computational basis

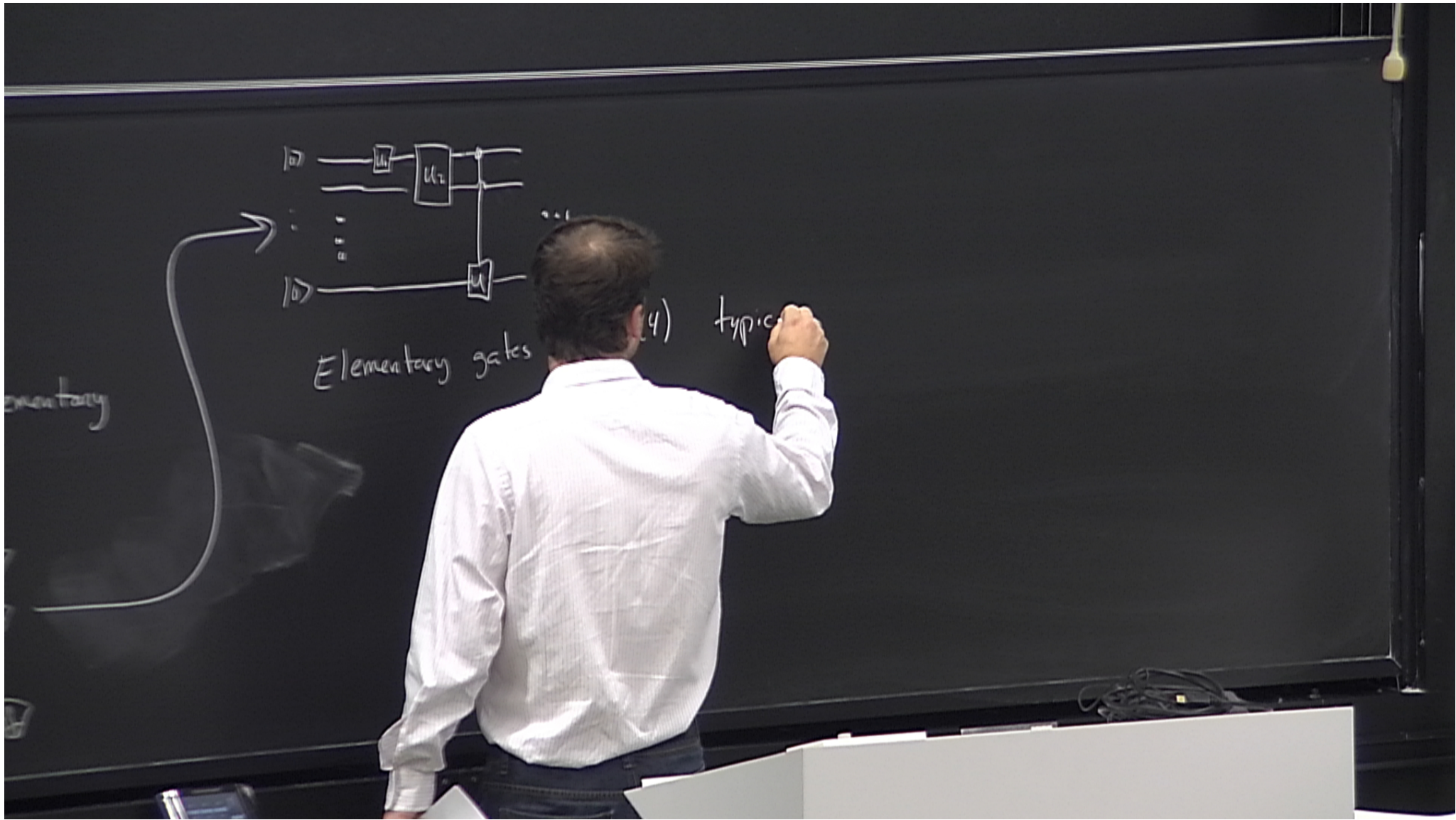
$\{ |010\dots 101\rangle, |010\dots 101\rangle, \dots, |101\rangle \}$
& friends

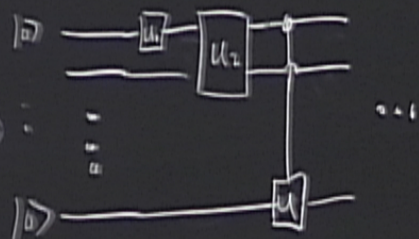
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Q Circuit

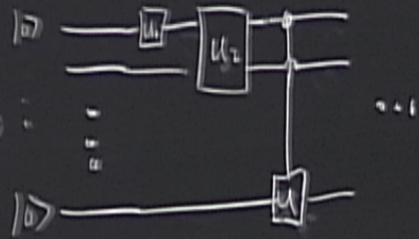
Any U can be decomposed into a sequence of elementary gates.







Elementary gates $U_i \in U(4)$ typically



Elementary gates $U_i \in \text{SU}(4)$ typically

E.g. Controlled unitary

Control qubit 1 to qubit 2 if

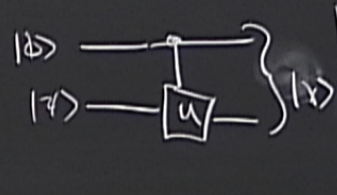
it is in the state $|1\rangle$

otherwise do nothing

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle, |\phi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

E.g. Controlled unitary

- Apply U to qubit 2 if qubit 1 is in the state $|1\rangle$ & otherwise do nothing



$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

Unitary

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

E.g. Controlled unitary

Apply U to qubit 2 if
qubit 1 is in the state $|1\rangle$
& otherwise do nothing

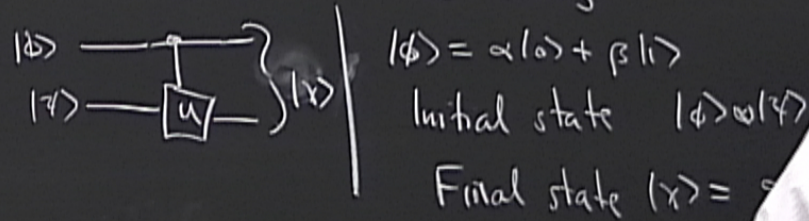


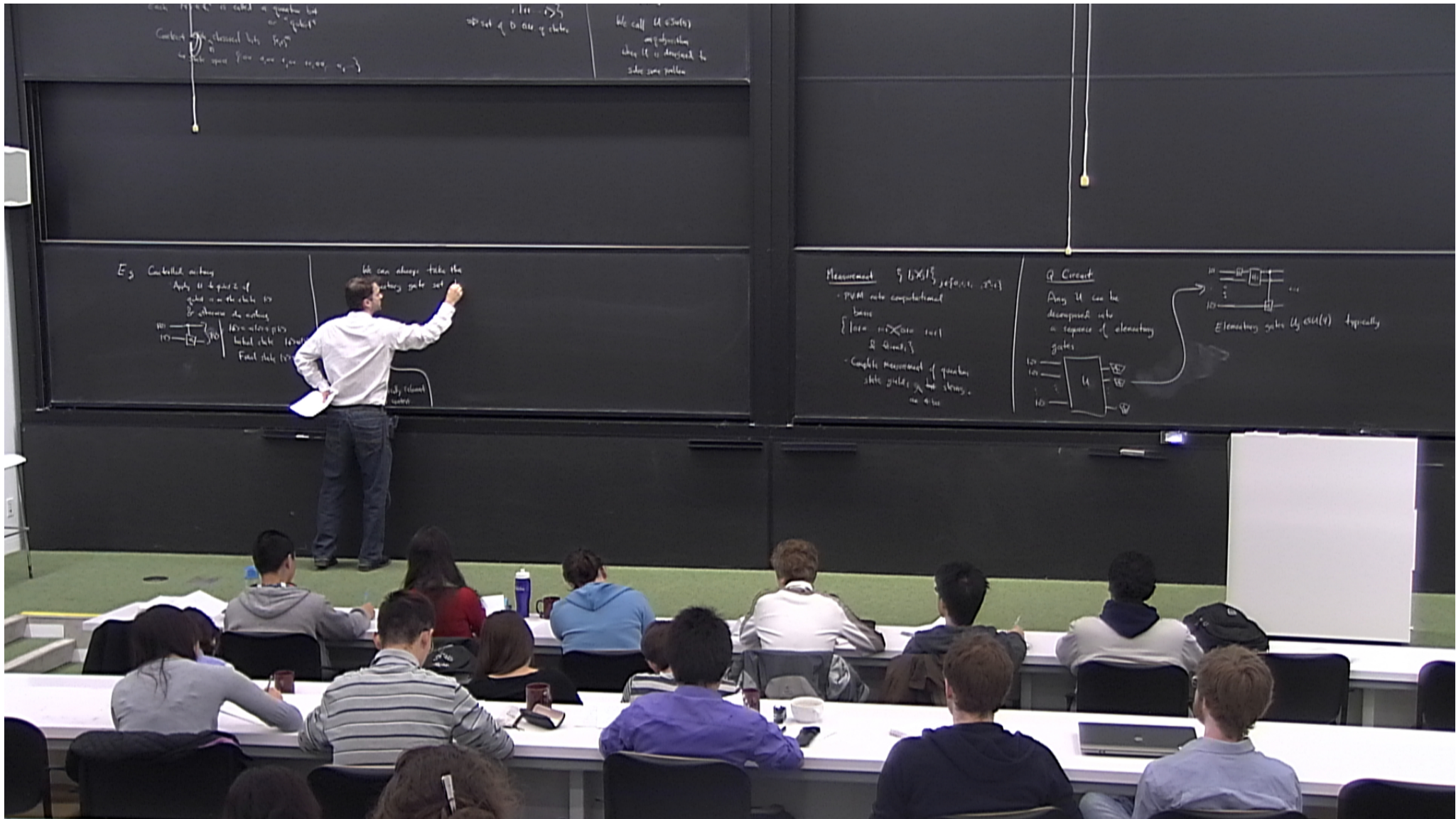
$$|\chi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \otimes U|\psi\rangle$$

$$U \in U(2) \supset SU(2)$$

E.g. Controlled unitary

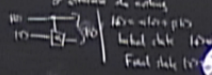
- Apply U to qubit 2 if qubit 1 is in the state $|1\rangle$ & otherwise do nothing





Controlled operations
 - Each gate is called a quantum gate or "qubit"
 - Control qubits are classical bits $\{0,1\}$
 - Target qubits are quantum bits $\{0,1\}$
 - We call U a gate
 - Any operation that U is designed to solve some problem

E.g. Controlled rotation
 - Apply U to target qubit if control qubit is 1
 - In quantum circuit, control qubit is 1, target qubit is 0, final state is 10

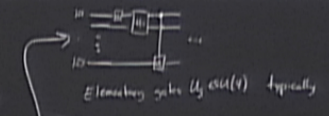
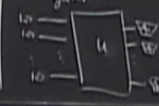


We can always take the quantum gate set

Measurement $\{ |0\rangle, |1\rangle \}$
 - PVM into computational basis
 - Complete measurement of quantum state yields a string of bits

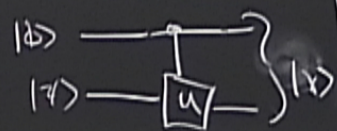
Q Circuit

Any U can be decomposed into a sequence of elementary gates



E.g. Controlled unitary

- Apply U to qubit 2 if qubit 1 is in the state $|1\rangle$ & otherwise do nothing



$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

Initial state

Final state

We can always
elementary gates
be a

$|\psi\rangle$

$SU(2)$

are physically relevant
in this context.

We can always take the elementary gate set to be a finite set.

$SU(4)$

$SU(2)$

are physically relevant in this context.

We can always take the
elementary set to
be a set.

overhead cost of
having an $U \in \mathcal{S}(D)$

• We can always take the elementary gate set to be a finite set.

• The overhead cost of approximating any $U \in SU(n)$ is small

$$\langle \psi | U | \psi \rangle + \beta \|U - U_{\text{approx}}\|$$

$$U \in U(n) \rightarrow SU(n)$$

↑
all $U(n)$ are physically relevant in this context.

• We can always take the elementary gate set to be a finite set.

• The overhead cost of approximating any $U \in SU(n)$ is small. *

$$|\psi\rangle + \beta |\psi\rangle U(t)$$

$$U \in U(n) \supset SU(n)$$

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all $U(n)$ are physically relevant in this context.

We call a gate set that can generate an $SU(n)$ (to arbitrary precision)

• We can always take the elementary gate set to be a finite set.

• The overhead cost of approximating any $U \in SU(n)$ is small. *

$$|\alpha\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$$

$$U \in U(2) \rightarrow SU(2)$$

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We call a gate set that can generate any $U \in SU(n)$ (to arbitrary but fixed precision) a universal gate set.

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necessary but convenient set:

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$$|\alpha\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \otimes U|1\rangle$$

$$U \in U(2) \rightarrow SU(2)$$

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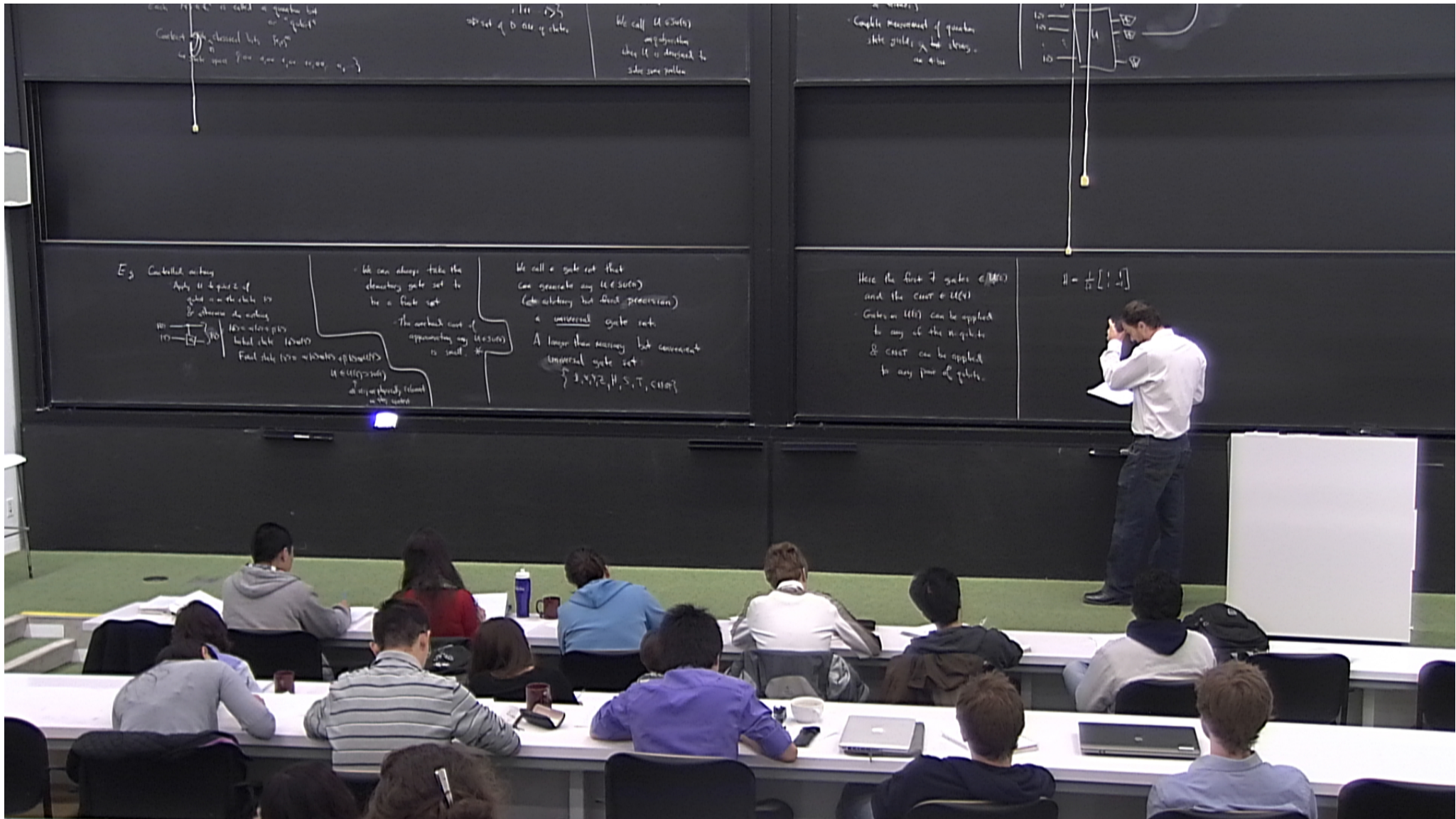
We call a gate set that can generate any $U \in SU(2)$ (to arbitrary but fixed precision) a universal gate set.

A larger than necessary but convenient universal gate set:
 $\{I, X, Y, Z, H, S, T, \text{CNOT}\}$

Here the first 7 gates $\in \text{SU}(2)$

Here the first 7 gates $\in U(2)$
and the CNOT $\in U(4)$.

- Gates in $U(2)$ can be applied
to any of the n -qubits
& CNOT can be applied
to any pair of qubits.



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- Gates in $U(2)$ can be applied to any of the n -qubits & CNOT can be applied to any pair of qubits.

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

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

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- Gates in $U(2)$ can be applied to any of the n -qubits & CNOT can be applied to any pair of qubits.

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

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

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

$$T = e^{+i\pi/2} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\pi/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{+i\pi/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$T = e^{+i\pi/8} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\pi/8} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{+i\pi/8} \end{bmatrix}$$

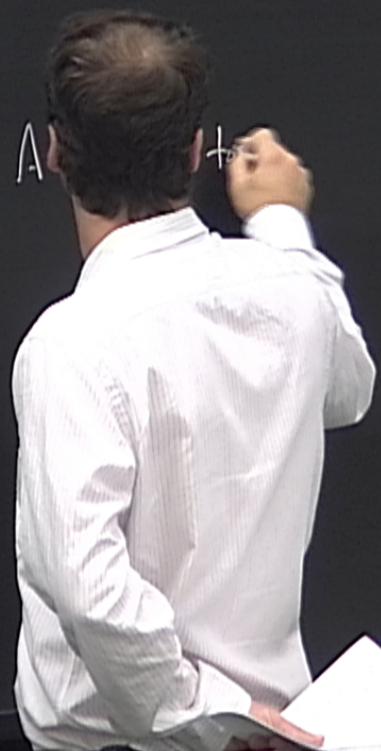
$(i\pi/8)$

$$T = e^{+i\pi/8} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\pi/8} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{+i\pi/8} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} |00\rangle \\ |01\rangle \\ |10\rangle \\ |11\rangle \end{matrix}$$

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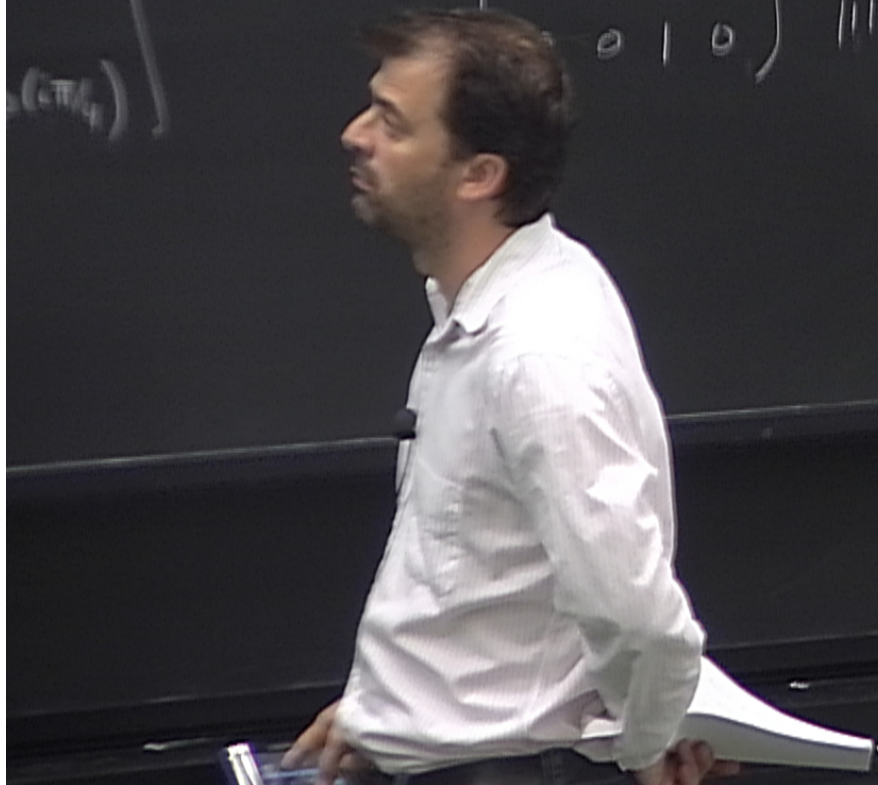
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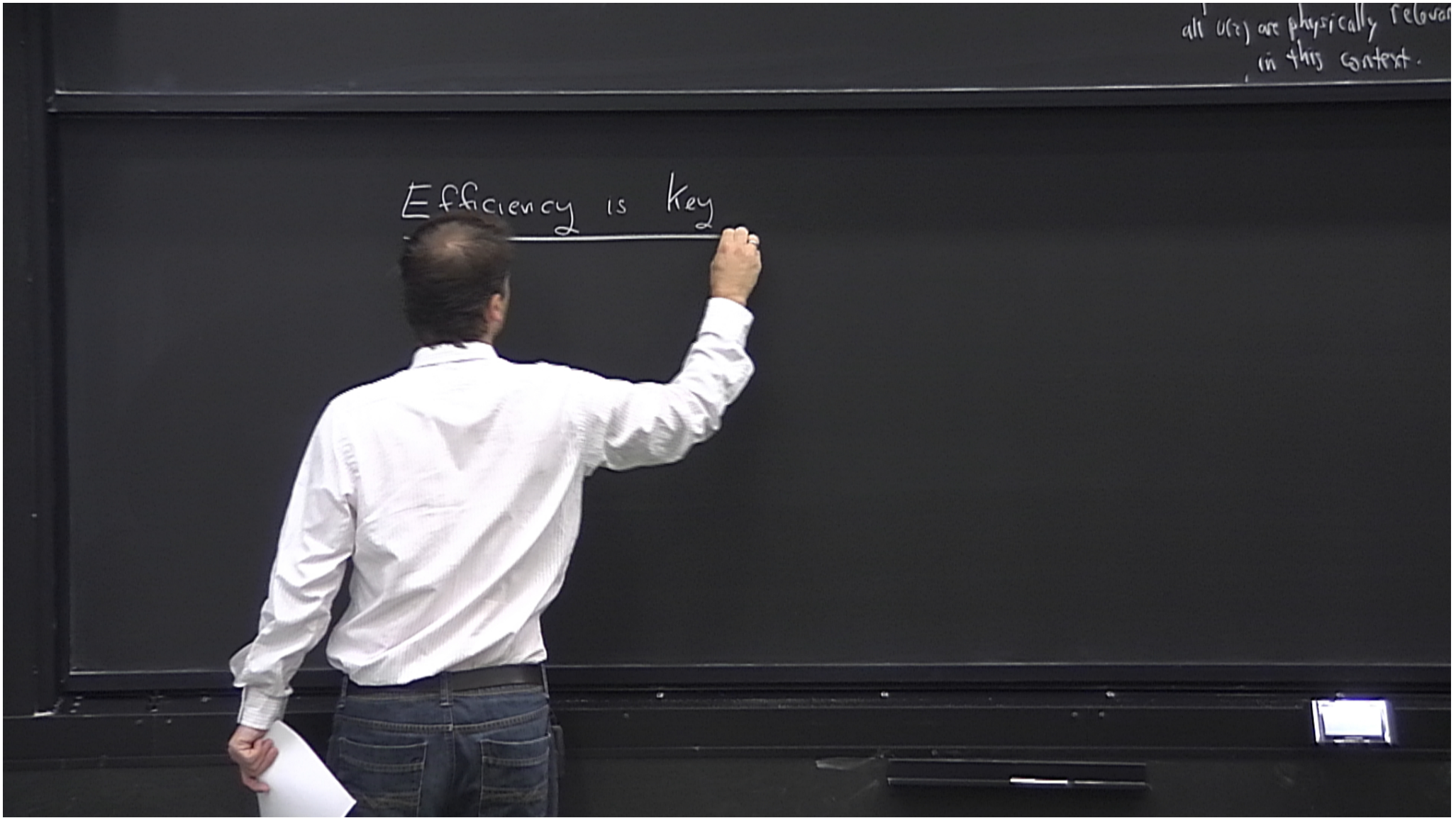


$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $|00\rangle$
- $|01\rangle$
- $|10\rangle$
- $|11\rangle$

Action is to flip the 2nd qubit if the 1st qubit is in the $|1\rangle$ state.





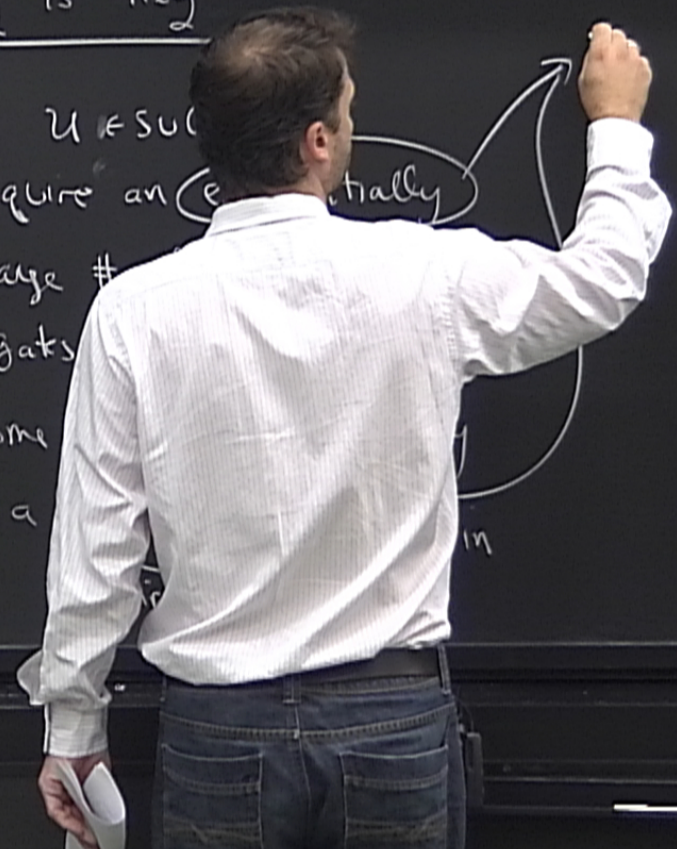
all U_i are physically relevant
in this context.

Efficiency is Key

- Most $U \in \text{SU}(n)$ require an exponentially large # of elementary gates in their decomposition
- Some $U \in \text{SU}(n)$ require only a polynomial # of gates in their decomposition.

all users are physically relevant
in this context.

Efficiency is key

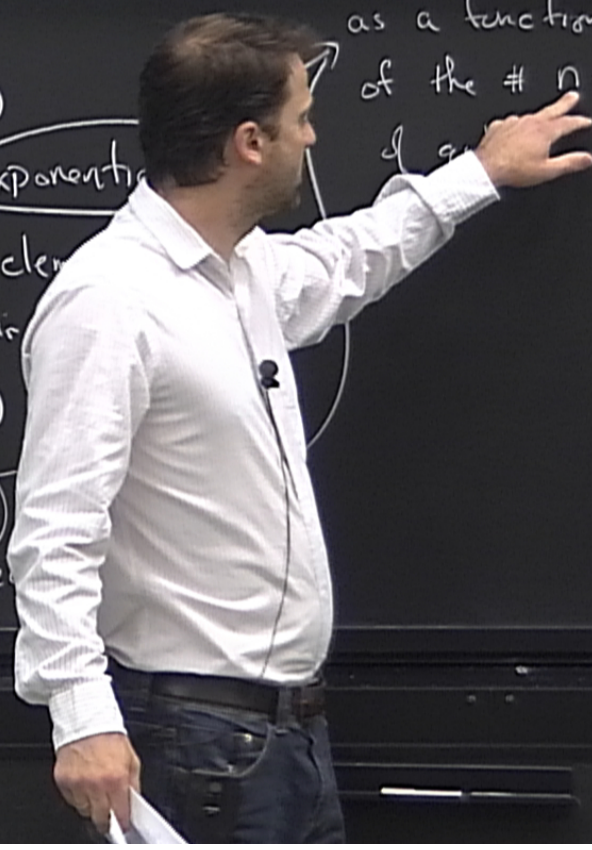
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 - Some a
- 

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Efficiency is Key

- Most $U \in \text{SU}(D)$
require an exponential
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- Some $U \in \text{SU}(D)$
are a polynomial
in their de

as a function
of the # $n = \log_2(D)$



all $U \in SU(n)$ are physically relevant in this context.

Efficiency is Key

hard

||

• Most $U \in SU(n)$ require an exponentially large # of elementary gates in their decomposition

easy

||

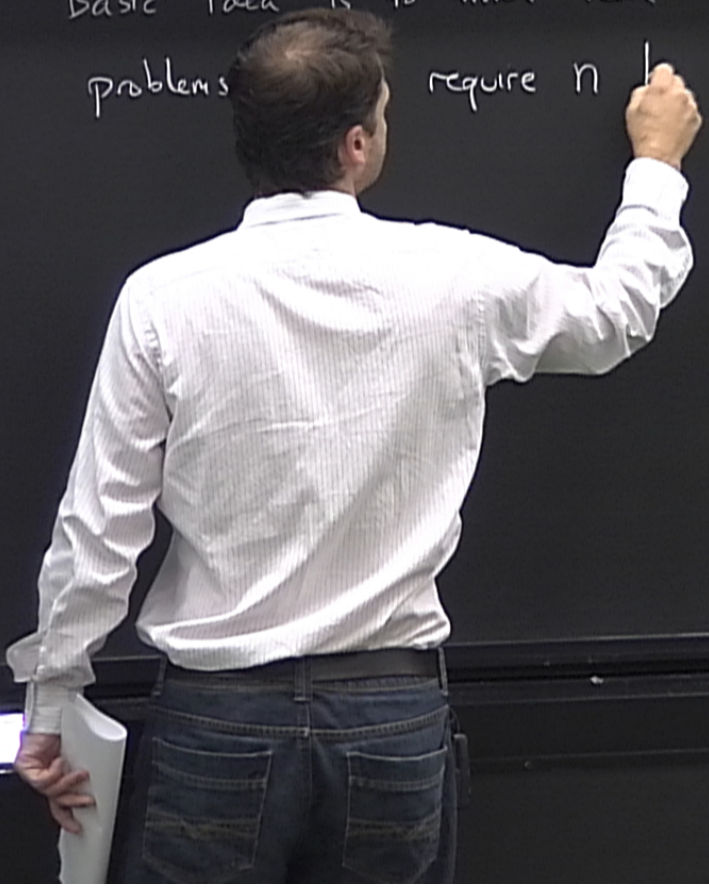
• Some $U \in SU(n)$ require only a polynomial # of gates in their decomposition.

as a function of the # $n = 1$ of qubits

are physically relevant
in this context.

Basic idea is to find real
problems require n

(D)



in this context.

Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are class

(D)

in this context.

Basic idea is to find real
problems, which require n bits
to specify, and which are
classically hard to solve

class

in this context.

(D)
Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are classically hard to solve ($\#$ of classical steps $\propto 2^n$) but quantumly easy to solve

in this context.

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$P \stackrel{?}{\neq}$

in this context.

(D) Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and are classically hard to solve ($\#$ of classical solutions $\geq 2^n$) but quantumly easy to solve

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$
↑

in this context.

(D)
- Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are classically hard to solve ($\#$ of classical steps $\propto 2^n$) but quantumly easy to solve

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$

↑ ↑

Start with a very very large number (integer)
 $\Rightarrow \#$ of bits = n

in this context.

(D) Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are classically hard to solve (# of classical steps) but quantumly easy.

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$
↑ ↑

Factoring

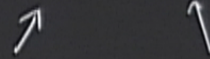
Start with a very very large number (integer)
 \Rightarrow # of bits = n

Find prime factors.
Classically, best known solⁿ, $\alpha 2^n$

in this context.

(D) Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n to specify, and which are classically hard to solve (i.e. # of classical steps is exponential in n) but quantumly easy.

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$



class of problems whose solⁿ

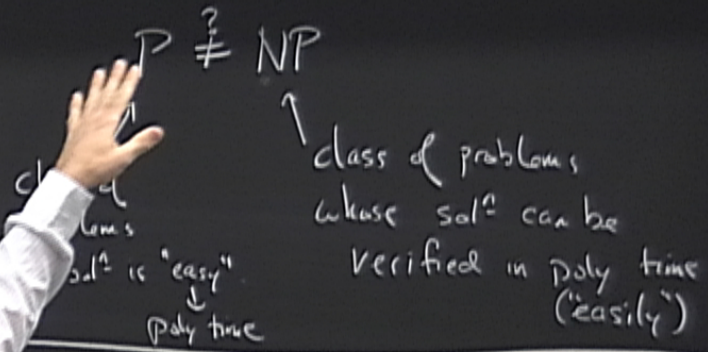
Start with a very very large number (integer)
⇒ # of bits = n

"Hard problem"

Find prime factors.
Classically, best known solⁿ, $\alpha 2^n$

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Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are classically hard to solve (# of classical steps) but quantumly easy.

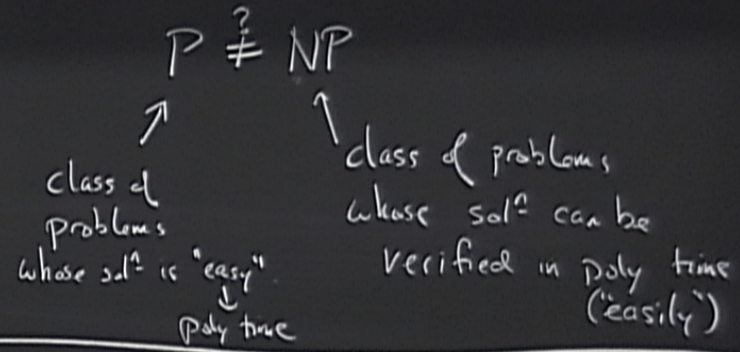


Factoring - Start with a very very large number (integer)
 \Rightarrow # of bits = n

"Hard problem" - Find prime factors.
Classically, best known solⁿ, $\alpha 2^n$

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Basic idea is to find real problems, which require n bits to specify, and which are classically hard to solve ($\#$ of classical steps $\propto 2^n$) but quantumly easy to solve



Factoring - Start with a very very large number (integer)
 $\Rightarrow \#$ of bits = n

"Hard problem" - Find prime factors.
Classically, best known solⁿ, $\propto 2^n$

all are equally hard in this context.

Efficiency is Key

hard

||

• Most $U \in SU(D)$ require an exponentially large # of elementary gates in their decomposition

easy

||

• Some $U \in SU(D)$ require only a polynomial # of gates in their decomposition.

as a function of the # $n = \log_2(D)$ of qubits

Shor's factoring algorithm
identifies an "easy" U
that can solve the factoring
problem.

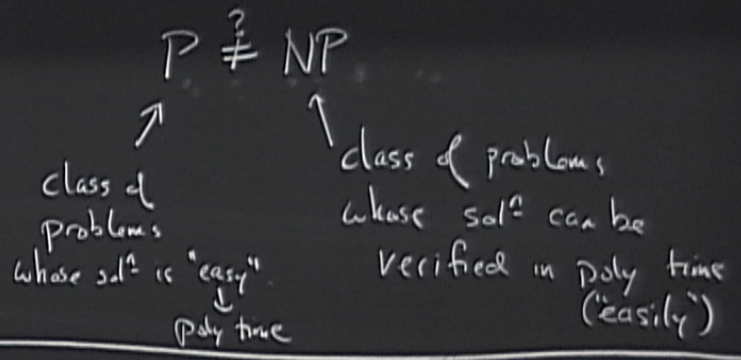
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Factoring . Start with a very very large number (integer)
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"Hard problem" Find prime factors.
 Classically, best known solⁿ, $\propto 2^n$

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1) Teleportation

is given "one
of a 9 state" $|4\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^9$

Shor's factoring algorithm
identifies an "easy" U
that can solve the factoring
problem.

Q Teleportation

is given "one
of a q state", $| \psi \rangle \in \mathbb{C}^q$
to send $| \psi \rangle$ to Bob,

Shor's factoring algorithm
identifies an "easy" U
that can solve the factoring
problem.

Q Teleportation

- Alice is given "one
copy of a q state", $|q\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^q$
- Alice wants to send $|q\rangle$ to Bob,
but only has access to classical
communication.



Each U is called a quantum gate or "qubit"
 Composed of classical bits $0, 1$
 n qubits \rightarrow state space 2^n (e.g. $2, 4, 8, 16, 32, \dots$)

E_2 Controlled rotation
 Apply U to a pair of qubits (a, b) state $|a\rangle|b\rangle$
 & otherwise do nothing
 Final state $(|a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle) \rightarrow U(|a\rangle|b\rangle)$
 as a function of the a or b of qubits

We can always take the elementary gate set to be a finite set
 The smallest cost of approximating any $U \in SU(2)$ is small $\#$
 We call a gate set that can generate any $U \in SU(2)$ (with arbitrary but fixed precision) a universal gate set.
 A larger than necessary but convenient universal gate set:
 $\{X, Y, Z, H, S, T, CNOT\}$

Efficiency is key
 Most $U \in SU(2)$ require an exponentially large # of elementary gates in their decomposition
 Some $U \in SU(2)$ require only a polynomial # of gates in their decomposition

Some idea is to find real problems, which require it lots to specify, and which are classically hard to solve (P of classical steps n^2) but quantumly easy to solve

P \neq NP
 class of problems that can be verified in poly time (classical)
 class of problems that can be solved in poly time (classical)
 Factoring: solve with computers large number (integer) \rightarrow # of bits n
 "Hard" problem: Factoring is classically hard, but quantumly easy

Complete measurement of quantum state yields n bits of string, no more



Here the first 7 gates U_i and the cost $U(4)$
 Gates U_i can be applied to any of the registers & CNOT can be applied to any pair of qubits.

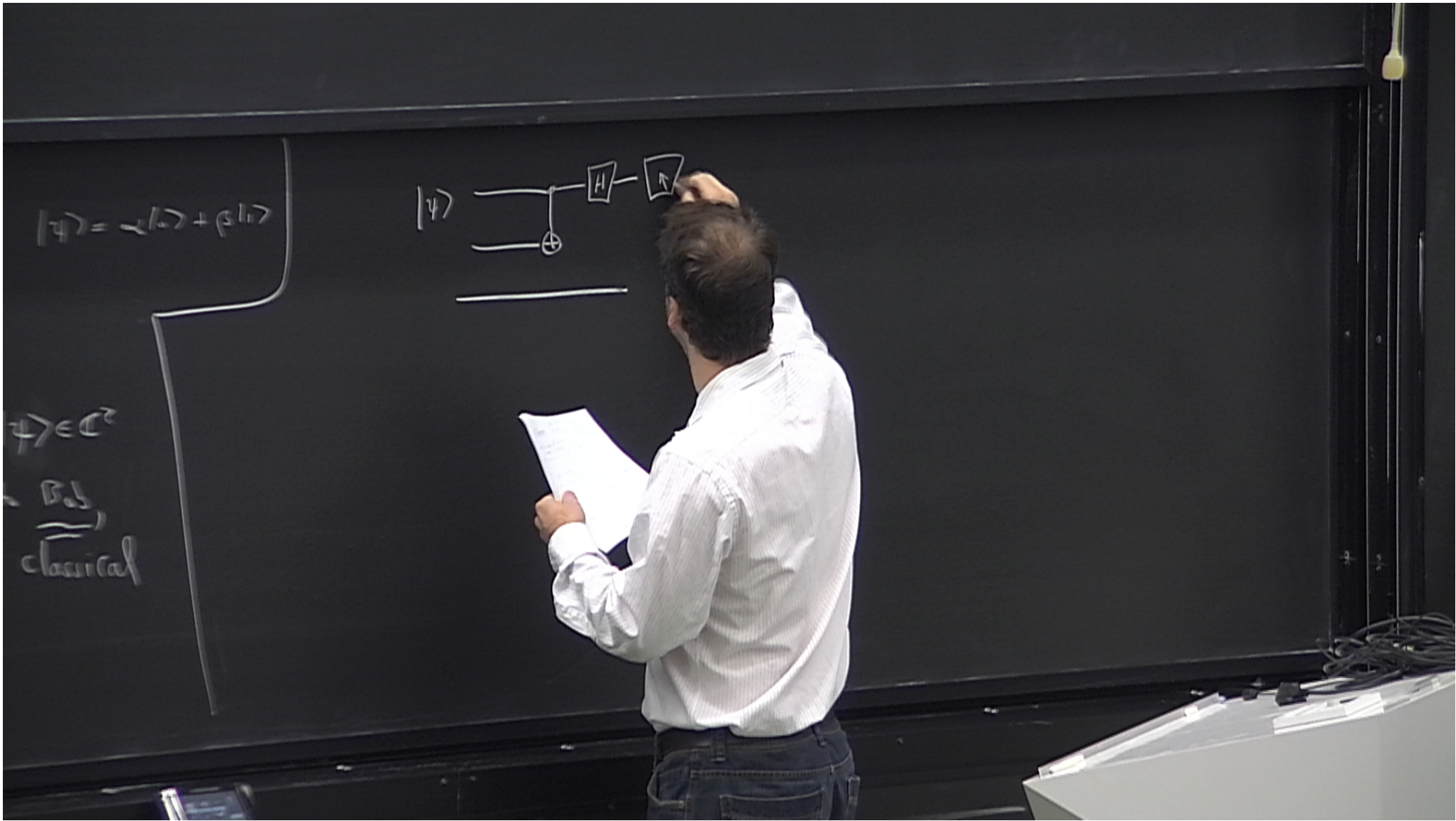
$$T = e^{-i\pi/4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix}$$

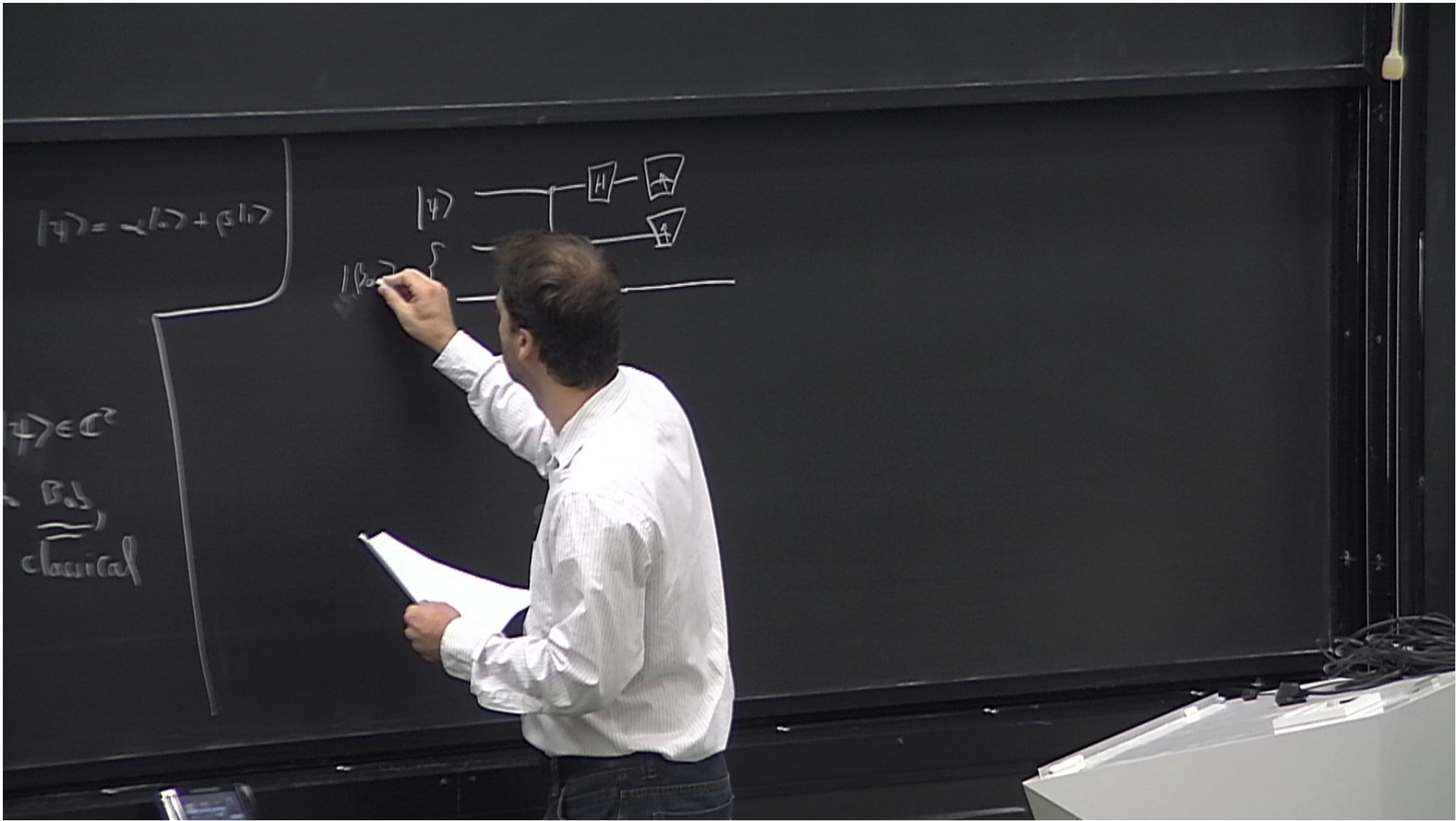
$$CNOT = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Action is to flip if the 1st qubit

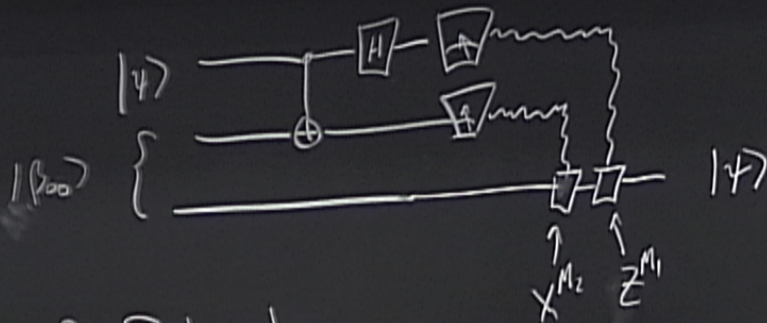
Shor's factoring algorithm identifies an "easy" problem that can solve the "hard" problem

Q Teleportation $1/2 \rightarrow 2/2 \rightarrow 1/2$
 - Alice is given "one" copy of a "q state" $|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$
 - Also wants to send M to Bob, but only has access to classical communication.





$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

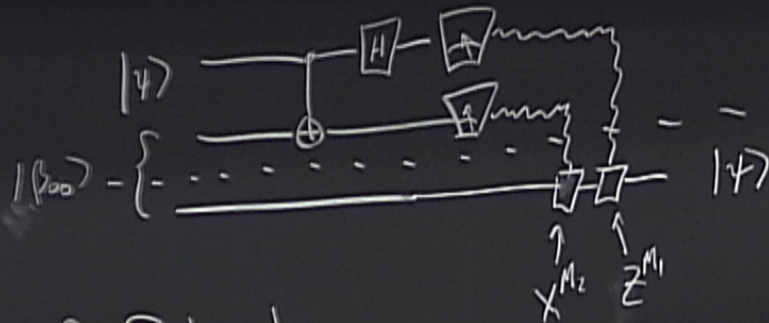


Alice & Bob share
an entangled (Bell state)

$$|\beta_{00}\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2$
Bob,
classical

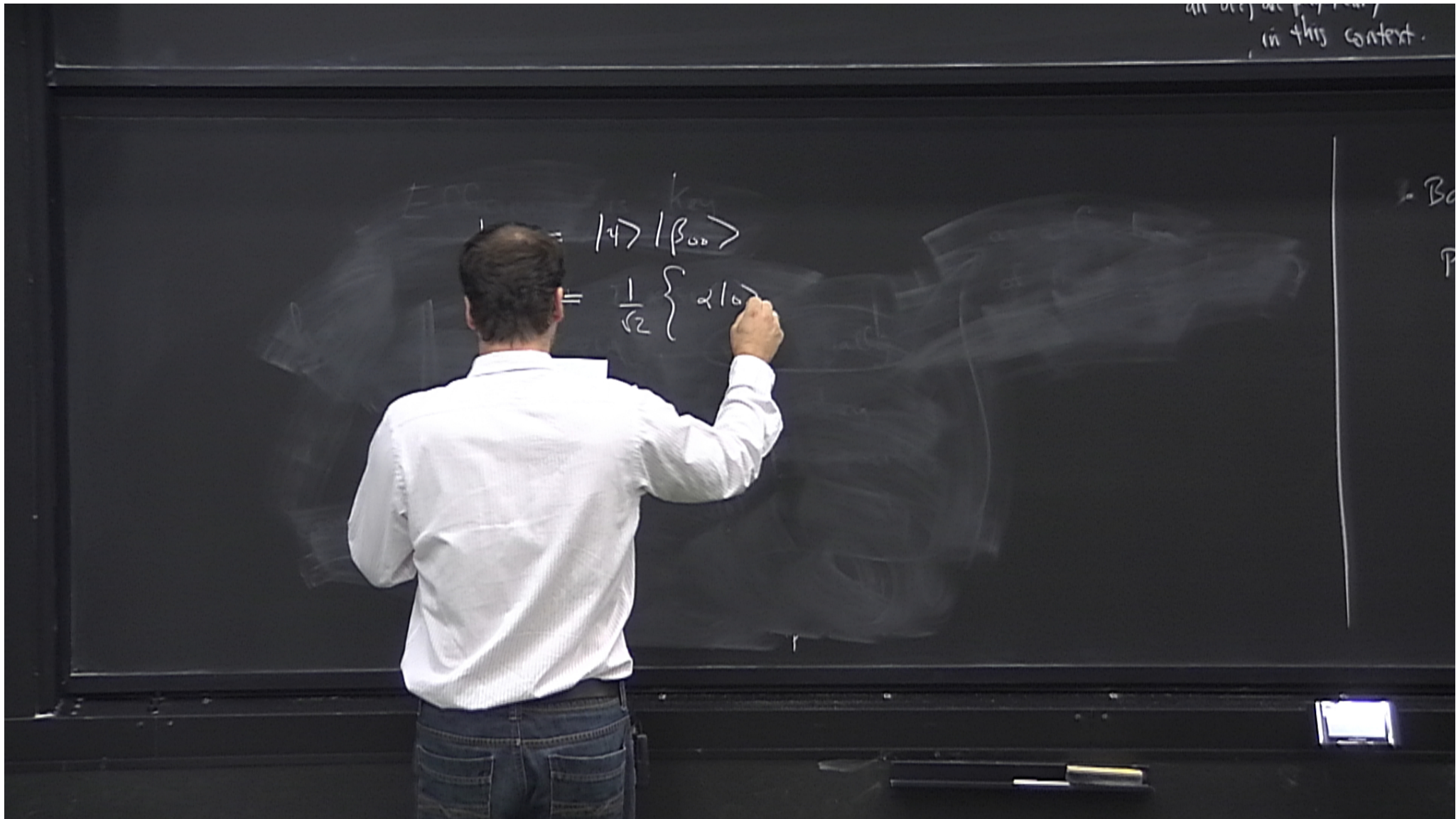
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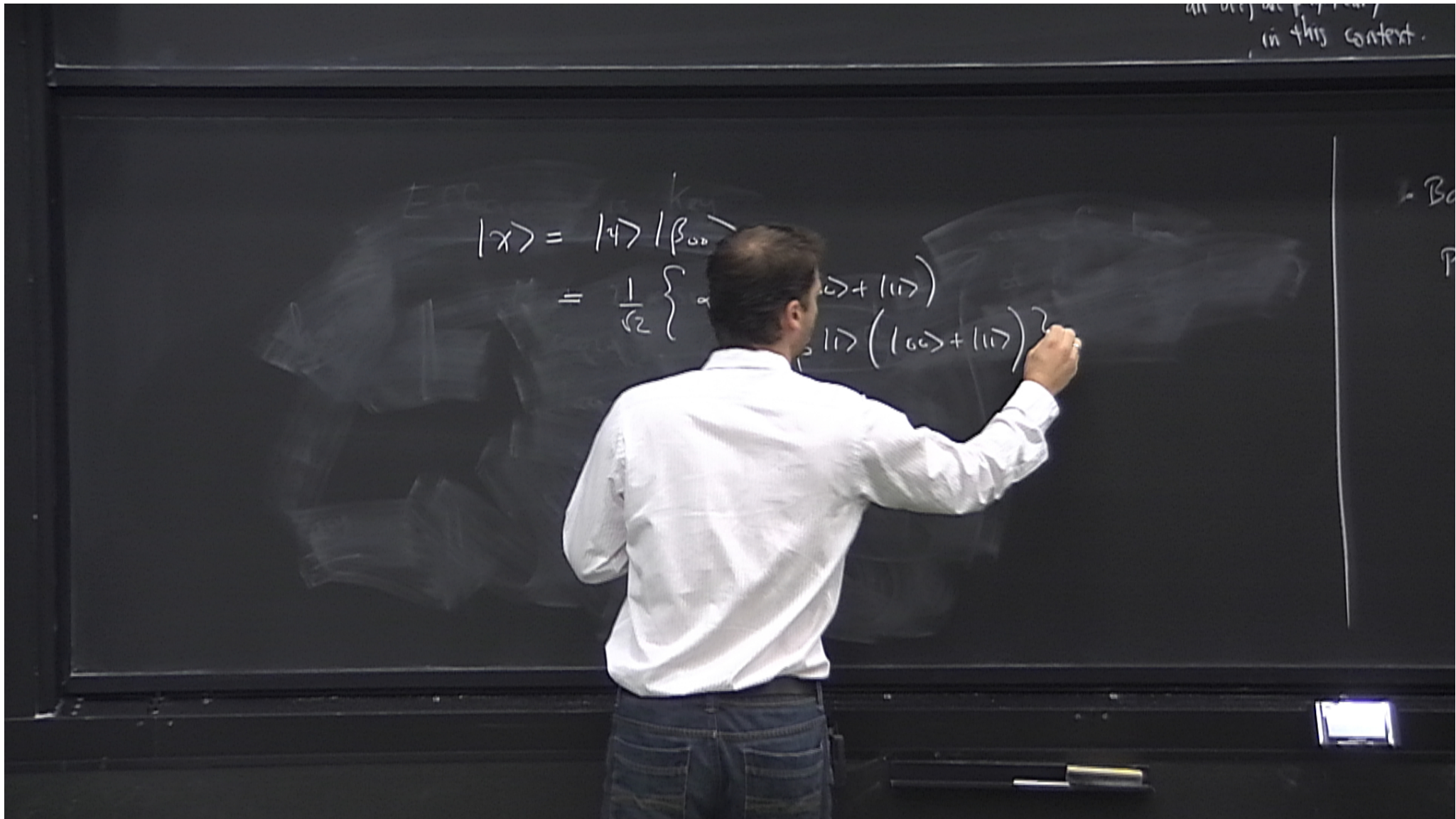


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all the...
in this context.

$$\begin{aligned} |\chi\rangle &= |\alpha\rangle |\beta_{00}\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ \alpha |0\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \beta |1\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ \alpha |0\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \beta |1\rangle (|10\rangle + |01\rangle) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow =$$

all the...
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$$|\chi\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\beta_{00}\rangle$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ \alpha |0\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta |1\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \right\}$$

CNOT

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left\{ \alpha |0\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta |1\rangle (|10\rangle + |01\rangle) \right\}$$

all the...
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$$|x\rangle = |y\rangle |\beta_{00}\rangle$$
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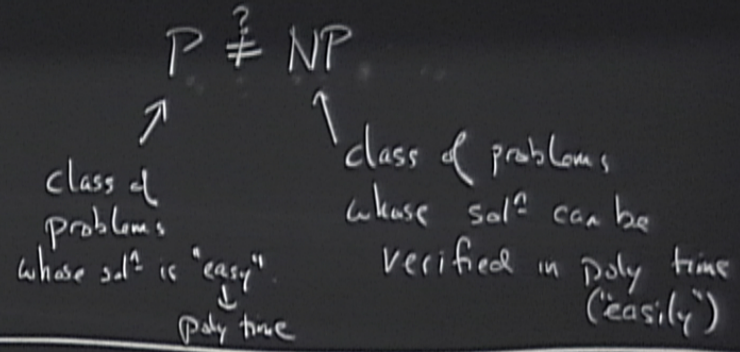
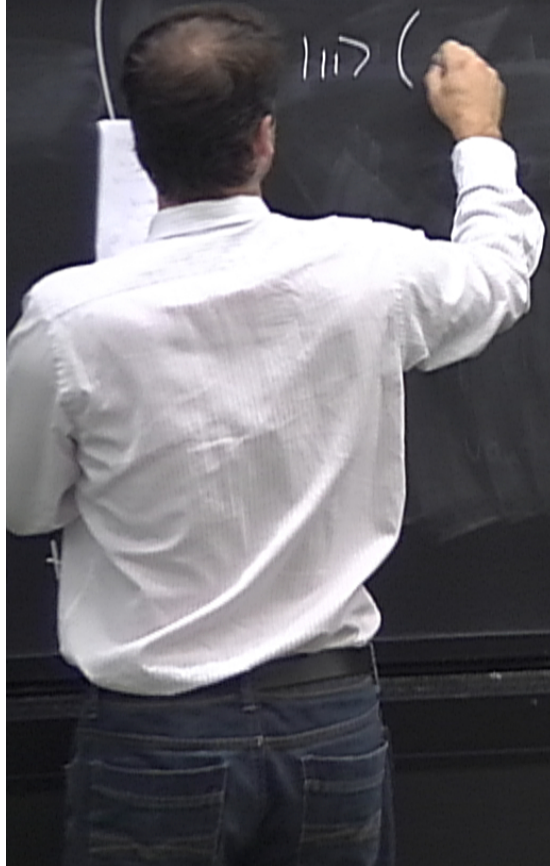
H →

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \alpha (|00\rangle + |11\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle) + \beta (|00\rangle + |11\rangle - |01\rangle - |10\rangle) \right\}$$

in this context.

$$\rightarrow 110 \rangle (\alpha 10 \rangle - \beta 10 \rangle)$$

$$111 \rangle ($$



Factoring - Start with a very very large number (integer)
 \Rightarrow # of bits = n

"Hard problem" - Find prime factors.
 Classically, best known solⁿ, $\propto 2^n$

in this context.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} &\rightarrow 110 (\alpha 10) - (\beta 10) \\ &+ 111 (\alpha 10) - (\beta 10) \end{aligned} \right\}$$

+

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$

↑
class of problems
whose solⁿ is "easy"
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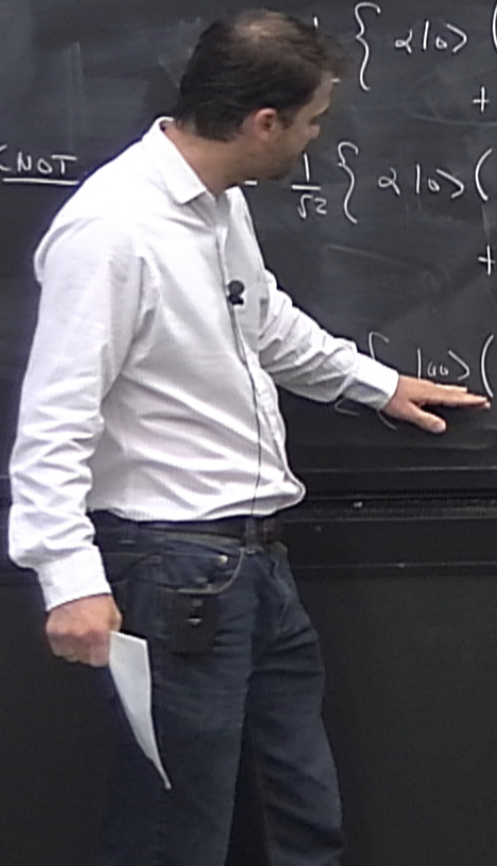
$$\left\{ \alpha |10\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) + \beta |11\rangle (|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \right\}$$

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$$\left\{ |00\rangle (\alpha |10\rangle + \beta |11\rangle) + |01\rangle (\alpha |11\rangle + \beta |10\rangle) + \right.$$

$$\left. |10\rangle (\alpha |10\rangle - \beta |11\rangle) + |11\rangle (\alpha |11\rangle - \beta |10\rangle) \right\}$$



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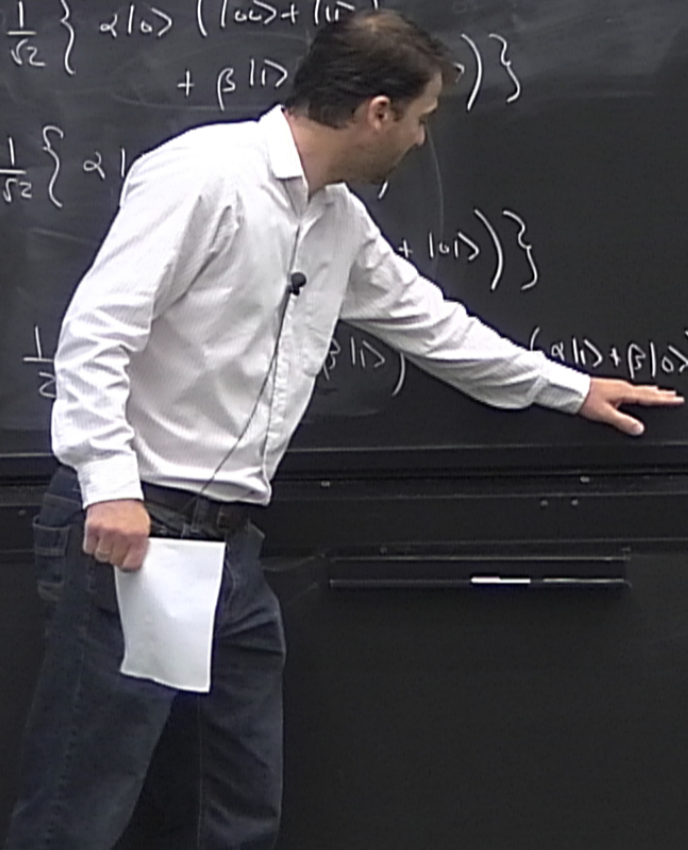
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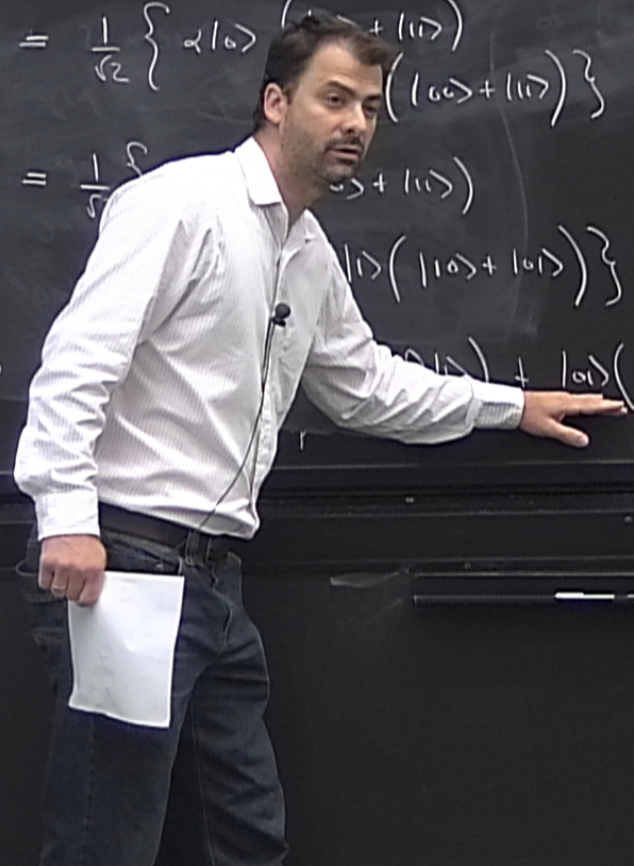
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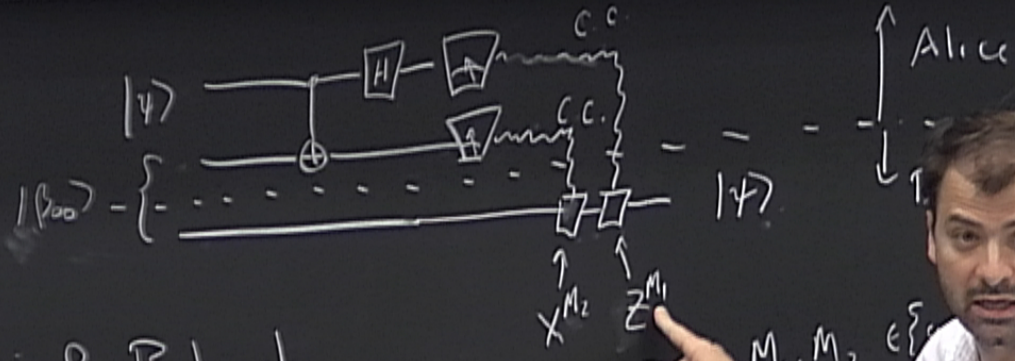
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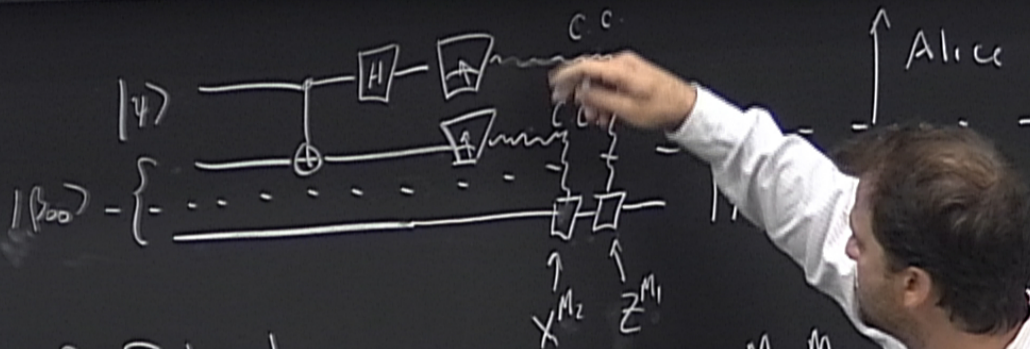


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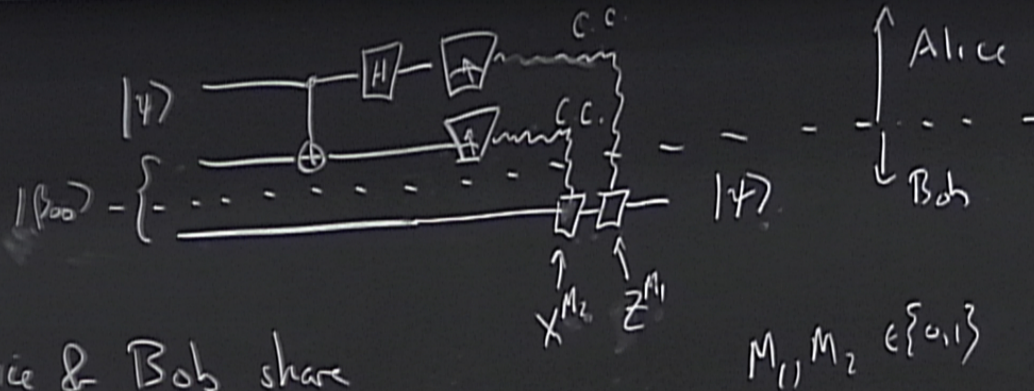


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\Rightarrow Hence 1 EPR pair
& 2 bits of CC
 \equiv 1 qubit of communication

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$

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