

Basic textbook:

1. *Quantum Computation and Quantum Information*
by Michael A. Nielsen and Isaac L. Chuang (Cambridge, 2000)
(with an emphasis on optical implementations)

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Review articles on quantum-optical computing:

1. *Linear optical quantum computing*,
P. Kok, W.J. Munro, K. Nemoto, T.C. Ralph, J. P. Dowling, G.J. Milburn,
free downloads at <http://arxiv.org/quant-ph/0512071>.
2. *Linear optics quantum computation: an overview*, C.R. Myers, R. Laflamme,
free downloads at <http://arxiv.org/quant-ph/0512104>.
3. *Quantum optical systems for the implementation of quantum information processing*, T.C. Ralph, free downloads at <http://arxiv.org/quant-ph/0609038>.
4. *Quantum mechanical description of linear optics*,
J. Skaar, J.C.G. Escartin, H. Landro,
Am. J. Phys. **72**, 1385-1391 (2005).

Keywords

- quantum logic gates
- quantum entanglement
- quantum cryptography
- quantum teleportation
- quantum algorithms
- quantum error correction
- quantum tomography
- solid-state implementations of quantum computing

Other Textbooks on Quantum Computing

1. *Quantum Computing* by Joachim Stolze, Dieter Suter
2. *Approaching Quantum Computing*
by Dan C. Marinescu, Gabriela M. Marinescu
3. *Introduction to Quantum Computation and Information*
edited by Hoi-Kwong Lo, Tim Spiller, Sandu Popescu
4. *Quantum Computing* by Mika Hirvensalo
5. *Explorations in Quantum Computing*
by Colin P. Williams, Scott H. Clearwater
6. *Quantum Information Processing*
edited by Gerd Leuchs, Thomas Beth
7. *Quantum Computing and Communications*
by Sandor Imre, Ferenc Balazs
8. *Quantum Computing and Communications*
by Sandor Imre, Ferenc Balazs

a two-level atom/system

9. *An Introduction to Quantum Computing Algorithms*
by Arthur O. Pittenger
10. *Quantum Computing* by M. Nakahara, Tetsuo Ohmi
11. *Principles of Quantum Computation and Information - Vol.I*
by Giuliano Benenti, Giulio Casati, Giuliano Strini
– physical notation
12. *Principles of Quantum Computation And Information: Basic Tools And Special Topics* by Giuliano Benenti
– information notation
13. *Quantum Optics for Quantum Information Processing*
edited by Paolo Mataloni
– information notation
14. *Lectures on Quantum Information*
edited by Dagmar Bruß, Gerd Leuchs
15. *A Short Introduction to Quantum Information and Quantum Computation*
by Michel Le Bellac
16. *Quantum Computation and Quantum Communication* by Mladen Pavicic
17. *Scalable Quantum Computers: Paving the Way to Realization*
edited by Samuel L. Braunstein, Hoi-Kwong Lo
18. *Fundamentals of Quantum Information* edited by Dieter Heiss
19. *Experimental Aspects of Quantum Computing*
edited by Henry O. Everitt
20. *Quantum Computing: Where Do We Want to Go Tomorrow*
edited by Samuel L. Braunstein
21. *Quantum Information* by Gernot Alber et al.
22. *The Physics of Quantum Information*
edited by Dirk Bouwmeester, Artur K. Ekert, Anton Zeilinger
23. *Temple of Quantum Computing* by Riley T. Perry
(free downloads at www.toqc.com)
24. *Quantum Computation* edited by Samuel J. Lomonaco, Jr.
(free downloads at www.cs.umbc.edu/~lomonaco)
25. *Lecture Notes for Physics: Quantum Information and Computation*
by John Preskill
(free downloads at www.theory.caltech.edu/people/preskill/ph229).

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qubit = quantum bit

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- the smallest unit of quantum information
 - physically realized by a 2-level quantum system whose two basic states are conventionally labelled $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$
 - By contrast to classical bits, a qubit can be in an arbitrary superposition of '0' and '1':
- $$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$
- with normalization condition $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.
- **matrix representation** of qubit states:
- $$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
- $$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

$|g\rangle$ - ground state
 $|e\rangle$ - excited state

$$|g\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |e\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

qudits = qunits

d -dimensional quantum states, generalized qubits

$$|\psi\rangle_d = \sum_{n=0}^{d-1} c_n |n\rangle$$

with normalization condition

$$\sum_{n=0}^{d-1} |c_n|^2 = 1$$

special cases

2D qudit = qubit

3D qudit = qutrit

4D qudit = (qu)quartit = ququart

5D qudit = (qu)quintit

...

optical qudits are spanned in d -dimensional Fock space

quantum (logic) gates

basic quantum circuits
operating on a small number of qubits

they are for quantum computers what
classical logic gates are in conventional computers

Pauli \hat{X} gate = quantum NOT gate = bit flip

$$\hat{X} \equiv \hat{\sigma}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\hat{X}|k\rangle = |1 \oplus k\rangle, \quad k = 0, 1$
examples

$$\hat{X}|1\rangle = \hat{X}\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle$$

$$\hat{X}(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \beta|0\rangle + \alpha|1\rangle$$

Pauli \hat{Z} gate = phase flip

$$\hat{Z} \equiv \hat{\sigma}_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{Z}|k\rangle = (-1)^k |k\rangle, \quad k = 0, 1$$

example

$$\hat{Z}(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ -\beta \end{bmatrix} = \alpha|0\rangle - \beta|1\rangle$$

Pauli \hat{Y} gate = phase flip + bit flip

$$\hat{Y} \equiv \hat{\sigma}_X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{Y}|k\rangle = i(-1)^k |1 \oplus k\rangle, \quad k = 0, 1$$

example

$$\hat{Y}(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = i \begin{bmatrix} -\beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix} = -i\beta|0\rangle + i\alpha|1\rangle$$

phase gate

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

Hadamard gate

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

examples

$$\hat{H}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \equiv |+\rangle$$

$$\hat{H}|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \equiv |-\rangle$$

$$\hat{H}|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle$$

$$\hat{H}|-\rangle = |1\rangle$$

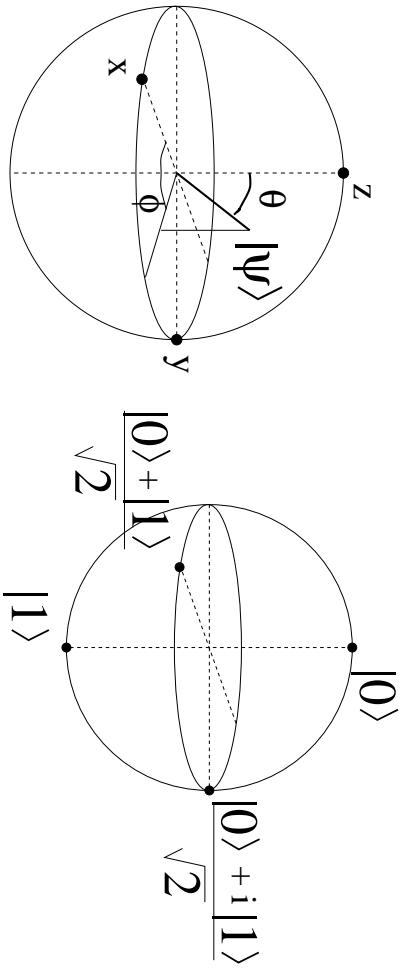
Bloch representation/sphere

- rotations about $k = x, y, z$ axes – special cases of $\hat{R}_n(\theta)$

$$\hat{R}_k(\theta) = \exp(-i\frac{\theta}{2}\hat{\sigma}_k) = \hat{\sigma}_I \cos \frac{\theta}{2} - i\hat{\sigma}_k \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

or explicitly

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{X}(\theta) &\equiv \hat{R}_x(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ -i \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ \hat{Y}(\theta) &\equiv \hat{R}_y(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -\sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ \hat{Z}(\theta) &\equiv \hat{R}_z(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$



- Do we need all XYZ-rotations? No!

e.g. we can omit Z -rotation as

$$\hat{Z}(\theta) = \hat{X}(\frac{\pi}{2})\hat{Y}(\theta)\hat{X}(-\frac{\pi}{2}) = \hat{Y}(\frac{\pi}{2})\hat{X}(-\theta)\hat{Y}(-\frac{\pi}{2}).$$

- any single-qubit gate

can be written as a decomposition ZY (or, equivalently, XY or XZ)

$$\hat{U} = e^{i\alpha}\hat{R}_n(\theta) = e^{i\alpha}\hat{Z}(\theta_1)\hat{Y}(\theta_2)\hat{Z}(\theta_3)$$

qubit rotations

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- rotations on Bloch sphere

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}_n(2\theta) &\equiv \exp(-i\theta\mathbf{n} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}) \\ &= \hat{\sigma}_I \cos \theta - i\mathbf{n} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \sin \theta \\ &= \hat{\sigma}_I \cos \theta - i(n_x \hat{\sigma}_x + n_y \hat{\sigma}_y + n_z \hat{\sigma}_z) \sin \theta,\end{aligned}$$

- Pauli matrices (and identity matrix)

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\sigma}_x &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0|, \\ \hat{\sigma}_y &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -i|0\rangle\langle 1| + i|1\rangle\langle 0|, \\ \hat{\sigma}_z &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1|, \\ \hat{\sigma}_I &\equiv \hat{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1| \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} &= (\hat{\sigma}_x, \hat{\sigma}_y, \hat{\sigma}_z)\end{aligned}$$

Bloch vector (Pauli vector) for a qubit

- in any pure state

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

we have

$$\mathbf{r}_{\text{Bloch}} \equiv (r_x, r_y, r_z) = (\sin \theta \cos \phi, \sin \theta \sin \phi, \cos \theta)$$

- in any mixed state

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\rho} &= \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\sigma}_I + \mathbf{r}_{\text{Bloch}} \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}) \quad (\text{so-called Pauli basis}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\sigma}_I + r_x \hat{\sigma}_x + r_y \hat{\sigma}_y + r_z \hat{\sigma}_z)\end{aligned}$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}_{\text{Bloch}} &= \langle \hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}} \rangle \\ &= \text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\boldsymbol{\sigma}}] \\ &= (\text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\sigma}_x], \text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\sigma}_y], \text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\sigma}_z]) \\ &= (2\text{Re}\rho_{21}, 2\text{Im}\rho_{21}, \rho_{11} - \rho_{22})\end{aligned}$$

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- Exemplary proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\sigma}_x] &= \text{Tr}\left[\frac{1}{2}(\hat{\sigma}_I + r_x\hat{\sigma}_x + r_y\hat{\sigma}_y + r_z\hat{\sigma}_z)\hat{\sigma}_x\right] \\
&= \frac{1}{2}\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_I\hat{\sigma}_x + r_x\hat{\sigma}_x\hat{\sigma}_x + r_y\hat{\sigma}_y\hat{\sigma}_x + r_z\hat{\sigma}_z\hat{\sigma}_x] \\
&= \frac{1}{2}(\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_I\hat{\sigma}_x] + r_x\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_x\hat{\sigma}_x] + r_y\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_y\hat{\sigma}_x] + r_z\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_z\hat{\sigma}_x]) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}(\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_x] + r_x\text{Tr}[\hat{\sigma}_I] + r_y\text{Tr}[-i\hat{\sigma}_z] + r_z\text{Tr}[i\hat{\sigma}_y]) \\
&= \frac{1}{2}(0 + 2r_x + 0 + 0) \\
&= r_x
\end{aligned}$$

moreover

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Tr}[\hat{\rho}\hat{\sigma}_x] &= \text{Tr}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) \\
&= \text{Tr}\begin{bmatrix} \rho_{12} & \rho_{11} \\ \rho_{22} & \rho_{21} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \rho_{12} + \rho_{21} = \rho_{21}^* + \rho_{21} = 2\text{Re } \rho_{21} = 2\text{Re } \rho_{12}
\end{aligned}$$

- Properties:

$$\begin{cases} |\mathbf{r}_{\text{Bloch}}| = 1 & \text{for pure state,} \\ |\mathbf{r}_{\text{Bloch}}| < 1 & \text{for mixed state} \end{cases}$$

Kronecker tensor product

let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}
A \otimes B &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}, & a_{12} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\ a_{21} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}, & a_{22} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} & a_{11}b_{12} & a_{12}b_{11} & a_{12}b_{12} \\ a_{11}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{22} & a_{12}b_{21} & a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} & a_{21}b_{12} & a_{22}b_{11} & a_{22}b_{12} \\ a_{21}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{22} & a_{22}b_{21} & a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

two-qubit pure states

$$\begin{aligned}
|\psi\rangle &= \alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle
\end{aligned}$$

notation of two-mode states

$$|\psi\rangle = |\psi'\rangle_A \otimes |\psi''\rangle_B \equiv |\psi'\rangle_A |\psi''\rangle_B \equiv |\psi'\psi''\rangle_{AB} \equiv |\psi'\psi''\rangle$$

matrix representation

$$\begin{aligned}
|00\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\
|01\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |10\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |11\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix},
\end{aligned}$$

matrix representation

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$$

$$= \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \gamma \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \delta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \alpha \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \beta \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \gamma \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \delta \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\
&= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \\ \delta \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Universal set of gates for quantum computing

- rotations of single qubits
- any nontrivial two-qubit gate (e.g., CNOT, NS, CZ)

CZ and CNOT gates

$\text{CZ} = \text{controlled phase gate (CPhase)}$
 $= \text{controlled sign gate (CSign)}$

control bit	target bit	CZ	CNOT
$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0,0\rangle$	$ 0,0\rangle$
$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$ 0,1\rangle$	$ 0,1\rangle$
$ 1\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1,0\rangle$	$ 1,1\rangle$
$ 1\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$- 1,1\rangle$	$ 1,0\rangle$

or equivalently

$$\text{CZ} : |q_1, q_2\rangle \rightarrow (-1)^{q_1 q_2} |q_1, q_2\rangle$$

$$\text{CNOT} : |q_1, q_2\rangle \rightarrow |q_1, q_1 \oplus q_2\rangle$$

where $q_k = 0, 1$ and $q_1 \oplus q_2 = \text{mod}(q_1 + q_2, 2)$.

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basic cryptographic terms (I)

Plaintext

a string of numbers (letters) of our digital alphabet

Encryption

a computation which is usually quick and easy to perform

Decryption

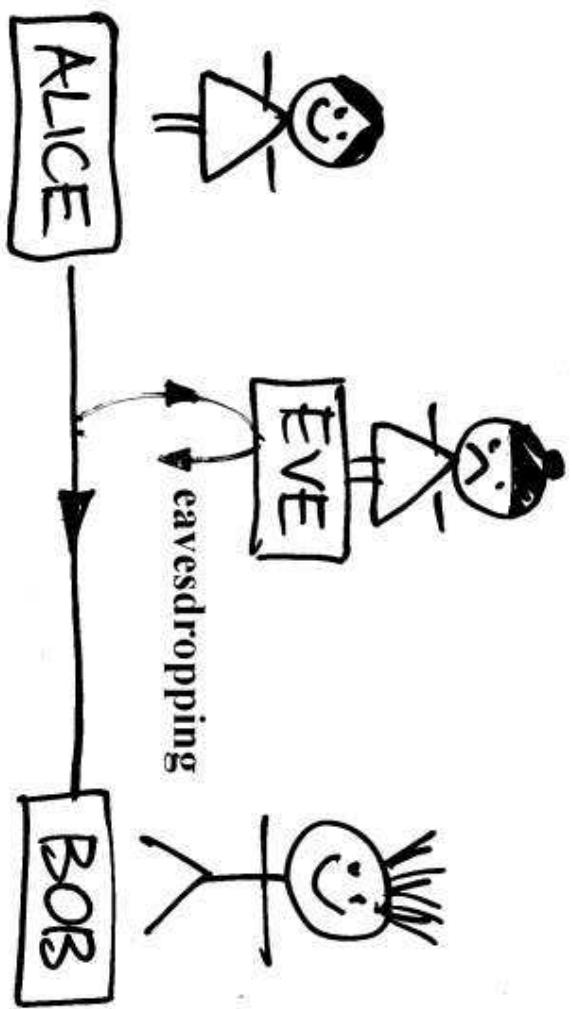
quick and easy computation is only when some additional information is available

Otherwise it is very long and time consuming computation

Key

a set of instructions to encrypt and decrypt a message, e.g., randomly chosen series of numbers known to Alice and Bob only

quantum cryptography is, probably,
the most important application of quantum optics nowadays



basic cryptographic terms (II)

cipher

1. encryption scheme
= cryptographic algorithm
= math. function for encryption and decryption
using a **key**
 2. encrypted message = ciphertext = cryptogram
- cryptosystem = cryptographic algorithm
+ all keys + all cryptograms + all ciphertexts

cryptology = cryptography + cryptoanalysis

symmetric algorithms

cleartext



plaintext



ciphertext



plaintext



cleartext

Encryption using **key K**
Decryption using **the same key K**

exemplary digital alphabet

01	A	02	A	03	B	04	C	05	Ć
06	D	07	E	08	E	09	F	10	G
11	H	12	I	13	J	14	K	15	L
16	E	17	M	18	N	19	Ń	20	O
21	Ó	22	P	23	Q	24	R	25	S
26	Ś	27	T	28	U	29	V	30	W
31	X	32	Y	33	Z	34	Ż	35	Ž
36	-	37	-	38	?	39	,	40	.

cleartext: A D A M

plaintext: 01060117

asymmetric algorithms = public-key algorithms

cleartext



plaintext



ciphertext



plaintext



cleartext

Encryption using **key k₁ (public key)**
Decryption using **key k₂ (private key)**

first paper on quantum cryptography

1983 (1970 !)

by Stephen Wiesner
first description of quantum coding

- How to print banknotes, which cannot be counterfeited
- How to combine two messages such that by reading one of them, the other is automatically destroyed

eavesdropping on quantum system

Eve cannot clone the information as she does not know the state of the „carrier“ of information

monitoring disturbs quantum information

eavesdropping on classical system

two steps:

1. Eve makes a copy (clone) of the information carrier
2. and reads information from the copy

no-cloning theorem

It is impossible to make a copy of an unknown quantum state.

[Wootters, Žurek and Dieks (1982)]

This is one of the most fundamental theorems of quantum mechanics and quantum information

passive monitoring of classical information is possible

- quantum cryptography is secure
- superluminal communication by using entangled states is impossible
- quantum teleportation seems to be also impossible ???

Heisenberg uncertainty principle

→ passive eavesdropping is impossible

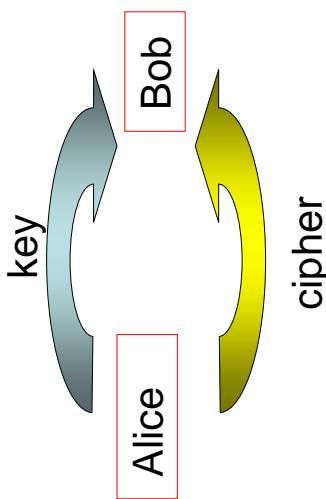
1. It is possible to distinguish two polarizations at $\alpha = 0^\circ$ and 90°
2. It is possible to distinguish two polarizations at $\alpha = 45^\circ$ and 135°
3. It is possible to change quickly polarization (e.g. by Pockels cell)
4. BUT it is impossible to measure simultaneously four polarizations at $\alpha=0^\circ, 45^\circ, 135^\circ$

scheme of Bennett & Brassard (1984)

= BB84 protocol

two channels:

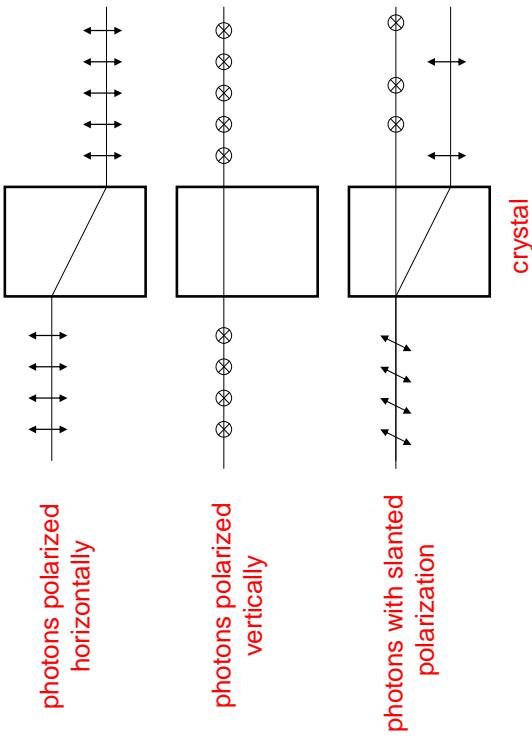
1. quantum private for key distribution
2. classical public (e.g. internet) for cipher transmission



a birefringent crystal

for example Iceland spar (calcite) or BBO

enables discrimination of polarizations perpendicular to each other



BB84

1. quantum key distribution
2. classical encryption
e.g. Vernam protocol

PROBLEM:

How can Alice and Bob establish their common key?

BB84 (1)

Vernam cipher/protocol (1918)

= Che Guevara cipher

= one-time pad

algorithm

addition modulo N (e.g. 40)

key

1. a series of randomly chosen number
2. physically safe
3. not shorter than the length of message

Vernam cipher is unbreakable

If the above conditions are satisfied.

example of Vernam protocol

Key is a series of random numbers:

cleartext:

16 19 24 03 13 24 07 25 10 23 20 19 22 38 14 16 12 16 11

plaintext:

A D A M – M I R A N O W I C Z – Z O N

BB84 (2)

2. Bob randomly chooses the measurement base

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15

| - \ | / / \ | / - | \ \ - \ polarization of Alice's photons

Sum:

17 25 25 20 49 41 19 49 11 41 40 49 34 42 47 52 45 36 29

Sum mod (40):

17 25 25 20 09 01 19 09 11 01 40 09 34 02 07 12 05 36 29

convention

| ($\alpha = 90^\circ$) and \ ($\alpha = 135^\circ$) => bit 1

- ($\alpha = 0^\circ$) and / ($\alpha = 45^\circ$) => bit 0

1. Alice sends photons

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15

+ + x + x x x + x + + x x + x base

| - \ | / / \ | / - | \ \ - \ polarization

1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 1 1 0 1 bit

Bob's base
polarization of photons after measurement

cipher

BB84 (3)

3. Alice and Bob publicly compare bases

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15
+ + x + x x + x + + x x + x Alice's bases
+ x + + x x + + x x + x Bob's bases
Y n n Y Y n Y Y n Y n Y Y test

BB84 (5)

5. Alice and Bob publicly check results for some photons say 1, 5, 10, 14th.

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15
1 . . 1 0 0 . 1 0 0 . 1 . 0 1 Alice's series
1 . . 1 0 0 . 1 0 0 . 1 . 0 1 Bob's series
OK OK OK OK

BB84 (4)

4. Alice and Bob keep only those results obtained for the same bases

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15
***** . . 1 * 0 . 1 0 * . 1 . * 1 Alice's series
***** . . 1 * 0 . 1 0 * . 1 . * 1 Bob's series

BB84 (6)

6. They reject the bits for the tested photons

01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15
***** . . 1 * 0 . 1 0 * . 1 . * 1 Alice's series
***** . . 1 * 0 . 1 0 * . 1 . * 1 Bob's series

thus the secret key known only to Alice and Bob is

1 0 1 0 1 1

Test of agreement

1. Alice and Bob compare arbitrary subset of their data.
(Obviously, the tested subset is then not used for the key.)

2. Methods:

- (a) **testing bit after bit**
- (b) **testing parity**
e.g. 20 times $\Rightarrow (1/2)^{20} \sim 0.000001$
3. If the subset reveals eavesdropping, all the data of Alice and Bob are rejected and the BB84 protocol is repeated.

4. **privacy amplification**

via e.g. Bennett-Brassard-Robert, Ekert et al. or Horodecki et al. schemes

Alice	Eve	Bob	
Base			= 1/2
+	+	+	
+	x	+	
	/		
Alice	Eve	Bob	
Base			
+	x	+	
+	/		
Probability			
1/2*1/2	1/2	= 1/8	

Eve's strategy of eavesdropping (I)

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security of BB84

for 1 photon $P_1=3/4$
so for n photons $P_n=(3/4)^n$

e.g.

$$P_2=(3/4)^2 \sim 0.56$$

$$P_{10}=(3/4)^{10} \sim 0.06$$

$$P_{20}=(3/4)^{20} \sim 0.003$$

$P_{100}=(3/4)^{100} \sim 10^{-13}$
and for 1000 photons

$$P_{1000}=(3/4)^{1000} \sim 10^{-125}$$

strategy of eavesdropping

- Eve measures a photon sent by Alice
(e.g. by using another calcite crystal)
- QUESTION**
- What is the probability that a single photon was measured by Eve, but Alice and Bob have not realized it?**

famous protocols of quantum key distribution

1984 Bennett-Brassard protocol (**BB84**)

1991 Ekert protocol based Bell's inequality (**E91**)

1992 Bennett-Brassard-Mermin protocol
a la Ekert protocol but without Bell's inequality

1992 Bennett protocol using any two nonorthogonal states (**B92**)

2004 Englert et al. protocol claimed to be the most efficient nowadays (**Singapore protocol**)

information is physical

„Information is inevitably tied to a physical representation and therefore to restrictions and possibilities related to the laws of physics“

[R. Landauer]

classical cryptography is
a branch of mathematics

quantum cryptography is
a branch of physics
- mainly of quantum optics

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quantum algorithms and cryptography

1985 Deutsch (Deutsch-Jozsa / DJ) algorithm:
How to see both sides of a coin simultaneously?

1994 Shor algorithm for number factorization:
How to break cryptosystems of RSA, Rabin, Williams, Blum-Goldwasser, ...?

1994 Shor algorithm for finding discrete logarithms:
How to break ElGamal cryptosystem?

1997 Grover algorithm for searching databases:
How to search the keys more effectively?

quantum entanglement

= inseparability
= Verschränkung = entwinement
(Schrödinger 1935)

it is a quantum phenomenon in which the quantum states of two or more objects (possibly spatially separated) have to be described with reference to each other.
definition

A bipartite pure state is
separable if $|\psi_{AB}\rangle = |\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle$
entangled if $|\psi_{AB}\rangle \neq |\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle$

A bipartite mixed state is
separable if $\rho_{AB} = \sum_i p_i \rho_A^i \otimes \rho_B^i$
entangled if $\rho_{AB} \neq \sum_i p_i \rho_A^i \otimes \rho_B^i$
where $\sum_i p_i = 1$ and $p_i \geq 0$ for all i .

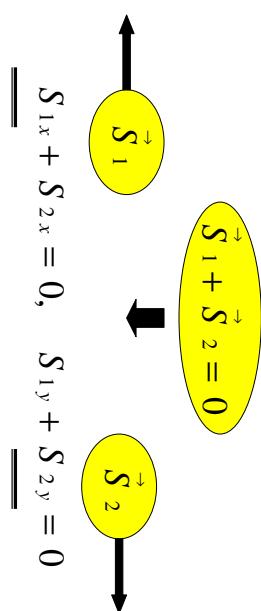
quantum entanglement

& Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen paradox

How to 'violate' uncertainty relation ?

Can we measure exactly both components of spin?

$$\text{Var } S_{1x} \text{ Var } S_{1y} \geq \frac{\hbar^2}{4} |\langle S_{1z} \rangle|^2$$



So let's measure S_{1x} i S_{2x} to determine S_{2x} i S_{1y}

Bell states (EPR states)

maximally entangled two-qubit states

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Bell states in matrix representation

$$|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle - |10\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle + |10\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$|\Phi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle - |11\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle - |11\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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a GHZ state in matrix representation

$$|\Psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_x|1\rangle_y - |1\rangle_x|0\rangle_y) \quad \text{singlet state}$$

$$|\Phi_B\rangle = |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_x|1\rangle_y + |1\rangle_x|0\rangle_y) \quad \text{one of the triplet states}$$

$$|\Phi_C\rangle = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_x|0\rangle_y - |1\rangle_x|1\rangle_y)$$

$$|\Phi_D\rangle = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_x|0\rangle_y + |1\rangle_x|1\rangle_y)$$

GHZ (Greenberger-Horne-Zeilinger) states

$$|\Psi'_{\text{GHZ}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle \pm |111\rangle) \quad |\Psi''_{\text{GHZ}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|001\rangle \pm |110\rangle)$$

$$|\Psi'''_{\text{GHZ}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|010\rangle \pm |101\rangle) \quad |\Psi^{iv}_{\text{GHZ}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|100\rangle \pm |011\rangle)$$

W states

$$|\Phi_W\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|100\rangle + |010\rangle + |001\rangle)$$

$$|\Psi_W\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|011\rangle + |101\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

maximally? entangled states of 3 qubits

Applications of quantum entanglement (I)

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examples of separable states in quantum information theory:

- dense coding [Bennett and Wiesner'92]
- quantum teleportation [Bennett et al.'93]
- entanglement swapping [Żukowski et al.'93]
- superfast [Shor'94] and fast [Grover'97] algorithms
- quantum error correction [Shor'95, Steane'96]

in quantum cryptography:

- quantum key distribution [Ekert'91, Bennett et al.'92]
- privacy amplification [Bennett et al.'96, Deutsch et al.'96]
- secret sharing [Żukowski et al.'98]
- quantum authentication [Ljunggren et al.'00]
- quantum watermarking [Imoto et al.'05]

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examples of separable states in quantum information theory:

- $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|10\rangle + |11\rangle)$
- quantum teleportation [Bennett et al.'93]
- entanglement swapping [Żukowski et al.'93]
- $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|1\rangle_A|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A|1\rangle_B) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|+\rangle_A(|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B) = |+\rangle_B = \underbrace{|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B}_{|+\rangle_B}$

proof:

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

example 1

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle)$$

proof:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{2}[|0\rangle_A(|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B) + |1\rangle_A(|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B)] = \frac{1}{2}(|0\rangle_A + |1\rangle_A)(|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B) \\ &= \frac{|0\rangle_A + |1\rangle_A}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B}{\sqrt{2}} \equiv |+\rangle_A|+\rangle_B \end{aligned}$$

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Applications of quantum entanglement (II)

in quantum communication:

- to simplify communication complexity [Cleve & Buhrman'97]

in quantum state engineering:

- telecloning [Murao et al. 99]
- remote state preparation [Bennett et al.'01]

to increase precision of quantum measurements:

- quantum noise reduction in spectroscopy [Wineland et al.'92]
- to improve frequency standards [Huelga et al. '97]
- better clock synchronization [Jozsa et al.'00, Chuang'00]
- interferometric lithography beyond diffraction limit [Boto et al.'00]

classical limit: $\lambda/2$

quantum limit: $\lambda/(2N)$ for N -photon absorption

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examples of inseparable state - singlet state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

proof that it cannot be written as a product state

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} &= (a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \otimes (a'|0\rangle + b'|1\rangle) \\ &= aa'|00\rangle + ab'|01\rangle + ba'|10\rangle + bb'|11\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} |a|^2 + |b|^2 &= |a'|^2 + |b'|^2 = 1 \\ a, a', b, b' \in \mathcal{C} \end{aligned}$$

So we get set of equations

$$aa' = 0, ab' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, ba' = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, bb' = 0$$

which admits no solution.

example of inseparable (Bell-like) state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle - |11\rangle)$$

proof:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(|0\rangle_A\underbrace{|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_B}_{=|+\rangle_B} + |1\rangle_A\underbrace{|0\rangle_B - |1\rangle_B}_{=-|-\rangle_B}\right) = \frac{|0+\rangle + |1-\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{|0,0\oplus 0\rangle + |1,0\oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

this state can be obtained from a Bell state by applying Hadamard gate to 2nd qubit

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= H_B \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_A(H|0\rangle)_B + |1\rangle_A(H|1\rangle)_B) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_A|+\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A|-\rangle_B) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Bell state $|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$:

$$U_{\text{CNOT}}H_AX_A|00\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}H_A|10\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}|-0\rangle$$

$$= \frac{|0,0\oplus 0\rangle - |1,0\oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle \quad \square$$

generation of all Bell states from one of them

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How to generate Bell states from $|00\rangle$ # 2

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Bell state $|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle$:

$$U_{\text{CNOT}}H_AX_B|00\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}H_A|01\rangle$$

$$= U_{\text{CNOT}}|+0\rangle = \frac{|0,1\oplus 0\rangle + |1,1\oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} X_B \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} &= \frac{|01\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle \\ &\quad \square \end{aligned}$$

phase flip qubit B:

$$U_{\text{CNOT}}H_AX_AX_B|00\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}H_A|11\rangle$$

$$= U_{\text{CNOT}}|-1\rangle = \frac{|0,1\oplus 0\rangle - |1,1\oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

flip + phase flip qubit B:

$$Y_B \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = i \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = i|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle \quad \square$$

How to generate Bell states from $|00\rangle$ # 1

Bell state $|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$:

$$U_{\text{CNOT}}H_A|00\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}|+0\rangle$$

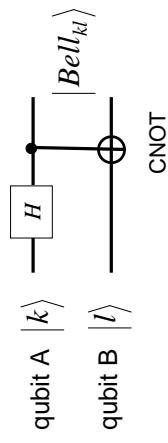
$$= U_{\text{CNOT}}\frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle = U_{\text{CNOT}}\frac{|00\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= \frac{|0,0\oplus 0\rangle + |1,0\oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle \quad \square$$

Generation of Bell states

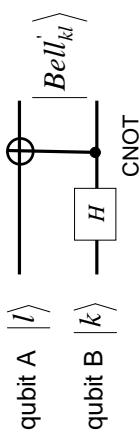
general formula ($k, l = 0, 1$)

$$U_{\text{CNOT}} H_A |kl\rangle = \frac{|0l\rangle + (-1)^k |1, 1 \oplus l\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\text{Bell}_{kl}\rangle$$



obviously, we can obtain Bell states by:

$$U'_{\text{CNOT}} H_B |lk\rangle = |\text{Bell}'_{kl}\rangle$$



CNOT and SWAP gates

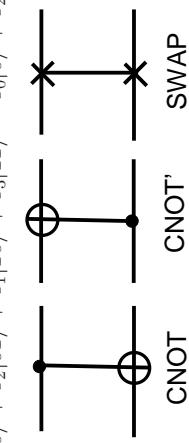
CNOT in	out	CNOT'		SWAP in	out
		in	out		
00	00	00	00	00	00
01	01	01	11	01	10
10	11	10	10	10	01
11	10	11	01	11	11

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle \equiv c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle + c_2|2\rangle + c_3|3\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_3|10\rangle + c_2|11\rangle \equiv c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle + c_3|2\rangle + c_2|3\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}'_{\text{CNOT}}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_3|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_1|11\rangle \equiv c_0|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle + c_2|2\rangle + c_1|3\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{SWAP}}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_2|01\rangle + c_1|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle \equiv c_0|0\rangle + c_2|1\rangle + c_1|2\rangle + c_3|3\rangle$$



CNOT and SWAP gates in matrix representation

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_3 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{U}'_{\text{CNOT}} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_3 \\ c_2 \\ c_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{SWAP}} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_2 \\ c_1 \\ c_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Generation of Bell states

► decay of a particle with spin 0 into 2 particles with spin $\frac{1}{2}$

$$|\Psi\rangle_{xy} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|\uparrow\rangle_x |\downarrow\rangle_y - |\downarrow\rangle_x |\uparrow\rangle_y)$$

► light generated by parametric down converter (PDC II)

$$|\Psi\rangle_{xy} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle_x |V\rangle_y + e^{i\chi} |V\rangle_x |H\rangle_y)$$

$$|\Phi\rangle_{xy} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle_x |H\rangle_y + e^{i\chi} |V\rangle_x |V\rangle_y)$$

► output light of beam splitter 50:50 with a single input photon

$$|\Phi\rangle_{xy} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_x |1\rangle_y + e^{i\chi} |1\rangle_x |0\rangle_y)$$

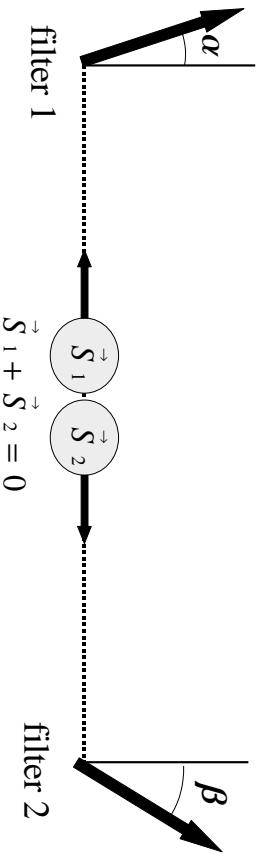
► projection of separable state onto entangled one

Entanglement from a mystery to a physical resource

- An entangled wave-function does not describe the physical reality in a complete way. [Einstein,Podolsky,Rosen]

- For an entangled state is the best possible knowledge of the whole does not include the best possible knowledge of its parts. [E. Schrödinger]

- Entanglement is a “fundamental resource of Nature, of comparable importance to energy, information, entropy, or any other fundamental resource.” [M. Nielsen, I. Chuang]



$N_{++}(\alpha, \beta)$ – number of outcomes when spin +1 was measured in filter 1 at angle α and in filter 2 at angle β

N – total number of outcomes

probability $P_{++}(\alpha, \beta) = N_{++}(\alpha, \beta)/N$

Entanglement is...

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- QM predictions

for electrons in singlet state

$$|\psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{|\uparrow\rangle_1 |\downarrow\rangle_2 - |\downarrow\rangle_1 |\uparrow\rangle_2}{\sqrt{2}} \equiv \frac{|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

then

$$P_{++}(\alpha, \beta) = P_{--}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{2} \sin^2 \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2} \right)$$

$$P_{+-}(\alpha, \beta) = P_{-+}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 \left(\frac{\alpha - \beta}{2} \right)$$

Special cases:

1. $\alpha = \beta \Rightarrow$ spins of opposite values

$$\Rightarrow P_{++}(\alpha, \alpha) = P_{--}(\alpha, \alpha) = 0, \quad P_{+-}(\alpha, \alpha) = P_{-+}(\alpha, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2}$$

2. $\beta = \frac{\pi}{2} + \alpha \Rightarrow$ measurement of 2 independent spins

$$\Rightarrow P_{++}(\alpha, \beta) = P_{+-}(\alpha, \beta) = P_{-+}(\alpha, \beta) = P_{--}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{4}$$

Measurement of entangled spins and Bell inequalities

- Bell inequality for 3 series of measurements

Aspect et al. tests of Bell-CHSH inequalities (1984)

$$\begin{aligned} N_{++}(\alpha, \beta) + N_{++}(\beta, \gamma) &\geq N_{++}(\alpha, \gamma) \\ P_{++}(\alpha, \beta) + P_{++}(\beta, \gamma) &\geq P_{++}(\alpha, \gamma) \end{aligned}$$

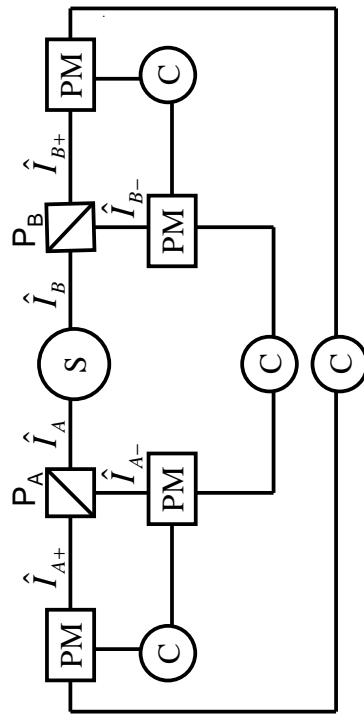
• violation of Bell inequality

occurs, e.g., for $\alpha = 0, \beta = \pi/4, \gamma = \pi/2$

$$\text{LHS} = \sin^2(\pi/8) = 0.146 \dots \nexists \text{ RHS} = 0.25$$

Mathematica:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{P[a_, b_] := } & 1/2*\text{Sin}[(a - b)/2]^2 \\ \text{LHS = P[0, } & \text{Pi}/4] + \text{P[Pi}/4, \text{ Pi}/2] \\ \text{RHS = P[0, } & \text{Pi}/2] \end{aligned}$$



Key:

C – correlation systems

S – source of photons

P_A, P_B – polarizing beam splitters = optical analogues of Stern-Gerlach filters

$\hat{I}_k \sim \hat{n}_k$ – intensity of k th beam

PM – photon multipliers

Bell assumptions

1. reasoning by induction

- from large number of measurements probability can be determined
- this is very natural assumption

2. realism

- physical objects have properties independent of whether we measure them or not

3. locality

- measurement by filter in position 1 does not influence the result of measurement by filter in a distant place 2

- violation of a Bell inequality implies that the world is **nonrealistic or/and nonlocal**

- “**the deepest discovery in history of science**” [Stapp]
as enables to decide experimentally a dispute between Einstein and Bohr.

• What is measured in the experiment?

$$\begin{aligned} E(\phi_A, \phi_B) &= \frac{\langle (\hat{I}_{A+} - \hat{I}_{A-})(\hat{I}_{B+} - \hat{I}_{B-}) \rangle}{\langle (\hat{I}_{A+} + \hat{I}_{A-})(\hat{I}_{B+} + \hat{I}_{B-}) \rangle} \\ &= \frac{\langle \hat{I}_{A+}\hat{I}_{B+} \rangle + \langle \hat{I}_{A-}\hat{I}_{B-} \rangle - \langle \hat{I}_{A+}\hat{I}_{B-} \rangle - \langle \hat{I}_{A-}\hat{I}_{B+} \rangle}{\langle \hat{I}_{A+}\hat{I}_{B+} \rangle + \langle \hat{I}_{A-}\hat{I}_{B-} \rangle + \langle \hat{I}_{A+}\hat{I}_{B-} \rangle + \langle \hat{I}_{A-}\hat{I}_{B+} \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

at any angles ϕ_A, ϕ_B .

• Bell inequality according to Clauser-Horne-Shimony-Holt

$$|S| \leq 2$$

where

$$S = E(\phi'_A, \phi'_B) - E(\phi''_A, \phi''_B) + E(\phi'_A, \phi''_B) + E(\phi''_A, \phi'_B)$$

should be satisfied for realistic local theories.

- polarization singlet state

II. loopholes in BI assumptions

$$|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{|H\rangle_A|V\rangle_B - |V\rangle_A|H\rangle_B}{\sqrt{2}}$$

- QM predicts that $E(\phi_A, \phi_B) = P_{++}(\phi_A, \phi_B) + P_{--}(\phi_A, \phi_B) - P_{+-}(\phi_A, \phi_B) - P_{-+}(\phi_A, \phi_B)$

where $P_{jk}(\phi_A, \phi_B)$ in the former slides

- maximal violation of Bell inequality

$$\max |S| = 2\sqrt{2}$$

which can be obtained for the following angles of polarizers

$$\phi'_A = 0, \phi'_B = \frac{\pi}{4}, \phi''_A = \frac{\pi}{2}, \phi''_B = \frac{3\pi}{4}$$

as

$$S = -3\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) + \cos^2\left(\frac{3\pi}{8}\right) + 3\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) - \sin^2\left(\frac{3\pi}{8}\right) = -2\sqrt{2} \approx -2.8$$

- Note: the same setup of Aspect was used for testing violation of **Schwarz inequality**

possible loopholes of Bell's inequalities (BI)

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- in the present experimental BI tests
- in the proof or assumptions of BI
- in the BI interpretation

I. experimental loopholes

there has been no loophole-free experimental test of BI.

1. detection efficiency and fair-sample assumption:

None experimental test does not detect 100% the particle pairs emitted. Thus it is not clear that the pairs registered are a fair sample of all pairs emitted.

2. causality:

The choice of measurement settings of Alice and Bob should be **truly random** and placed at **sufficient physical distance**.

1. independence assumption:

There are physical processes independent of the Bell experiment that can be used as an effective source of **randomness**.

III. interpretational loopholes

Accepting that Bell's theorem is true then either locality or realism might be false.

1. universe is non-local but real

e.g. **Bohmian hidden variable theory** is explicitly non-local and contextual, but still fairly natural looking.

2. operationalism of quantum mechanism (QM)

the standard **Copenhagen interpretation**:

QM is just a set of recipes for calculating probabilities of measurement results.

It says nothing about an underlying physical reality, which may not even exist, and therefore nothing about its locality.

loopholes in Aspect's et al. experiment (1982)

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1. a fair-sample assumption

All experiments so far detect only a small subset of all pairs created thus it is necessary to assume that the pairs registered are a fair sample of all pairs emitted.

2. causality

(i) no true randomization

Analyzers were not randomly rotated during the flight of the particles.

Aspect et al. switched the directions of polarization analysers after the photons left the source, but they used periodic sinusoidal switching, which is predictable.

(ii) no true space-like separation

The necessary space-like separation of the observations was not achieved by sufficient physical distance between the measurement stations.

- **BI test more ideal than ever by Zeilinger et al. (PRL 1998) on “Violation of Bell's inequality under strict Einstein locality conditions”.**

Two definitions of entanglement

Def. 1. A state ρ_{AB} is separable iff

$$\rho_{AB} = \sum_i p_i \rho_A^i \otimes \rho_B^i$$

where $\sum_i p_i = 1$ and $p_i \geq 0$ for all i .

Def. 2. A state ρ_{AB} is separable iff

$$\rho_{AB} = \sum_i p_i |\psi_A^i\rangle\langle\psi_A^i| \otimes |\psi_B^i\rangle\langle\psi_B^i|$$

where $\sum_i p_i = 1$ and $p_i \geq 0$ for all i .

These definitions are equivalent, as ρ_A^i (and ρ_B^i) can be expanded in terms eigenvectors

$$\rho_A^i = \sum_j q_j |\psi_A^j\rangle\langle\psi_A^j|$$

where $\sum_j q_j = 1$ and $q_j \geq 0$ for all i .

Can we decompose Bell states into separable states?

e.g. the ‘triplet’ state

$$|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(+)}| = \sum_{i=1}^5 p_i |a_i\rangle\langle a_i| \otimes |b_i\rangle\langle b_i|$$

$$p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = \frac{2}{3}, \quad p_4 = p_5 = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$|a_1\rangle = |b_1\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_2\rangle = |b_2\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + e^{i2\pi/3}|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_3\rangle = |b_3\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + e^{-i2\pi/3}|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_4\rangle = |0\rangle, \quad |b_4\rangle = |1\rangle, \quad |a_5\rangle = |1\rangle, \quad |b_5\rangle = |0\rangle$$

note that $p_4 = p_5 < 0$
thus it is not a convex combination of product states
and the state is entangled.

Werner state

$$\hat{\rho}_W^{(\pm)} = \frac{1-p}{4} \hat{1} \otimes \hat{1} + p |\Psi^{(\pm)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(\pm)}|$$

is mixture of maximally entangled state

$$|\Psi^{(\pm)}\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle \pm |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

and maximally mixed state

$$\hat{1} \otimes \hat{1} = \hat{1}_2 \otimes \hat{1}_2 = \hat{1}_4 = |00\rangle\langle 00| + |01\rangle\langle 01| + |10\rangle\langle 10| + |11\rangle\langle 11| = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the Werner state is entangled

$$E(\hat{\rho}_W) > 0 \text{ for all } \frac{1}{3} < p \leq 1$$

and violates Bell inequality

$$B(\hat{\rho}_W) > 0 \text{ for all } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} < p \leq 1$$

General definition of bipartite entanglement

A state $\hat{\rho}_{AB}$ is separable iff
it can be written or approximated (in, e.g., trace norm) by

$$\hat{\rho}_{AB} = \sum_i p_i \rho_A^i \otimes \rho_B^i$$

where $\sum_i p_i = 1$ and $p_i \geq 0$ for all i .

systems of finite dimensions

If $\hat{\rho}_{AB}$ acts in finite-dimensional Hilbert spaces
then the approximation part is redundant.

trace norm

$$\|\hat{A}\| = \text{Tr}|\hat{A}| = \text{Tr}(\sqrt{\hat{A}^\dagger \hat{A}})$$

decomposition of Werner state

properties of Werner states

$$\hat{\rho}_W^{(+)} = \sum_{i=1}^7 p_i |a_i\rangle\langle a_i| \otimes |b_i\rangle\langle b_i|$$

$$p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = \frac{2}{3}, \quad p_4 = p_5 = \frac{1-3p}{4}, \quad p_6 = p_7 = \frac{1-p}{4}$$

$$|a_1\rangle = |b_1\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_2\rangle = |b_2\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + e^{i2\pi/3}|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_3\rangle = |b_3\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + e^{-i2\pi/3}|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|a_4\rangle = |b_4\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$|a_5\rangle = |b_5\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$|a_6\rangle = |b_6\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$|a_7\rangle = |b_7\rangle = |1\rangle$$

clearly, the state is separable only for $p \leq \frac{1}{3}$ when all $p_i \geq 0$.

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Werner and Werner-like states

$$\hat{\rho}_W(p) = \frac{1-p}{4} \hat{1} \otimes \hat{1} + p |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$$

original Werner state

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

isotropic state (Werner-like state)

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

other Werner-like states

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

two qudit (d -dimensional) isotropic state

$$\hat{\rho}_W(p) = \frac{1-p}{d^2} \hat{1}^{\otimes d} + p |\Phi_d^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Phi_d^{(+)}|$$

$$\text{where } -\frac{1}{d^2-1} \leq p \leq 1$$

$$|\Phi_d^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{d}} \sum_{i=0}^{d-1} |ii\rangle$$

- They are so-called **maximally entangled mixed states** (MEMS)

- entanglement $E(\rho_W)$ cannot be increased by **any unitary operations**,
- entanglement $E(\rho_W)$ is maximal for a given **linear entropy** (and vice versa)

[Ishizaka, Hiroshima'00, Munro et al.01]

- Original Werner state exhibits **$U \otimes U$ invariance**:

$$\hat{U} \otimes \hat{U} \hat{\rho}_W^{(-)} = \hat{\rho}_W^{(-)}$$

- All entangled Werner states (even for $p \in (1/3, 1/\sqrt{2})$) can be used for quantum-information processing including **teleportation** [Popescu'94, Lee,Kim'00]

nonlocality

quantum states are called **nonlocal** if there is no local unhidden variable model of their behavior.

Thus a **measurement of the whole** can reveal more information about the system's state than any sequence of classically coordinated measurements of the parts.

1. nonlocality without entanglement

[Bennett et al. 1999]

There are orthogonal sets of product states of **two qutrits** that cannot be reliably distinguished by a pair of separated observers ignorant of which of the states has been presented to them, even if the observers are allowed to communicate by LOCC.

Note: **LOCC** = **LQCC**

local quantum operations and classical communication

2. entanglement without nonlocality

- but the atom is **entangled** with the cat via the apparatus



nonlocality and violation Bell-inequality

are often identified

(although there are some serious doubts about it)

2' entanglement without violating Bell inequality

[Werner 1989]

two-qubit **mixed** states can be entangled without violating Bell inequality

e.g. **Werner states and isotropic states** for

$$p \in (1/3, 1/\sqrt{2})$$

are entangled and satisfy Bell inequality

thus they can be described in terms **realistic local theories**

Note: two-qubit **pure** states violate Bell inequality iff they are entangled.

- Copenhagen interpretation

to understand it, one has to include the observer or measurement process:
the „quantum chamber“ has to be opened to check the state of the „cat“.

(modern) definition of Schrödinger cat (state)

it is a superposition of two macroscopically distinct states

Note: the definition can be applied to a single mode, thus not necessarily has to be related to entanglement

- e.g. superposition of two coherent states

$$|\psi\rangle = \mathcal{N}[|\alpha\rangle + e^{i\varphi}|-\alpha\rangle]$$

where \mathcal{N} is a normalization constant assuming $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}$:

$$\mathcal{N} = [2 + 2 \cos \varphi \exp(-2\alpha^2)]^{-1/2}$$

90 Schrödinger cat paradox

• questions

- how to interpret superposition of states and entanglement?
- can we talk about of superposition, entanglement or smearing of classical objects?

• gedanken experiment of Schrödinger cat

image a chamber containing:

- a cat
- a bottle with poison gas
- radioactive atom

– automatic device to release the poison when the atom decays

- state of the isolated atom after a time equal to its half-time is

$$\hat{\rho}_{\text{mix}} = \frac{1}{2}(|\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha| + |-\alpha\rangle\langle-\alpha|) \neq |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$$

where $|d\rangle$ – decayed state, $|u\rangle$ – undecayed state.

- but the atom is **entangled** with the cat via the apparatus

$$\text{so the state is } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|u\rangle_{\text{atom}}|{\text{alive}}\rangle_{\text{cat}} + |d\rangle_{\text{atom}}|{\text{dead}}\rangle_{\text{cat}})$$

• Copenhagen interpretation

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the „quantum chamber“ has to be opened to check the state of the „cat“.

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$$\mathcal{N} = [2 + 2 \cos \varphi \exp(-2\alpha^2)]^{-1/2}$$

91 special cases of single-mode Schrödinger cats:

– even coherent state for $\varphi = 0$:

$$|\psi_+\rangle = \mathcal{N}_+ (|\alpha\rangle + |-\alpha\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\cosh(\alpha^2)}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^{2n}}{\sqrt{(2n)!}} |2n\rangle \equiv |\psi\rangle_L$$

– odd coherent state for $\varphi = \pi$:

$$|\psi_-\rangle = \mathcal{N}_- (|\alpha\rangle - |-\alpha\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sinh(\alpha^2)}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^{2n+1}}{\sqrt{(2n+1)!}} |2n+1\rangle \equiv |\psi\rangle_R$$

– Yurke-Stoler states for $\varphi = \pm\pi/2$:

$$|\psi_{YS}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\alpha\rangle \pm i|-\alpha\rangle)$$

- **Note:** the above states are *not* mixtures of coherent states

$$\hat{\rho}_{\text{mix}} = \frac{1}{2}(|\alpha\rangle\langle\alpha| + |-\alpha\rangle\langle-\alpha|) \neq |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$$

- continuous variable (CV) version of two-qubit Bell states
- How to generate Bell polarization states?

$$|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle_L + |11\rangle_L) = \mathcal{N}(|\alpha, \beta\rangle + |-\alpha, -\beta\rangle)$$

$$|\Phi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle_L - |11\rangle_L) = \mathcal{N}(|\alpha, -\beta\rangle + |-\alpha, \beta\rangle)$$

$$|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle_L + |10\rangle_L) = \mathcal{N}(|\alpha, \beta\rangle - |-\alpha, -\beta\rangle)$$

$$|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01\rangle_L + |10\rangle_L) = \mathcal{N}(|\alpha, -\beta\rangle - |-\alpha, \beta\rangle)$$

assumption $\alpha = \beta$

exemplary proof of a CV Bell state

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definition of logical qubits ($\alpha = \beta$):

$$|0\rangle_L = \mathcal{N}_+ (|\beta\rangle + |-\beta\rangle)$$

$$|1\rangle_L = \mathcal{N}_- (|\beta\rangle - |-\beta\rangle)$$

so

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle_L + |11\rangle_L) = \frac{\mathcal{N}_+ \mathcal{N}_-}{\sqrt{2}} \left[(|\alpha\rangle + |-\alpha\rangle)(|\beta\rangle + |-\beta\rangle) + (|\alpha\rangle - |-\alpha\rangle)(|\beta\rangle - |-\beta\rangle) \right]$$

$$= \frac{\mathcal{N}_+ \mathcal{N}_-}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\underline{|\alpha, \beta\rangle} + |\alpha, -\beta\rangle + |-\alpha, \beta\rangle + \underline{|-\alpha, -\beta\rangle} \right. \\ \left. + \underline{|\alpha, \beta\rangle} - |\alpha, -\beta\rangle - |-\alpha, \beta\rangle + \underline{|-\alpha, -\beta\rangle} \right]$$

$$= \sqrt{2} \mathcal{N}_+ \mathcal{N}_- (|\alpha, \beta\rangle + |-\alpha, -\beta\rangle)$$

spontaneous parametric down-conversion (SPDC)

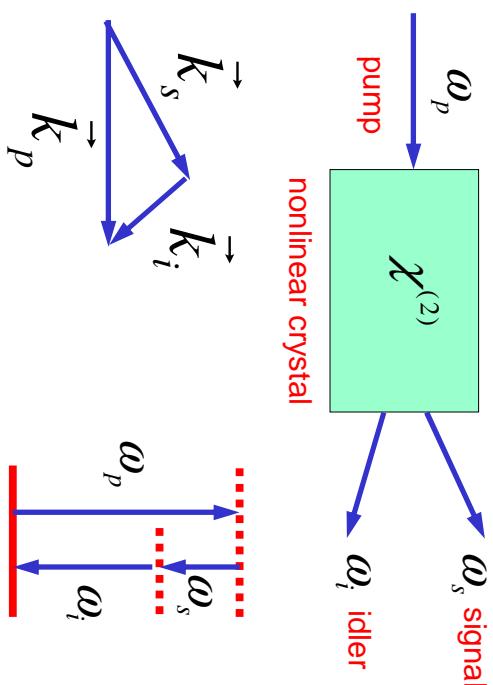
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1. hamiltonian for a degenerate process
2. hamiltonian for a nondegenerate process of **Type I**

$$\hat{H}_{\text{deg}} = \hbar g [\hat{a}^2 + (\hat{a}^2)^\dagger]$$

$$\hat{H}_1 = \hbar g \hat{a}_s^\dagger \hat{a}_i^\dagger + h.c.$$

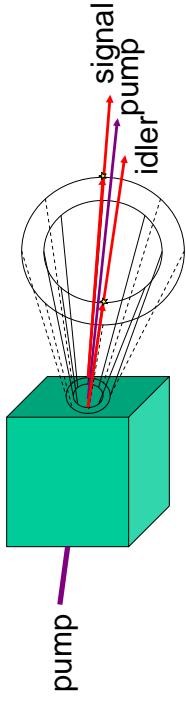
Note: signal (s) and idler (i) have the same polarization



momentum conservation

energy conservation

type I parametric down converter



3. hamiltonian for a nondegenerate process of **type II**

$$\hat{H}_2 = \hbar g (\hat{a}_{Vs}^\dagger \hat{a}_{Hi}^\dagger + \hat{a}_{Vs}^\dagger \hat{a}_{Vi}^\dagger) + h.c.$$

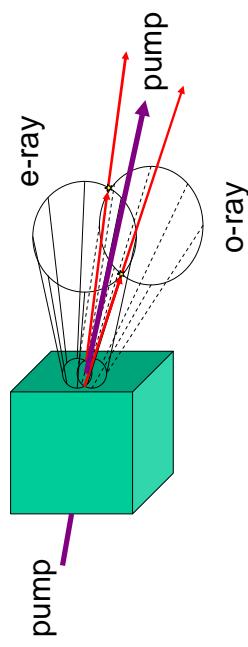
where

V (H) – linear vertical (horizontal) polarization

\hat{a}_{Vs}^\dagger – creation operator for signal mode of vertical polarization etc.

Note: signal and idler modes have perpendicular polarizations

type II parametric down converter



short-time evolution

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = \exp\left(\frac{1}{i\hbar}\hat{H}t\right)|\psi(0)\rangle \approx \left[1 + \frac{t}{i\hbar}\hat{H} + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{t}{i\hbar}\hat{H}\right)^2\right]|\psi(0)\rangle$$

– type I process:

$$|\psi(0)\rangle = |0\rangle_s|0\rangle_i$$

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = (1 - \frac{1}{2}\tau^2)|0\rangle_s|0\rangle_i - \frac{i\tau}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle_s|1\rangle_i$$

where $\tau = gt$

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– type II process:

$$|\psi(0)\rangle = |0\rangle_{Vs}|0\rangle_{Hs}|0\rangle_{Vi}|0\rangle_{Hi}$$

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = (1 - \frac{1}{2}\tau^2)|0\rangle_{Vs}|0\rangle_{Hs}|0\rangle_{Vi}|0\rangle_{Hi}$$

$$-\frac{i\tau}{\sqrt{2}}(|1\rangle_{Vs}|0\rangle_{Hs}|0\rangle_{Vi}|1\rangle_{Hi} + |0\rangle_{Vs}|1\rangle_{Hs}|1\rangle_{Vi}|0\rangle_{Hi})$$

• notation:

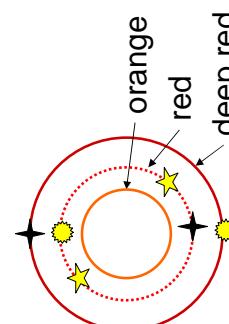
$$|0\rangle_{Vs}|0\rangle_{Hs} \equiv |0\rangle_s, \quad |1\rangle_{Vs}|0\rangle_{Hs} \equiv |V\rangle_s, \quad |0\rangle_{Vs}|1\rangle_{Hs} \equiv |H\rangle_s,$$

and analogously for mode i
thus we have

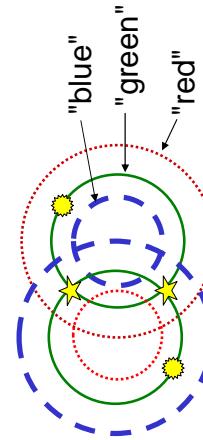
$$|\psi(t)\rangle = (1 - \frac{1}{2}\tau^2)|0\rangle_s|0\rangle_i - \frac{i\tau}{\sqrt{2}}(|V\rangle_s|H\rangle_i + |H\rangle_s|V\rangle_i)$$

the second term is a **polarization Bell state**

type I parametric down converter



type II parametric down converter



How to generate other polarization Bell states?

- place half-wave plate (HWP) on the path of one beams:

$$|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|V\rangle_s|H\rangle_i + |H\rangle_s|V\rangle_i) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H\rangle_s|H\rangle_i + |V\rangle_s|V\rangle_i) = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$$

- use phase shifter or simply rotate crystal to change α :

$$|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle \rightarrow |\psi^{(\alpha)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|V\rangle_s|H\rangle_i + e^{i\alpha}|H\rangle_s|V\rangle_i)$$

- this is how all four Bell states can be obtained including:

$$|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|V\rangle_s|H\rangle_i - |H\rangle_s|V\rangle_i)$$

$$|\Phi^{(-)}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H\rangle_s|H\rangle_i - |V\rangle_s|V\rangle_i)$$

the experimental method was developed by **Kwiat, Zeilinger et al. (1995)** using crystals of BBO type II.

standard matrix representations of qubit states

so far we have been applying the orthonormal basis

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

satisfying the **identity** resolution

$$\hat{I} = |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |10\rangle + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} |01\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then the **NOT gate** is

$$\hat{X} = |0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the **Hadamard gate** is

$$\hat{H} = |0\rangle\langle +| + |1\rangle\langle -| = |+\rangle\langle 0| + |-\rangle\langle 1| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

can we define other representations?

another matrix representation of qubit states

let's use the orthonormal basis

$$|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad |1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$\langle 0|1\rangle = \frac{1}{2} [1, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

identity resolution

$$\hat{I} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |11\rangle + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |1,-1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

NOT gate

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X} &= |0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0| = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} |1,-1\rangle + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |1,1\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Hadamard gate

note that

$$|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} &= |0\rangle\langle +| + |1\rangle\langle -| \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} |10\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} |01\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

phase-flip gate

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Z} &= |0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1| = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} |1,1\rangle - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} |1,-1\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

rotated matrix representation of qubit states

orthonormal basis

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

or equivalently

$$\begin{bmatrix} |0\rangle' \\ |1\rangle' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

in terms of standard qubit representations $|0\rangle = |1; 0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle = |0; 1\rangle$

identity resolution

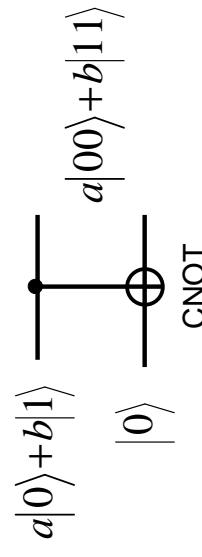
$$\begin{aligned} \hat{I} &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} [\cos \theta, \sin \theta] + \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} [-\sin \theta, \cos \theta] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \sin^2 \theta & -\sin \theta \cos \theta \\ -\sin \theta \cos \theta & \cos^2 \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{NOT gate: } \hat{X} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin(2\theta) & \cos(2\theta) \\ \cos(2\theta) & \sin(2\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Hadamard gate: } \hat{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -\sin(2\theta) + \cos(2\theta), & \sin(2\theta) + \cos(2\theta) \\ \sin(2\theta) + \cos(2\theta), & \sin(2\theta) - \cos(2\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

CNOT as a cloning device?

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}(|a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle = a|0, 0 \oplus 0\rangle + b|1, 0 \oplus 1\rangle = a|00\rangle + b|11\rangle$$



now measure one of the qubits...

It is a cloning device iff $ab = 0$.

requirement for a cloning device

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \otimes |s\rangle &\rightarrow (a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \otimes (a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \\ &= a^2|00\rangle + ab(|01\rangle + |10\rangle) + b^2|11\rangle \end{aligned}$$

now measure one of the qubits...

singlet state and rotations of analyzer

Measurements of the polarization singlet state at different angles of the crystal

$$\frac{|0^0, 90^0\rangle - |90^0, 0^0\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|\theta, \theta + 90^0\rangle - |\theta + 90^0, \theta\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

unitary transformation

$$|0\rangle = a|x\rangle + b|y\rangle, \quad |1\rangle = c|x\rangle + d|y\rangle$$

proof

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} &= \frac{(a|x\rangle + b|y\rangle) \otimes (c|x\rangle + d|y\rangle) - (c|x\rangle + d|y\rangle) \otimes (a|x\rangle + b|y\rangle)}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{ac|xx\rangle + ad|xy\rangle + bc|yx\rangle + bd|yy\rangle - ac|xx\rangle - ad|xy\rangle - bc|xy\rangle - bd|yy\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{ad(|xy\rangle - |yx\rangle) - bc(|xy\rangle - |yx\rangle)}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= (ad - bc) \frac{|xy\rangle - |yx\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \det \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \frac{|xy\rangle - |yx\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = e^{i\phi} \frac{|xy\rangle - |yx\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

it does not exist a general quantum cloning device
as the device can clone only orthogonal states.

Quantum no-cloning theorem:

It is impossible to copy (clone, reproduce) an unknown quantum pure state.

proof

let us clone two states

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |s\rangle &= |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_1\rangle \\ \hat{U}|\psi_2\rangle \otimes |s\rangle &= |\psi_2\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= \left(\langle s | \otimes \langle \psi_1 | \hat{U}^\dagger \right) \left(\hat{U}|\psi_2\rangle \otimes |s\rangle \right) = \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle \\ RHS &= \left(\langle \psi_1 | \otimes \langle \psi_1 | \right) \left(|\psi_2\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \right) = \langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle^2 \end{aligned}$$

equation $x^2 = x^2$ has only trivial solutions: $x = 0$ and $x = 1$

so

either $|\psi_1\rangle = |\psi_2\rangle$ or $|\psi_1\rangle$ is orthogonal to $|\psi_2\rangle$

thus

1. Can we clone unknown mixed quantum states?

Impossible!

2. What about cloning by non-unitary operations?

Impossible!

3. What about optimal approximate cloning machines?

For example, a cloning machine of Bužek and Hillery (1996)

4. Can we clone known quantum states?

Yes.

5. Can we clone known quantum states by local operations?

In general impossible!



Quantum cloning and stimulated emission

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We expect

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}_{\text{del}}|H\rangle|H\rangle|A\rangle &= |H\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle \\ \hat{U}_{\text{del}}|V\rangle|V\rangle|A\rangle &= |V\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle \\ \hat{U}_{\text{del}}\frac{|H\rangle|V\rangle + |V\rangle|H\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|A\rangle &= |B\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $|B\rangle$ is some combined input-ancilla state.

Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= \hat{U}_{\text{del}}|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle|A\rangle \\ &= \hat{U}_{\text{del}}(a|H\rangle + b|V\rangle) \otimes (a|H\rangle + b|V\rangle)|A\rangle \\ &= \hat{U}_{\text{del}}[a^2|H\rangle|H\rangle + ab(|H\rangle|V\rangle + |V\rangle|H\rangle) + b^2|V\rangle|V\rangle]|A\rangle \\ &= a^2|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle + \sqrt{2}ab|B\rangle + b^2|V\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Is it possible to **delete the information** content of one or more of these photons by a physical process?

$$RHS = a|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_\psi\rangle + b|V\rangle|S\rangle|A_\psi\rangle$$

having only solution for

$$\begin{aligned} |A_\psi\rangle &= a|A_H\rangle + b|A_V\rangle \\ \forall_\psi \langle A_\psi | A_\psi \rangle &= 1 \Rightarrow \langle A_H | A_V \rangle = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Quantum no-deleting theorem:

It is impossible to delete an unknown quantum state against a copy.

note

It is not (time) reverse of quantum no-cloning theorem.

proof

we try to find a unitary operation \hat{U}_{del} such that

$$\hat{U}_{\text{del}}|\psi\rangle|\psi\rangle|A\rangle = |\psi\rangle|S\rangle|A_\psi\rangle$$

where

$|\psi\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ - arbitrary qubit state

$|A\rangle$ – initial state of ancilla

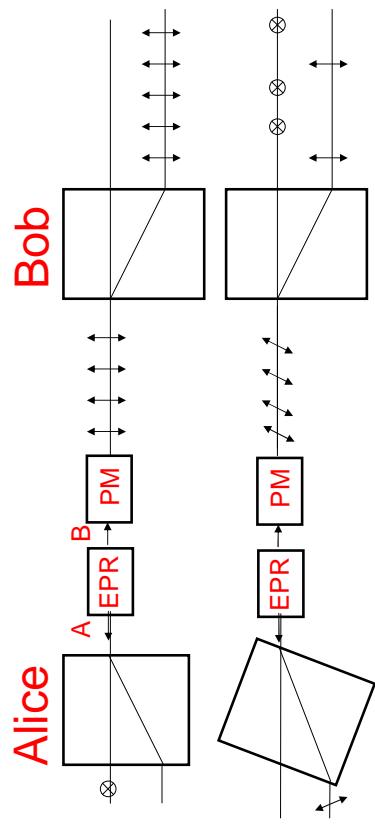
$|A_\psi\rangle$ – final state of ancilla (dependent on $|\psi\rangle$)

$|S\rangle$ – some standard final state of the qubit

Let us analyze polarization states

$$|\psi\rangle = a|H\rangle + b|V\rangle$$

superluminal communication?



and

$$|B\rangle = \frac{|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_{V'}\rangle + |V\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= a^2|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle + \sqrt{2}ab\frac{|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle + |V\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} + b^2|V\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle \\ &= \left(a^2|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle + ab|H\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle\right) + \left(ba|V\rangle|S\rangle|A_H\rangle + b^2|V\rangle|S\rangle|A_V\rangle\right) \\ &= a|H\rangle|S\rangle\left(a|A_H\rangle + b|A_V\rangle\right) + b|V\rangle|S\rangle\left(a|A_H\rangle + b|A_V\rangle\right) \\ &= (a|H\rangle + b|V\rangle)|S\rangle|A_\psi\rangle = RHS \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Thus it is seen that

‘deleting’ is just swapping onto 2D subspace of ancilla

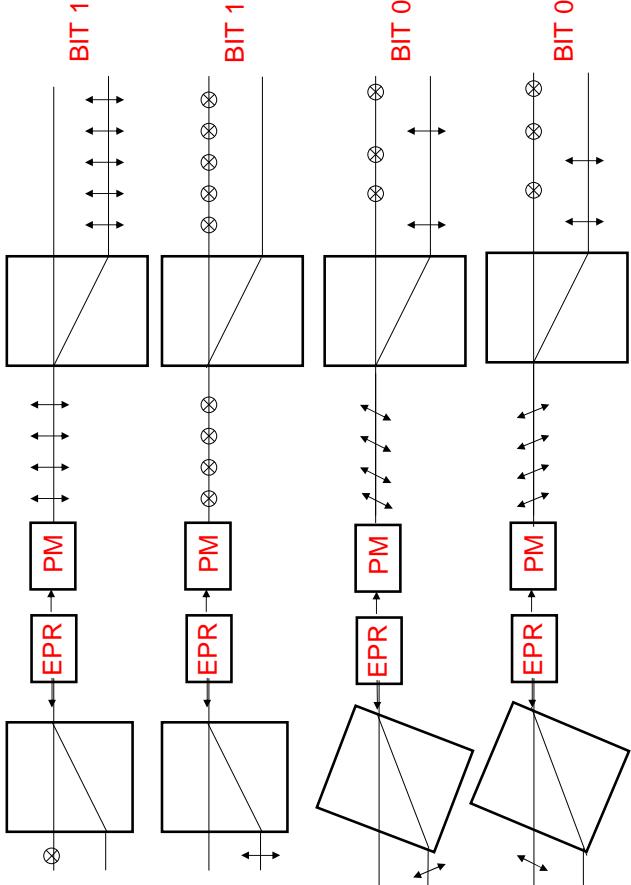
as

$$|A_\psi\rangle = a|A_H\rangle + b|A_V\rangle.$$

PM = photon multiplier
ERP = source of the polarization singlet state (e.g. BBO)

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H\rangle_A|V\rangle_B - |V\rangle_A|H\rangle_B) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+\rangle_A|-\rangle_B - |+\rangle_A|-\rangle_B)$$

a patent for superluminal communication



no-go theorems

1. quantum no-cloning

[Wootters, Zurek, Dieks (1982)]

It is impossible to copy an unknown quantum pure state.

2. quantum no-deleting

[Pati, Braunstein (2000)]

It is impossible to delete an unknown quantum pure state.

3. quantum no-broadcasting

[Barnum, Caves, Fuchs, Jozsa, Schumacher (1996)]

It is impossible to copy an unknown quantum mixed state specifically

Given a general mixed state for a quantum system, there are no physical means for broadcasting that state onto two separate quantum systems, even when the states need only be reproduced marginally on the separate systems.

4. quantum no-deleting for mixed states ???

[it might be you...]

(super)dense coding

[Bennett and Wiesner 1992]

How to send 2 bits of information by transmitting 1 qubit?

1. Alice and Bob share 2 qubits in an EPR state e.g.

$$|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle_A|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A|1\rangle_B}{\sqrt{2}}$$

2. if Alice wants to send a message:

- 00** - then she does nothing $\Rightarrow |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$
- 10** - then flips phase of her qubit (Pauli Z gate) $\Rightarrow \hat{Z}|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle$
- 11** - then flips & phase-flips her qubit (Pauli iY gate) $\Rightarrow i\hat{Y}|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle$
- 3. Alice sends her qubit to Bob
- 4. Bob measures both qubits using **Bell state analyzer**

- 4. Bob measures qubits A and B in the standard basis.

superdense coding - a detailed analysis

1. Alice takes qubit A and Bob takes qubit B from an EPR pair:

$$|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle_A|0\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A|1\rangle_B}{\sqrt{2}}$$

2. Alice encodes her message by applying proper gate to her qubit A:

$$|00\rangle \rightarrow \hat{I}_A|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$$

$$|01\rangle \rightarrow \hat{X}_A|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|10\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle$$

$$|10\rangle \rightarrow \hat{Z}_A|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle$$

$$|11\rangle \rightarrow \hat{Z}_A\hat{X}_A|\Phi^{(+)}\rangle = \hat{Z}_A \frac{|10\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{-|10\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle$$

2. Alice sends qubit A to Bob. So, he has now two entangled qubits A and B.

3. Bob applies CNOT to remove entanglement between qubits A and B:

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}} \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|0, 0 \oplus 0\rangle + |1, 1 \oplus 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|00\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle = |+, 0\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}} \frac{|10\rangle + |01\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|11\rangle + |02\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|1\rangle + |0\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle = |+, 1\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}} \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|00\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle = |-, 0\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}} \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|01\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle = |-, 1\rangle$$

4. Bob applies Hadamard gate to qubit A:

$$\hat{H}_A|+, 0\rangle = |00\rangle$$

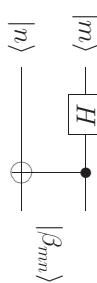
$$\hat{H}_A|+, 1\rangle = |01\rangle$$

$$\hat{H}_A|-, 0\rangle = |10\rangle$$

$$\hat{H}_A|-, 1\rangle = |11\rangle$$

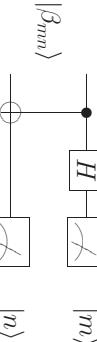
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q-circuit for Bell-state generation



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q-circuit for Bell-state analysis



where

$$|\beta_{00}\rangle = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle, \quad |\beta_{01}\rangle = |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle, \quad |\beta_{10}\rangle = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle, \quad |\beta_{11}\rangle = |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle$$

or compactly

$$|\beta_{mn}\rangle = \frac{|0, n\rangle + (-1)^m|1, 1-n\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \text{for } m, n = 0, 1$$

What is quantum teleportation?

a method to transfer (information about) unknown quantum states over large distances via entangled particles and transmission of some classical information.

Remarks:

- Teleportation is a transfer of information about a quantum system without measuring it!
- Teleportation is not a transfer of an object itself, neither its energy etc.
- Teleportation does not violate the no-cloning theorem. (why?)
- Super-luminal communication via teleportation is impossible. (why?)
- Teleportation can provide the quantum channel for communication between quantum computers.
- *Universal quantum computation* via teleportation: any quantum circuit can be realized using only teleportation and single-qubit operations.

explanation of teleportation

Problem: How to teleport state of qubit 1 to qubit 3 ?

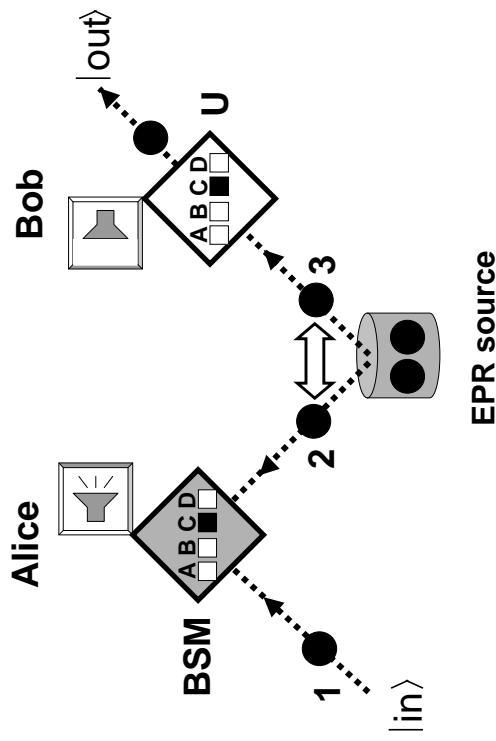
Assumption: qubits 2 & 3 are in the singlet state

$$\begin{aligned}
 |in\rangle_1 \otimes |\Phi_A\rangle_{23} = & (a|0\rangle_1 + b|1\rangle_1) \otimes \frac{|0\rangle_2|1\rangle_3 - |1\rangle_2|0\rangle_3}{\sqrt{2}} \\
 = & -\frac{1}{2} |\Phi_A\rangle_{12} \otimes (a|0\rangle_3 + b|1\rangle_3) - \frac{1}{2} |\Phi_B\rangle_{12} \otimes (a|0\rangle_3 - b|1\rangle_3) \\
 & + \frac{1}{2} |\Phi_C\rangle_{12} \otimes (a|1\rangle_3 + b|0\rangle_3) + \frac{1}{2} |\Phi_D\rangle_{12} \otimes (a|1\rangle_3 - b|0\rangle_3)
 \end{aligned}$$

measurement in Bell basis

Bennett, Brassard, Crépeau, Jozsa, Peres, Wootters (1993)

principles of teleportation



$ \Phi_A\rangle_{12} \Rightarrow$	$a 0\rangle_3 + b 1\rangle_3$	OK
$ \Phi_B\rangle_{12} \Rightarrow$	$\sigma_z(a 0\rangle_3 - b 1\rangle_3)$	phase flip $ x\rangle \rightarrow (-1)^x x\rangle$
$ \Phi_C\rangle_{12} \Rightarrow$	$-\sigma_x(-a 1\rangle_3 - b 0\rangle_3)$	bit flip $ x\rangle \rightarrow - x \oplus 1\rangle$
$ \Phi_D\rangle_{12} \Rightarrow$	$-i\sigma_y(a 1\rangle_3 - b 0\rangle_3)$	phase flip + bit flip $ x\rangle \rightarrow (-1)^{x+1} x \oplus 1\rangle$

where $|\Phi_A\rangle = |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle, |\Phi_B\rangle = |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle, |\Phi_C\rangle = |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle, |\Phi_D\rangle = |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle$

Quantum teleportation - a detailed analysis

Let us analyze teleportation of a polarization state as in Zeilinger's experiment

$$|\phi\rangle_1 = a|0\rangle_1 + b|1\rangle_1 = a|H\rangle_1 + b|V\rangle_1$$

via the singlet state

$$|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|HV\rangle_{23} - |VH\rangle_{23})$$

since

$$\hat{Z}|\phi\rangle_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ -b \end{bmatrix} = a|H\rangle - b|V\rangle$$

main idea

Let's expand the total initial state $|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23}$ in the Bell basis

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi^{(\pm)}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|HV\rangle \pm |VH\rangle) \\ |\Phi^{(\pm)}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|HH\rangle \pm |VV\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

note that

$$|\Psi^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(+)}| + |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(-)}| + |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Phi^{(+)}| + |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle\langle\Phi^{(-)}| = I_4 \equiv \text{id}(4)$$

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Term 3:

$$\begin{aligned} {}_{12}\langle\Phi^{(-)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= \frac{1}{2}\left({}_{12}\langle HH| - {}_{12}\langle VV|\right)\left(a|HHV\rangle - a|HVV\rangle + b|VHV\rangle - b|VVH\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left(a{}_{12}\langle HH|HHV\rangle + b{}_{12}\langle VV|VHV\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a|V\rangle_3 + b|H\rangle_3) = \frac{1}{2}\hat{X}|\phi\rangle_3 \end{aligned}$$

since

$$\hat{X}|\phi\rangle_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} b \\ a \end{bmatrix} = b|H\rangle + a|V\rangle$$

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Term 4:

$$\begin{aligned} {}_{12}\langle\Phi^{(+)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= \frac{1}{2}\left({}_{12}\langle HH| + {}_{12}\langle VV|\right)\left(a|HHV\rangle - a|HVV\rangle + b|VHV\rangle - b|VVH\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left(a{}_{12}\langle HH|HHV\rangle - b{}_{12}\langle VV|VHV\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a|V\rangle_3 - b|H\rangle_3) = \frac{1}{2}(-i\hat{Y})|\phi\rangle_3 \end{aligned}$$

since $(-i\hat{Y}) = \hat{X}\hat{Z}$

$$-i\hat{Y}|\phi\rangle_3 = -i \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -b \\ a \end{bmatrix} = -b|H\rangle + a|V\rangle$$

thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= \frac{1}{2}\left(-|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}|\phi\rangle_3 - |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}\hat{Z}|\phi\rangle_3 + \hat{X}|\Phi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}|\phi\rangle_3 + |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}(-i\hat{Y})|\phi\rangle_3\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}\left(|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}|\phi\rangle_3 + |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}\hat{Z}|\phi\rangle_3 - \hat{X}|\Phi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}|\phi\rangle_3 + |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}(i\hat{Y})|\phi\rangle_3\right) \end{aligned}$$

Term 2:

$$\begin{aligned} {}_{12}\langle\Psi^{(+)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= \frac{1}{2}\left({}_{12}\langle HV| + {}_{12}\langle VH|\right)\left(a|HHV\rangle - a|HVV\rangle + b|VHV\rangle - b|VVH\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left(-a{}_{12}\langle HV|HVH\rangle + b{}_{12}\langle VH|VHV\rangle\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}(a|H\rangle_3 - b|V\rangle_3) = -\frac{1}{2}\hat{Z}|\phi\rangle_3 \end{aligned}$$

which leads to

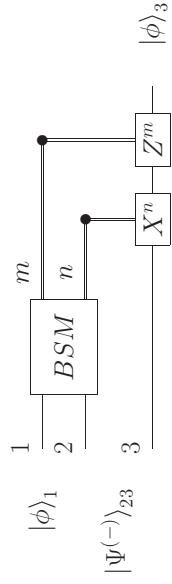
$$\begin{aligned} |\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= (|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(-)}| + |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Psi^{(+)}| + |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle\langle\Phi^{(-)}| + |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle\langle\Phi^{(+)}|)_{12}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} \\ &= |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}({}_{12}\langle\Psi^{(-)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23}) + |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}({}_{12}\langle\Psi^{(+)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23}) \\ &\quad + |\Phi^{(-)}\rangle_{12}({}_{12}\langle\Phi^{(-)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23}) + |\Phi^{(+)}\rangle_{12}({}_{12}\langle\Phi^{(+)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23}) \end{aligned}$$

Term 1:

$$\begin{aligned} {}_{12}\langle\Psi^{(-)}|\phi\rangle_1|\Psi^{(-)}\rangle_{23} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}({}_{12}\langle HV| - {}_{12}\langle VH|)(a|H\rangle_1 + b|V\rangle_1)\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|HV\rangle_{23} - |VH\rangle_{23}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left({}_{12}\langle HV| - {}_{12}\langle VH|\right)\left(a|HHV\rangle - a|HVV\rangle + b|VHV\rangle - b|VVH\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\left(-a{}_{12}\langle HV|HVH\rangle + b{}_{12}\langle VH|VHV\rangle\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(a|H\rangle_3 - b|V\rangle_3) = \frac{1}{2}(-i\hat{Y})|\phi\rangle_3 \end{aligned}$$

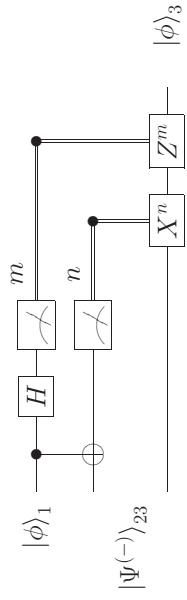
Now, Alice performs a **Bell-state measurement (BSM)**
- a projective measurement in the Bell-state basis (on particles 1 and 2).

q-circuit for quantum teleportation



where $m, n \in \{0, 1\}$ and BSM stands for the Bell state measurement

or more explicitly



teleportation across the River Danube

experiment of Zeilinger et al. (2004)

Key:

qubit – polarization states $|H\rangle$ and $|V\rangle$ of photon

F – optical fibre (length 800m) – quantum channel

RF - unit – classical channel

PL – pulsed laser (wavelength 394 nm, rate 76 MHz)

BBO – β -barium borate used to generate entangled photon pair (wavelength 788 nm) by spontaneous parametric down-conversion (PDC)

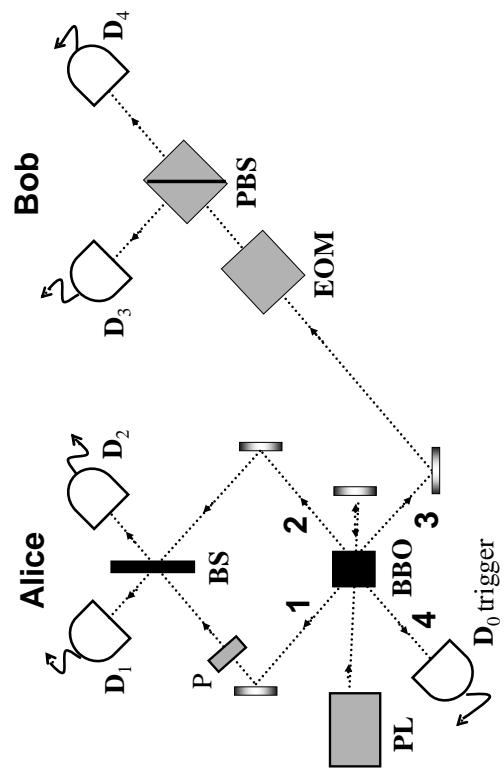
EOM – electro-optic modulator to perform Bob's unitary operation

PC – polarization controller to correct extra rotation of polarization in fibres

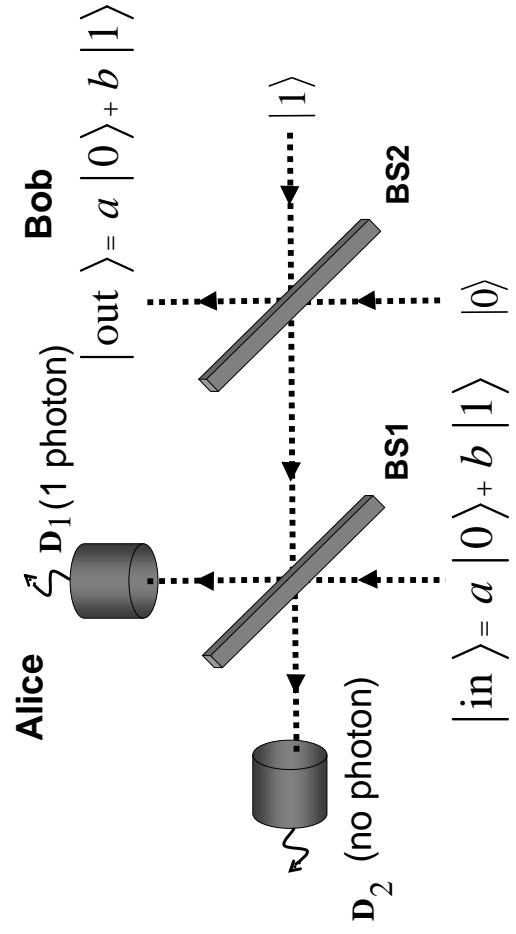
BS – beam splitter

PBS – polarizing beam splitter

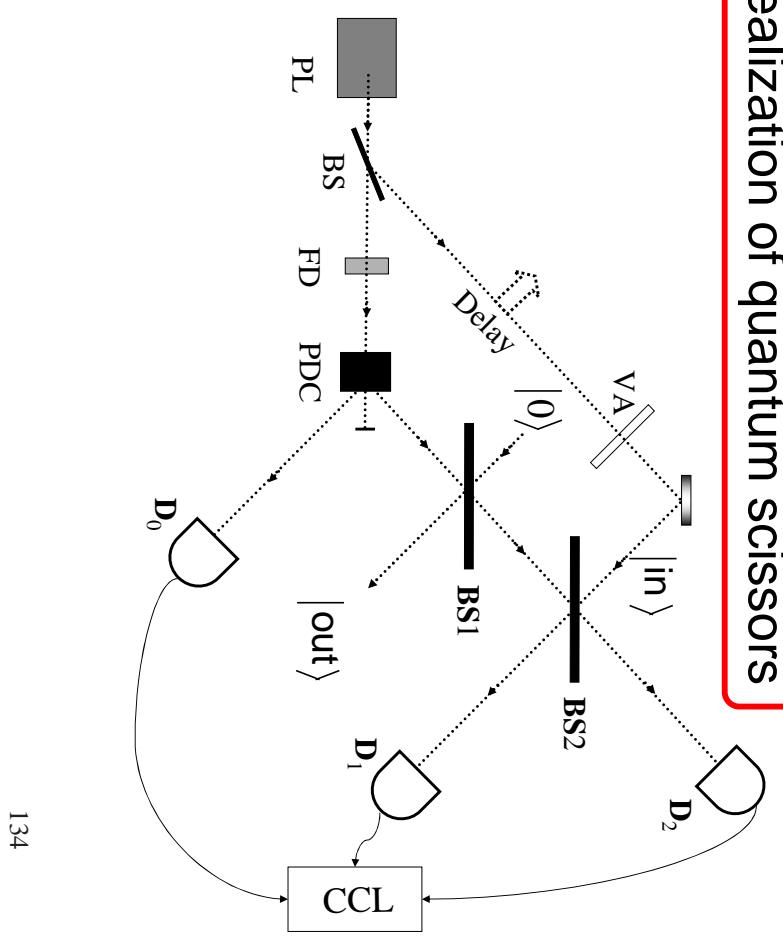
Zeilinger's experiment



teleportation of optical qubits using quantum scissors



realization of quantum scissors



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experimental quantum scissors
for teleportation and generation of qubit states

Key:

PL – pulsed laser

FD – frequency doubler

PDC – parametric down conversion crystal

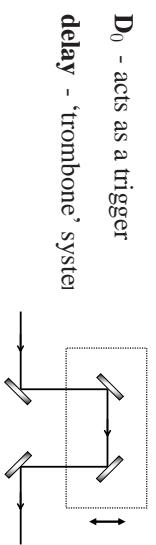
VA – variable attenuator with narrow-band filter

CCL – coincidence counter and logic

BS, BS1, BS2 – beam splitters

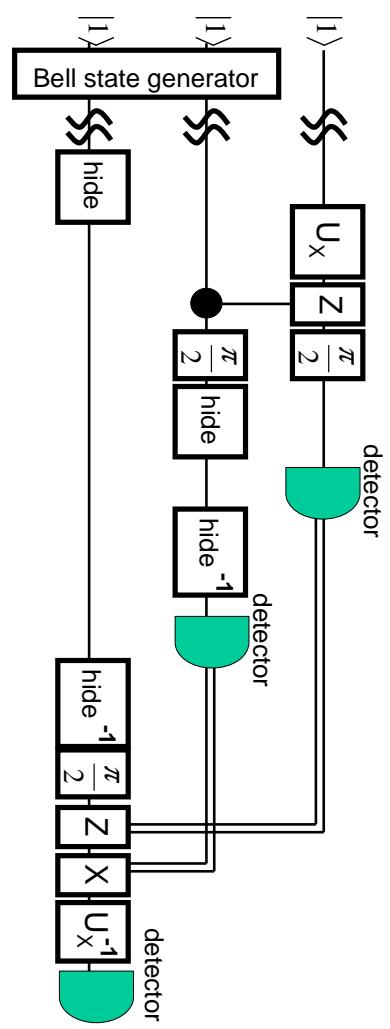
D₀, D₁, D₂ – photon-counting detectors

D₀ – acts as a trigger



deterministic teleportation of atomic states

experiment of Blatt et al. (2004)



Blatt et al. experiment (2004)

3 ions of $^{40}\text{Ca}^+$

states

$$|1\rangle \equiv S_{1/2} (m_J = -1/2)$$

$$|0\rangle \equiv D_{5/2} (m_J = -1/2)$$

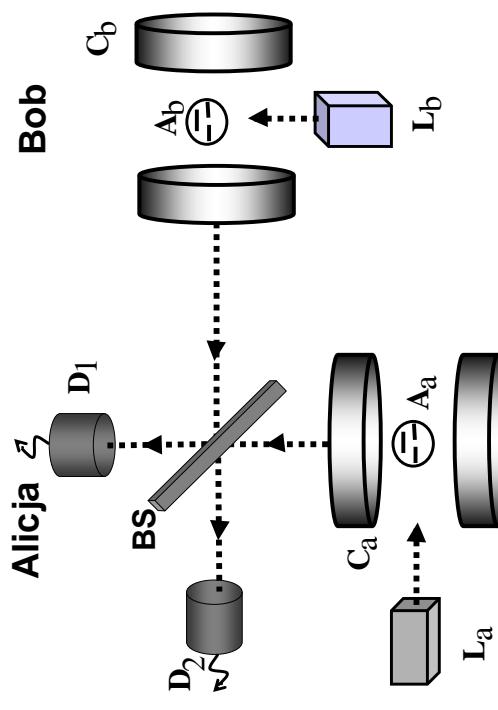
$$|H\rangle \equiv D_{5/2} (m_J = -5/2)$$

$$\downarrow U_x |1\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle, |0\rangle, \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{i|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\downarrow T_{\text{teleport}} = 2ms, T_{\text{Bell.state lifetime}} = 100ms, T_{\text{delay}} = 10ms$$

$$\downarrow \text{fidelity: } (66.7\% <) \textcolor{red}{75\%} (< 87\%)$$

teleportation via cavity decay



What is the entanglement swapping?

a method to establish perfect entanglement between remote parties

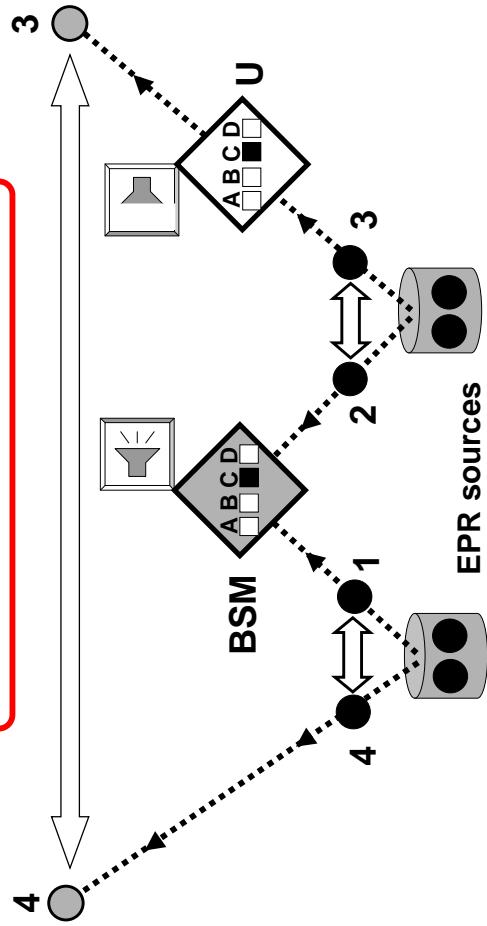
Remarks:

- it is quantum teleportation of unknown *entangled* quantum state
- *quantum repeaters* can be based on entanglement swapping

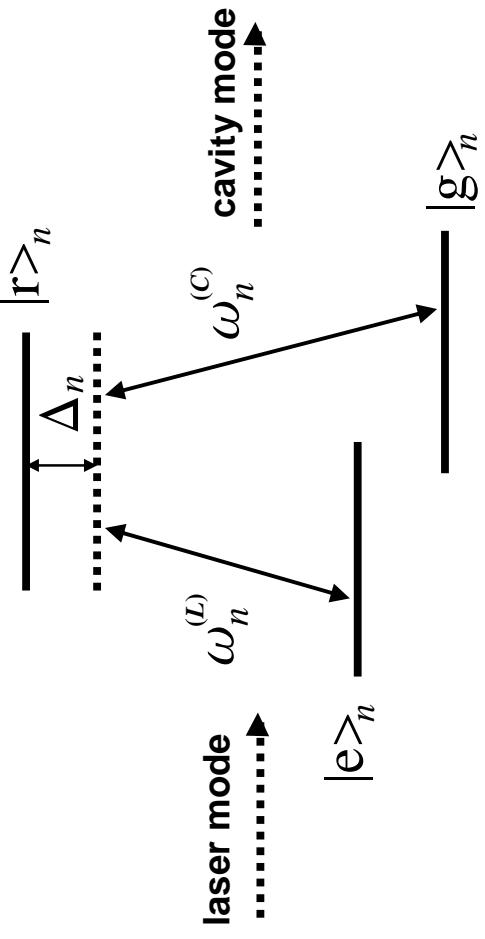
Simple description

1. Alice has particle A , Bob two particles B_1, B_2 , and Claire particle C .
2. Initially particles A and B_1 are entangled, and so B_2 and C .
3. Bob performs BSM on his particles B_1 and B_2 and informs Claire about his measurement results.
4. Claire, as in the standard teleportation protocol, applies proper unitary operation to C . So, the state of B_1 is teleported to C .
5. Thus, although Alice and Claire never interacted with each other, their particles A and C are now entangled.

entanglement swapping



3-level atom



teleportation - theory and experiments

- T 1935** quantum entanglement - Schrödinger, and Einstein, Podolsky, Rosen
- T 1982** quantum no-cloning - Wootters, Żurek and Dieks
- T 1993** quantum teleportation - Bennett,Brassard,Crpeau,Iozsa,Peres,Wootters
- T 1993** entanglement swapping - Żukowski, Zeilinger, Horne, Ekert
- E 1997** limited (conditional) optical teleportation - Zeilinger et al.
- E 1998** unconditional optical teleportation - Furusawa, Kimble, Polzik et al.
- E 1998** optical entanglement swapping - Zeilinger et al.

E 1999 universal quantum computation via teleportation - Gottesman and Chuang

E 2004 unconditional teleportation of atomic states
- (i) Barrett, Wineland at al. and (ii) Riebe, Blatt at al.

E 2006 unconditional teleportation between light and matter - Polzik et al.

E 2006 two-qubit teleportation - Zhang, Pan et al.
[4] Zeilinger et al. [Nature 2005]:
“Experimental one-way quantum computing”

Key: **T** - theory, **E** - experiment

What can be interesting about linear optics?

- Can we construct a quantum computer composed only of:
 - beam splitters
 - phase shifters
 - single-photon sources
 - photodetectors

Yes!

[1] Knill, Laflamme and Milburn [Nature 2001]:
“A scheme for efficient quantum computation with linear optics”

[2] O'Brien et al. [Nature 2003]:

“[Experimental] demonstration of an all-optical quantum controlled-NOT gate”

[3] Briegel and Raussendorf [PRL 2001]:
“A one-way quantum computer”,

[4] Zeilinger et al. [Nature 2005]:
“Experimental one-way quantum computing”

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How to encode optical qubits

• single-rail qubits

logical values of qubits are encoded by number of photons

$$|0\rangle_L = |0\rangle - \text{vacuum}$$

$$|1\rangle_L = |1\rangle - \text{single-photon state}$$

• two-rail qubits

encoding in spatial modes

$$|0\rangle_L = |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = |10\rangle - \text{photon in the first mode}$$

$$|1\rangle_L = |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle = |01\rangle - \text{photon in the second mode}$$

or vice versa

• polarization qubits

encoding in polarization modes of qubits

$$|0\rangle_L = |H\rangle = |1_h, 0_v\rangle - \text{photon with horizontal polarization}$$

$$|1\rangle_L = |V\rangle = |0_h, 1_v\rangle - \text{photon with vertical polarization}$$

or vice versa

a motto

efficient quantum computation with linear optics is possible!

Beam splitter (BS)

= partially-transparent mirror

typical BS matrix

$$\mathbf{B}' = \begin{bmatrix} t & r \\ -r & t \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}'' = \begin{bmatrix} t & ir \\ ir & t \end{bmatrix}$$

the most general form of BS matrix

$$\mathbf{B} = e^{i\theta_0} \begin{bmatrix} t \exp(i\theta_t) & r \exp(i\theta_r) \\ -r \exp(-i\theta_r) & t \exp(-i\theta_t) \end{bmatrix}$$

where

t – [probability] amplitude of transmission

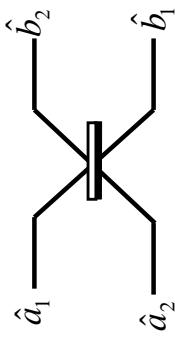
r – [probability] amplitude of reflection

$T \equiv \tau = t^2$ – transmittance = transmittivity = transmission coefficient

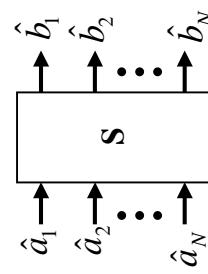
$R \equiv \rho = r^2$ – reflectance = reflectivity = reflection coefficient

$$1 = T + R = t^2 + r^2$$

$\theta_{t,r,0}$ – phase shifts

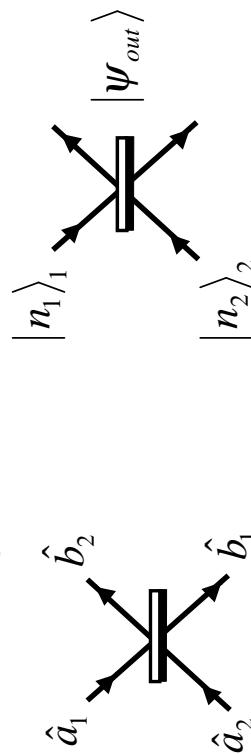


linear optical multiport (MP)



S – scattering matrix

scheme of (asymmetrical) nc



$\hat{a}_{1,2}$ – annihilation operators for input modes

$\hat{b}_{1,2}$ – annihilation operators for output modes

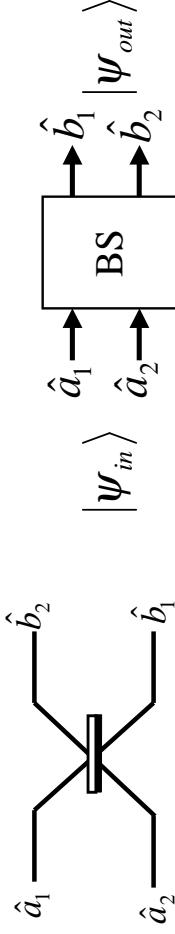
$|\psi_{out}\rangle$ - output state,

$$|\psi_{in}\rangle = |n_1\rangle_1 |n_2\rangle_2 \equiv |n_1, n_2\rangle$$

• convention

the phase of light reflected from the ‘white’ surface is π -shifted
light reflected from the ‘black’ surface does not change its phase
light transmitted from any side of BS does not change its phase

equivalent schemes of BS



transformations of states and operators in MP

$$|\psi_{out}\rangle = \hat{U} |\psi_{in}\rangle$$

$$\hat{a}_i \rightarrow \hat{b}_i = \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{a}_i \hat{U} = \sum_{j=1}^N S_{ij} \hat{a}_j$$

where

S_{ij} – elements of unitary scattering matrix S

\hat{U} – unitary operator describing evolution of N input modes

\hat{a}_j – annihilation operator for the j th input mode

\hat{b}_j – annihilation operator for the j th output mode

- in vector notation

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}} \equiv [\hat{a}_1, \hat{a}_2, \dots, \hat{a}_N]^T$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} \equiv [\hat{b}_1, \hat{b}_2, \dots, \hat{b}_N]^T$$

for N-input Fock states

$$|\psi_{in}\rangle = |n_1, \dots, n_N\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{n}\rangle$$

the MP transformations can be written compactly:

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{\mathbf{a}} \hat{U} = \mathbf{S} \hat{\mathbf{a}}$$

so

$$\hat{\mathbf{a}}^\dagger = \hat{U} \hat{\mathbf{b}}^\dagger \hat{U}^\dagger = \mathbf{S}^T \hat{\mathbf{b}}^\dagger$$

or explicitly

$$\hat{a}_i^\dagger = \sum_j S_{ji} \hat{b}_j^\dagger$$

- How to express output operators in terms of input operators without knowing explicitly \hat{U} ?

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U} \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{U}^\dagger &= \hat{U} \left(\sum_j S_{ji} \hat{b}_j^\dagger \right) \hat{U}^\dagger \\ &= \sum_j S_{ji} \hat{U} \hat{b}_j^\dagger \hat{U}^\dagger \\ &= \sum_j S_{ji} \hat{a}_j^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

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general transformations in MP

input state $|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = |n_1, \dots, n_N\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{n}\rangle$
output state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle &= \hat{U} |\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = \hat{U} \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{(\hat{a}_i^\dagger)^{n_i}}{\sqrt{n_i!}} |\mathbf{0}\rangle = \hat{U} \frac{(\hat{a}_1^\dagger)^{n_1} (\hat{a}_2^\dagger)^{n_2}}{\sqrt{n_1!} \sqrt{n_2!}} \dots \frac{(\hat{a}_N^\dagger)^{n_N}}{\sqrt{n_N!}} |\mathbf{0}\rangle \\ &= \hat{U} \frac{(\hat{a}_1^\dagger)^{n_1}}{\sqrt{n_1!}} \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{U} \frac{(\hat{a}_2^\dagger)^{n_2}}{\sqrt{n_2!}} \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{U} \dots \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{U} \frac{(\hat{a}_N^\dagger)^{n_N}}{\sqrt{n_N!}} \hat{U}^\dagger \hat{U} |\mathbf{0}\rangle \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_i!}} (\hat{U} \hat{a}_i^\dagger \hat{U}^\dagger)^{n_i} |\mathbf{0}\rangle \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_i!}} \left(\sum_{j=1}^N S_{ji} \hat{a}_j^\dagger \right)^{n_i} |\mathbf{0}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1!} \dots n_N!} \sum_{j=1}^N \prod_{l=1}^M S_{jl} x_l \hat{a}_{j_l}^\dagger |\mathbf{0}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where $M = \sum_i n_i$ – is the total number of photons in system.

$\{x_l\} \equiv (1, \underbrace{\dots, 1, 2, \dots, 2, \dots, \underbrace{N, \dots, N}_{n_N})$ for $l = 1, \dots, M$

\sum_j – multiple sum j_1, j_2, \dots, j_M

Exemplary transformations of states by beam-splitter

assuming that

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{B}' = \begin{bmatrix} t & r \\ -r & t \end{bmatrix}$$

- example 1:

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = |10\rangle \quad \rightarrow \quad |\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = t|10\rangle - r|01\rangle$$

proof:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle &= \hat{U} |\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = \hat{U} |10\rangle = \hat{U} \hat{a}_1^\dagger |00\rangle \\ &= \underbrace{\hat{U} \hat{a}_1^\dagger}_{=|00\rangle} \underbrace{\hat{U}^\dagger \hat{U}}_{=1} |00\rangle \\ &= (\sum_j S_{j1} \hat{a}_j^\dagger) |00\rangle \\ &= S_{11} \hat{a}_1^\dagger |00\rangle + S_{21} \hat{a}_2^\dagger |00\rangle = S_{11} |10\rangle + S_{21} |01\rangle \\ &= t|10\rangle - r|01\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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so

$$|10\rangle \rightarrow t|10\rangle - r|01\rangle$$

in special case for **50:50 BS** (i.e., $t = r = 1/\sqrt{2}$)

$$|10\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|10\rangle - |01\rangle) \equiv |\Psi^{(-)}\rangle \quad (\text{the singlet state})$$

- example 2:

$$|01\rangle \rightarrow r|10\rangle + t|01\rangle$$

for 50:50 BS

$$|01\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|10\rangle + |01\rangle) \equiv |\Psi^{(+)}\rangle \quad (\text{the 'triplet' state})$$

- example 3:

$$|11\rangle \rightarrow \sqrt{2}rt(|20\rangle - |02\rangle) + (t^2 - r^2)|11\rangle$$

for 50:50 BS

$$|11\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|20\rangle - |02\rangle)$$

note: state $|11\rangle$ is not generated – it is so-called **photon coalescence** or **photon 'bunching'** (but not in Mandel's sense)

- example 4:

$$|20\rangle \rightarrow t^2|20\rangle - \sqrt{2}rt|11\rangle + r^2|02\rangle$$

for 50:50 BS

$$|20\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\left(|20\rangle - \sqrt{2}|11\rangle + |02\rangle\right)$$

- example 5:

$$|21\rangle \rightarrow \sqrt{3}rt^2|30\rangle + t(t^2 - 2r^2)|21\rangle + (r^3 - 2rt^2)|12\rangle + \sqrt{3}r^2t|03\rangle$$

for 50:50 BS

$$|21\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}\left(\sqrt{3}|30\rangle - |21\rangle - |12\rangle + \sqrt{3}|03\rangle\right)$$

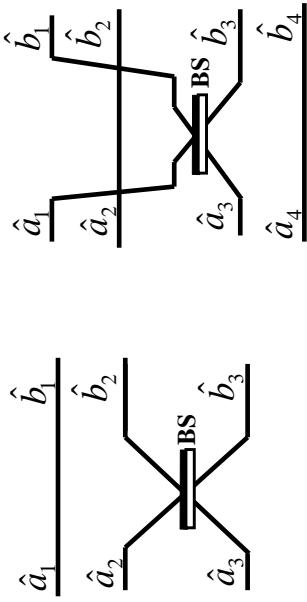
- example 6:

$$|22\rangle \rightarrow (r^4 - 4r^2t^2 + t^4)|2,2\rangle + \sqrt{6}rt[r|0,4\rangle + (r^2 - t^2)(|1,3\rangle - |3,1\rangle) + rt|4,0\rangle]$$

for 50:50 BS

$$|22\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}|0,4\rangle - \frac{1}{2}|2,2\rangle + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}|4,0\rangle$$

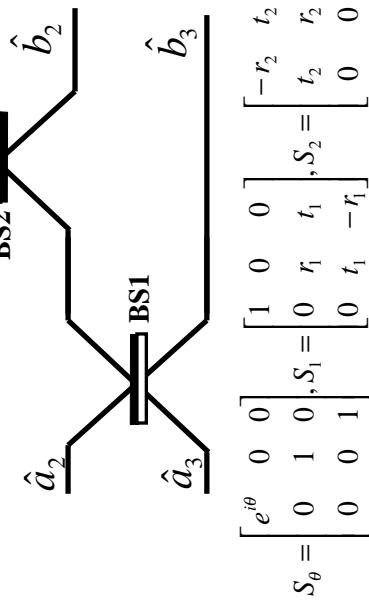
exemplary scattering matrices (I)



$$S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r & t \\ 0 & t & -r \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} r & 0 & t & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ t & 0 & -r & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

exemplary scattering matrix (II)

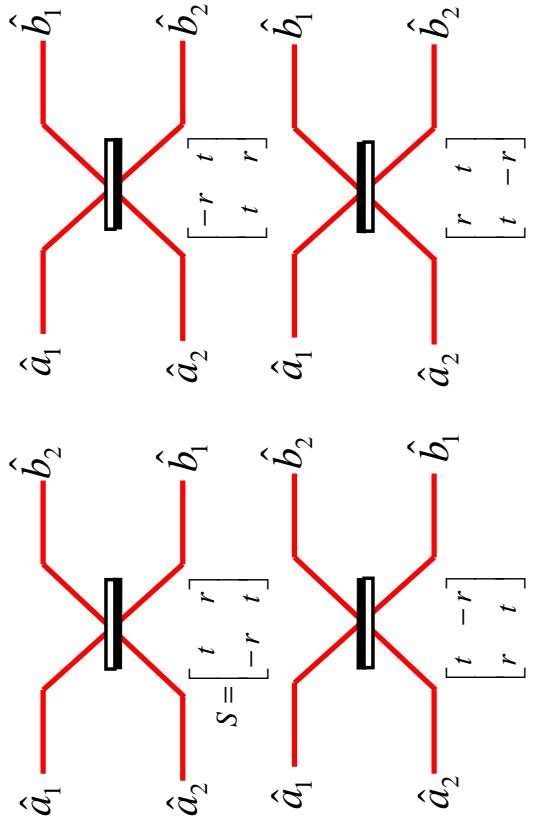


$$S_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} e^{i\theta} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r_1 & t_1 \\ 0 & t_1 & -r_1 \end{bmatrix}, S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -r_2 & t_2 & 0 \\ t_2 & r_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

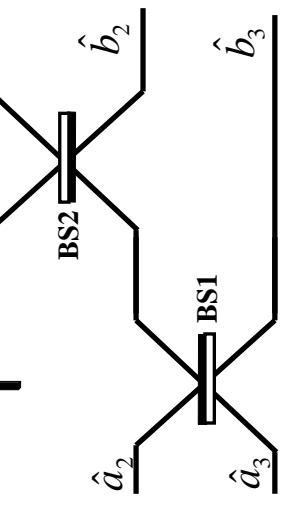
$$S = S_2 S_\theta S_1 = S_2 S_1 S_\theta$$

scattering matrices for BS

convention 1.



convention 2.



von Neumann projective measurement

Let us assume that the k th subsystem (e.g. mode, qubit) of a bipartite quantum system is represented by complete orthonormal set of states $|m\rangle$ then:

projector

= projection operator = projection valued (PV) measure
= orthogonal measurement operator is

$$\hat{P}_m^{(k)} = |m\rangle_{kk}\langle m|$$

for the k th subsystem corresponding to the measurement outcome m

probability of the measurement outcome m

$$\text{prob}_1(m) = \langle\psi|\hat{P}_m^{(1)}\otimes\hat{I}|\psi\rangle$$

$$\text{prob}_2(m) = \langle\psi|\hat{I}\otimes\hat{P}_m^{(2)}|\psi\rangle$$

state after projection/measurement

$$|\phi^{(1)}\rangle = \frac{\hat{P}_m^{(1)}\otimes\hat{I}|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\psi|\hat{P}_m^{(1)}\otimes\hat{I}|\psi\rangle}}, \quad |\phi^{(2)}\rangle = \frac{\hat{I}\otimes\hat{P}_m^{(2)}|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle\psi|\hat{I}\otimes\hat{P}_m^{(2)}|\psi\rangle}}$$

where $\sqrt{\dots}$ is the renormalization.

requirements for the projectors

non-negative, Hermitian, **orthogonal** and summing up to identity:

$$\sum_m \hat{P}_m^{(k)} = \hat{I}, \quad \hat{P}_m^{(k)} = (\hat{P}_m^{(k)})^\dagger,$$

$$_k\langle m|m'\rangle_k = \delta_{mm'}, \quad [\hat{P}_m^{(k)}, \hat{P}_{m'}^{(k')}] = 0$$

then

$$\sum_m \text{prob}(m) = 1$$

measurement outcomes corresponding to non-orthogonal states do not commute and thus are not simultaneously observable

Note: number of projectors = dimension of Hilbert space

- Can we apply a more general type of measurement?

Yes!

positive operator valued measures (POVM, POM)

describe measurement outcomes associated with non-orthogonal states

... and we will discuss it later!

Example of von Neumann projective measurement a projection synthesis via conditional measurements

general two-qubit pure state

$$|\psi\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle$$

$c_0^2 + c_1^2 + c_2^2 + c_3^2 = 1$

normalization

$$1 = |c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 + |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2$$

1) probability of measuring 1st qubit in $|0\rangle$:

$$\text{prob}_1(0) \equiv \text{prob}(|0\rangle_1) = |c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2$$

and **post measurement state** is

$$\frac{c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2}} \equiv |\phi_0\rangle$$

where $\sqrt{\dots}$ is the renormalization.

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2) probability of measuring 1st qubit in $|1\rangle$:

$$\text{prob}(|1\rangle_1) = |c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2$$

$$\text{if } |\psi\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle$$

the post measurement state is

$$\frac{c_2|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2}} \equiv |\phi_1\rangle$$

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3) probability of measuring 2nd qubit in $|0\rangle$:

$$\text{prob}(|0\rangle_2) = |c_0|^2 + |c_2|^2$$

$$\text{if } |\psi\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle$$

the post measurement state is

$$\frac{c_1|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_1|^2 + |c_3|^2}}$$

4) probability of measuring 2nd qubit in $|1\rangle$:

- analogously

another description of projection synthesis

- As we know, for a **two-mode system** (four-port system) holds:

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi\rangle &= c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle \\
 &= |0\rangle \otimes (c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle) + |1\rangle \otimes (c_2|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle) \\
 &= \underbrace{\sqrt{|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2}}_{|\psi\rangle} |0\rangle \otimes \frac{c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{|c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2}}_{|\psi\rangle} |1\rangle \otimes \frac{c_2|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sqrt{\overline{|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2}} |0\rangle \otimes \frac{c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2}} + \sqrt{\overline{|c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2}} |1\rangle \otimes \frac{c_2|0\rangle + c_3|1\rangle}{\sqrt{|c_2|^2 + |c_3|^2}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\text{prob}(|0\rangle_1)} |0\rangle \otimes |\phi_0\rangle + \sqrt{\text{prob}(|1\rangle_1)} |1\rangle \otimes |\phi_1\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{where } \mathbf{S} &= \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{S}^T = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} \\ S_{12} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \text{e.g.} & \quad |10\rangle \rightarrow S_{11}\hat{a}_1^\dagger|00\rangle + S_{21}\hat{a}_2^\dagger|00\rangle = S_{11}|10\rangle + S_{21}|01\rangle \\
 & \quad |01\rangle \rightarrow S_{12}\hat{a}_1^\dagger|00\rangle + S_{22}\hat{a}_2^\dagger|00\rangle = S_{12}|10\rangle + S_{22}|01\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

- Analogously for a **three-mode system** (six-port system) holds:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left[\begin{array}{c} \hat{a}_1^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_2^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_3^\dagger \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} \hat{b}_1^\dagger \\ \hat{b}_2^\dagger \\ \hat{b}_3^\dagger \end{array} \right] &= \mathbf{S}^T \begin{bmatrix} \hat{a}_1^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_2^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_3^\dagger \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{21} & S_{31} \\ S_{12} & S_{22} & S_{32} \\ S_{13} & S_{23} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{a}_1^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_2^\dagger \\ \hat{a}_3^\dagger \end{bmatrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

e.g.

$$|100\rangle \rightarrow S_{11}\hat{a}_1^\dagger|000\rangle + S_{21}\hat{a}_2^\dagger|000\rangle + S_{31}\hat{a}_3^\dagger|000\rangle = S_{11}|100\rangle + S_{21}|010\rangle + S_{31}|001\rangle$$

projection synthesis

probabilistic quantum state engineering via conditional measurements

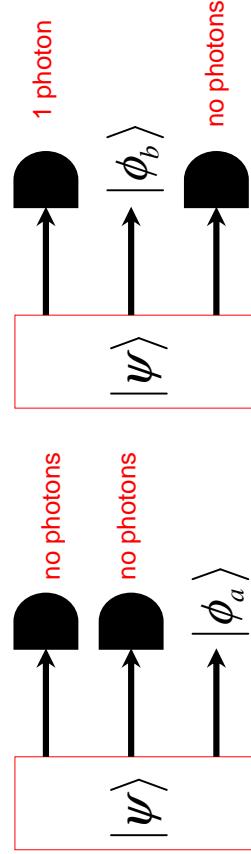
example: Let's analyze a three-mode state

$$|\psi\rangle = c_1|000\rangle + c_2|001\rangle + c_3|010\rangle + c_4|011\rangle + c_5|100\rangle + c_6|101\rangle + c_7|110\rangle + c_8|111\rangle$$

Problem: How to get single-mode states

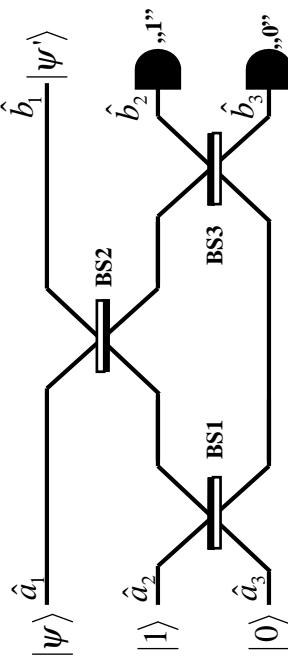
$$|\phi_a\rangle \sim c_1|0\rangle + c_2|1\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |\phi_b\rangle \sim c_5|0\rangle + c_7|1\rangle?$$

Answer: Proper conditional measurements should be performed



nonlinear sign gate (NS)

$$|\psi\rangle = c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle + c_2|2\rangle \longrightarrow |\psi'\rangle = c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle - c_2|2\rangle$$



$$S_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r_1 & t_1 \\ 0 & t_1 & -r_1 \end{bmatrix}, S_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -r_2 & t_2 & 0 \\ t_2 & r_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, S_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & r_3 & t_3 \\ 0 & t_3 & -r_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = S_3 S_2 S_1$$

- scattering matrix

Mathematica:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &:= \{\{1, 0, 0\}, \{0, r_1, t_1\}, \{0, t_1, -r_1\}\} \\ S_2 &:= \{\{-r_2, t_2, 0\}, \{t_2, r_2, 0\}, \{0, 0, 1\}\} \\ S_3 &:= \{\{1, 0, 0\}, \{0, r_3, t_3\}, \{0, t_3, -r_3\}\} \\ S &= S_3 \cdot S_2 \cdot S_1 \end{aligned}$$

thus, after multiplication, one gets

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} & S_{13} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} & S_{23} \\ S_{31} & S_{32} & S_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -r_2, & t_2 r_1, & t_1 t_2 \\ t_2 r_3, & t_1 t_3 + r_1 r_2 r_3, & -t_3 r_1 + t_1 r_2 r_3 \\ t_2 t_3, & t_3 r_1 r_2 - t_1 r_3, & t_1 t_3 r_2 + r_1 r_3 \end{bmatrix} \leftrightarrow \hat{U}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 210 | \hat{U} | 210 \rangle &= S_{11}^2 S_{22} + 2 S_{11} S_{21} S_{12} \\ &= r_2^2 c - 2 r_2 (t_2 r_3) (t_2 r_1) \\ &= r_2^2 c - 2 r_1 r_2 r_3 t_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

finally, we get **set of equations**

$$c = t_1 t_3 + r_1 r_2 r_3 = -r_2 c + (t_2 r_3) (t_2 r_1) = -(r_2^2 c - 2 r_1 r_2 r_3 t_2^2)$$

Note: transmission amplitudes for BS are calculated from $t_i = \sqrt{1 - r_i^2}$

for which the solutions are $r_1 = r_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4-2\sqrt{2}}}$, $r_2 = \sqrt{2} - 1$

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simplified implementation of NS gate

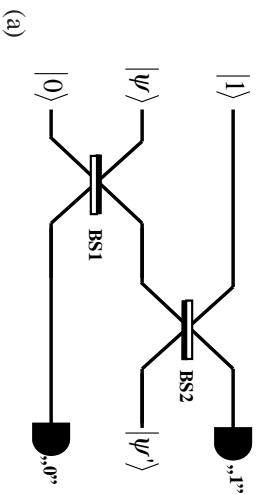
(less number of optical elements but also lower probability of success!)

so

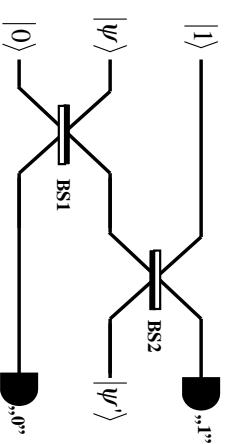
$$\langle 10 | \hat{U} | 01 \rangle = S_{12} \langle 01 | 100 \rangle + S_{22} \langle 010 | 010 \rangle + S_{32} \langle 010 | 001 \rangle = S_{22} = t_1 t_3 + r_1 r_2 r_3 = c$$

- $|n10\rangle \rightarrow c|n10\rangle$ for $n = 0$
- $\hat{U}|010\rangle = (S_{12}\hat{a}_1^\dagger + S_{22}\hat{a}_2^\dagger + S_{32}\hat{a}_3^\dagger)|000\rangle = S_{12}|100\rangle + S_{22}|010\rangle + S_{32}|001\rangle$

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(a)



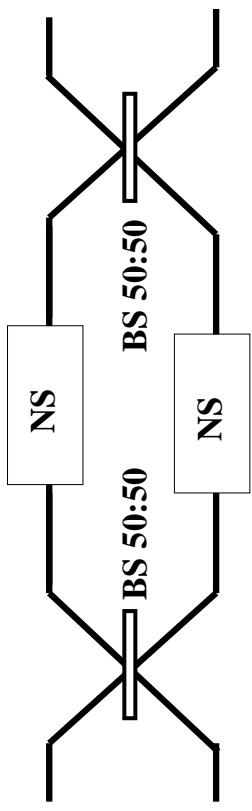
(b)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle 110 | \hat{U} | 110 \rangle &= (S_{11} S_{22} + S_{21} S_{12}) \langle 110 | 110 \rangle + \dots \\ &= S_{11} S_{22} + S_{21} S_{12} \\ &= -r_2 c + (t_2 r_3) (t_2 r_1) \\ &= -r_2 c + r_1 r_3 t_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

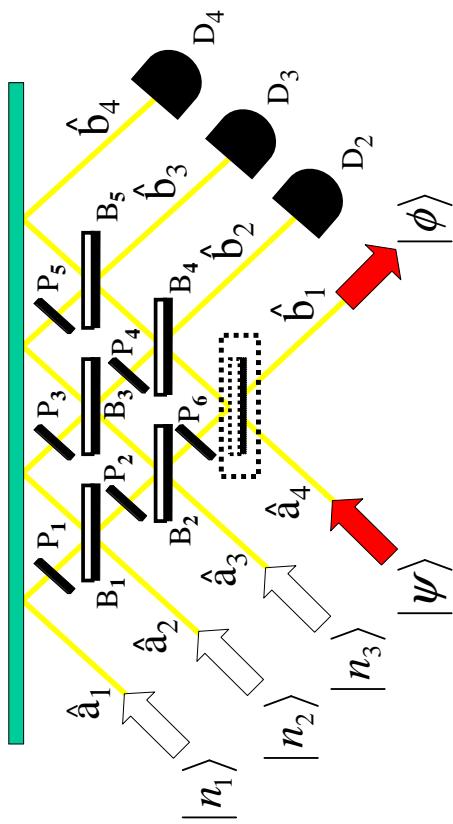
- $|n10\rangle \rightarrow -c|n10\rangle$ for $n = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{U}|210\rangle &= \sum_{k,l,m=1}^3 \frac{S_{k1} S_{l1} S_{m2} \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_l^\dagger \hat{a}_m^\dagger}{\sqrt{2!1!}} |000\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (S_{11}^2 S_{22} \hat{a}_1^{2\dagger} \hat{a}_2^\dagger + S_{21} S_{11} S_{12} \hat{a}_2^{2\dagger} + S_{11} S_{21} S_{12} \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_2^\dagger + \dots) |000\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (S_{11}^2 S_{22} + 2 S_{11} S_{21} S_{12}) \underbrace{\hat{a}_1^{2\dagger} \hat{a}_2^\dagger |000\rangle}_{\sqrt{2}|210\rangle} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

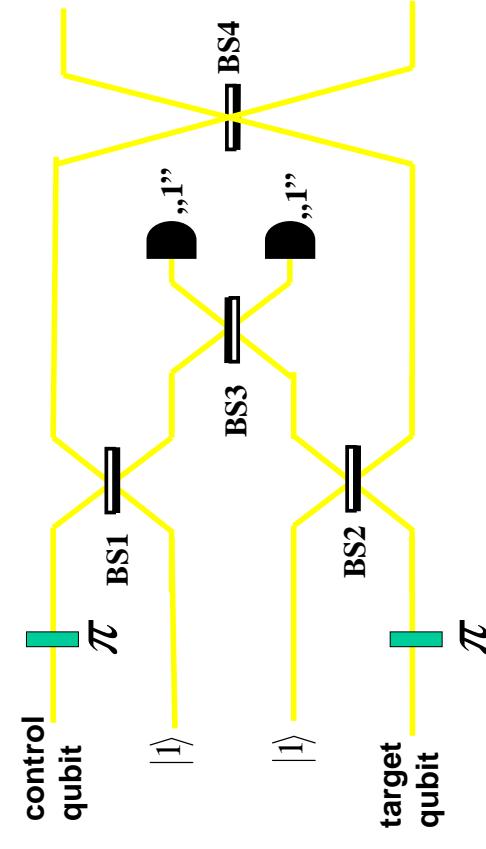
implementation of CZ gate



multiport Mach-Zehnder interferometer



another implementation of CZ gate



unitary transformations

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{P}_6 \mathbf{B}_5 \mathbf{P}_5 \mathbf{B}_4 \mathbf{P}_4 \mathbf{B}_3 \mathbf{P}_3 \mathbf{B}_2 \mathbf{P}_2 \mathbf{B}_1 \mathbf{P}_1$$

beam splitters

$$\mathbf{B}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 & r_1 & 0 \\ -r_1 & t_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} t_2 & 0 & r_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -r_2 & 0 & t_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & t_3 & r_3 & 0 \\ 0 & -r_3 & t_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{B}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & t_4 & 0 & r_4 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -r_4 & 0 & t_4 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{B}_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & t_5 & r_5 \\ 0 & 0 & -r_5 & t_5 \end{bmatrix}$$

phase shifters

$$\mathbf{P}_k = \text{diag}[\exp(i\xi_k), 1, 1, 1] \quad \text{dla } k = 1, 2, 6,$$

$$\mathbf{P}_k = \text{diag}[1, \exp(i\xi_k), 1, 1] \quad \text{dla } k = 3, 4,$$

$$\mathbf{P}_5 = \text{diag}[1, 1, \exp(i\xi_5), 1].$$

mirror

$$\mathbf{M}_k = \text{diag}[\exp(i\xi_{1k}), \exp(i\xi_{2k}), \exp(i\xi_{3k}), \exp(i\xi_{4k})]$$

transmission amplitudes for BSs:

$$t_1 = t_2 = t_3 = \cos \theta \text{ where } \theta = 54.74 \text{ and } t_4 = \cos \phi \text{ where } \phi = 17.63$$

interchanging polarization qubits and two-rail qubits

projection synthesis

output state

$$|\phi_{\text{out}}\rangle_1 = \mathcal{N}_2 \langle N_2 | \langle N_3 | \langle N_4 | \hat{U} | n_1\rangle_1 | n_2\rangle_2 | n_3\rangle_3 | \psi_{\text{in}}\rangle_4 = \mathcal{N} \sum_{n=0}^{d-1} c_n^{(d)} \gamma_n |n\rangle$$

where amplitudes

$$c_n^{(d)}(\mathbf{T}, \xi) = \langle n N_2 N_3 N_4 | \hat{U} | n_1 n_2 n_3 n \rangle$$

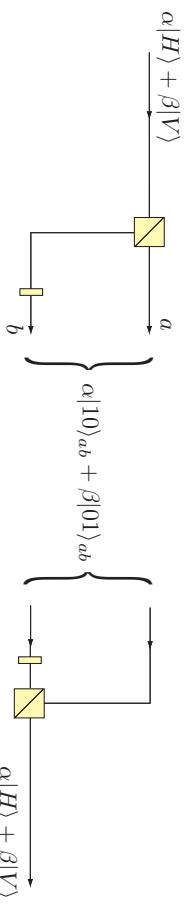
depend on:

transmittances $\mathbf{T} \equiv [t_1^2, t_2^2, t_3^2, t_4^2, t_5^2]$

phase shifts $\xi \equiv [\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3, \xi_4, \xi_5]$

input Fock states $|n_1\rangle, |n_2\rangle$ and $|n_3\rangle$

measurements results N_2, N_3, N_4



PBS

- polarizing beam splitter (e.g. calcite crystal)
- transmits $|H\rangle$ and reflects $|V\rangle$ (or vice versa)

HWP($\pi/4$)

- half-wave plate (polarization rotator)
- changes photon polarization $|V\rangle \leftrightarrow |H\rangle$.

How to rotate polarization qubits? wave plate = waveplate = retarder

a birefringent crystal (with a properly chosen thickness)
changes polarization of a light

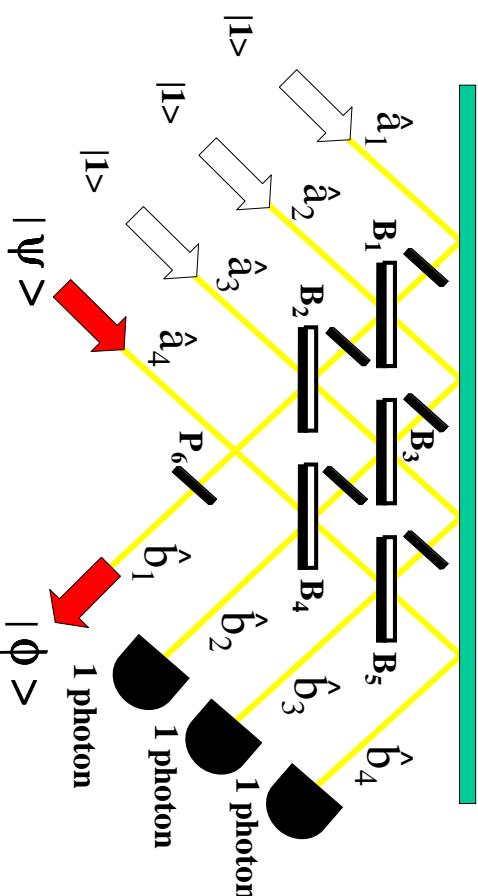
by shifting its phase between two perpendicular polarization components.

half-wave plate (HWP)

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\beta) & \sin(2\beta) \\ \sin(2\beta) & -\cos(2\beta) - i \end{bmatrix}$$

quarter-wave plate (QWP)

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/4}(\beta) = \frac{\exp(i\frac{3}{4}\pi)}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\beta) - i & \sin(2\beta) \\ \sin(2\beta) & -\cos(2\beta) - i \end{bmatrix}$$



special values β for HWP

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\beta) & \sin(2\beta) \\ \sin(2\beta) & -\cos(2\beta) \end{bmatrix}$$

NOT gate = Pauli X gate = bit flip

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(\pi/4) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \equiv \hat{\sigma}_X$$

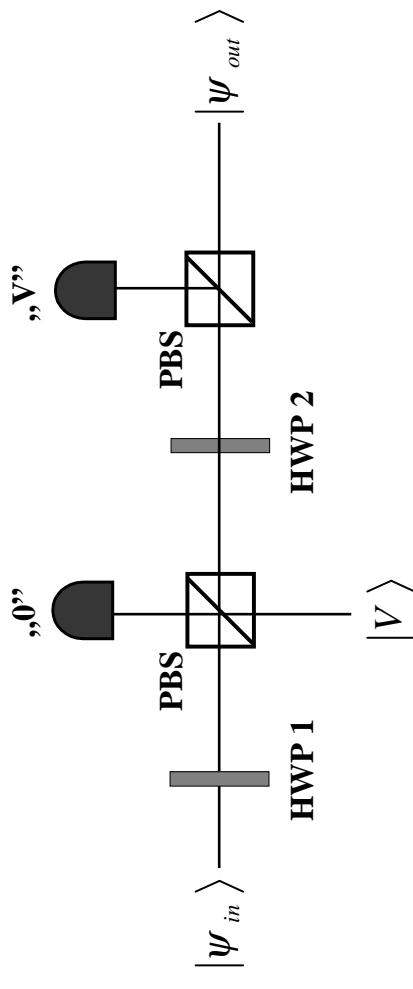
Pauli Z gate = phase flip

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \equiv \hat{\sigma}_Z$$

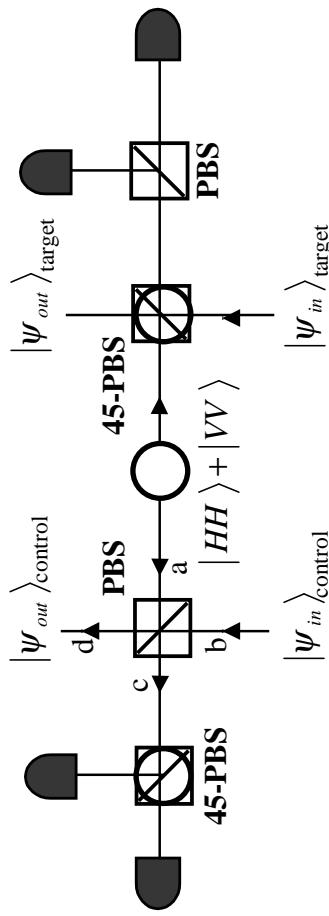
Hadamard gate

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(\pi/8) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \equiv \hat{H}$$

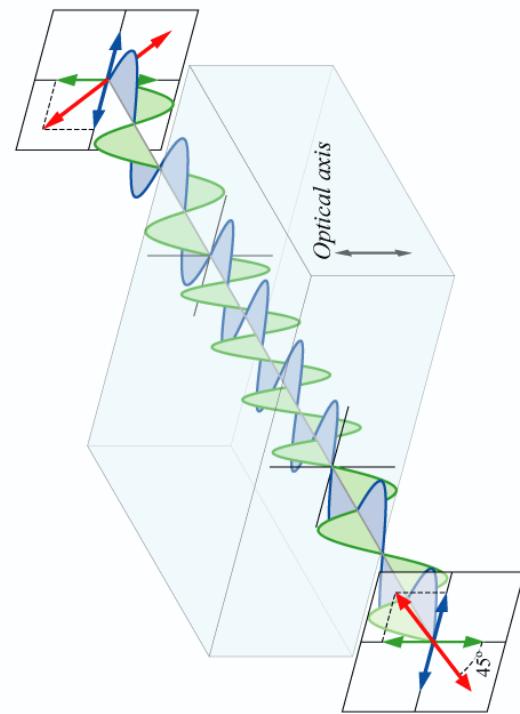
implementation of polarization NS gate



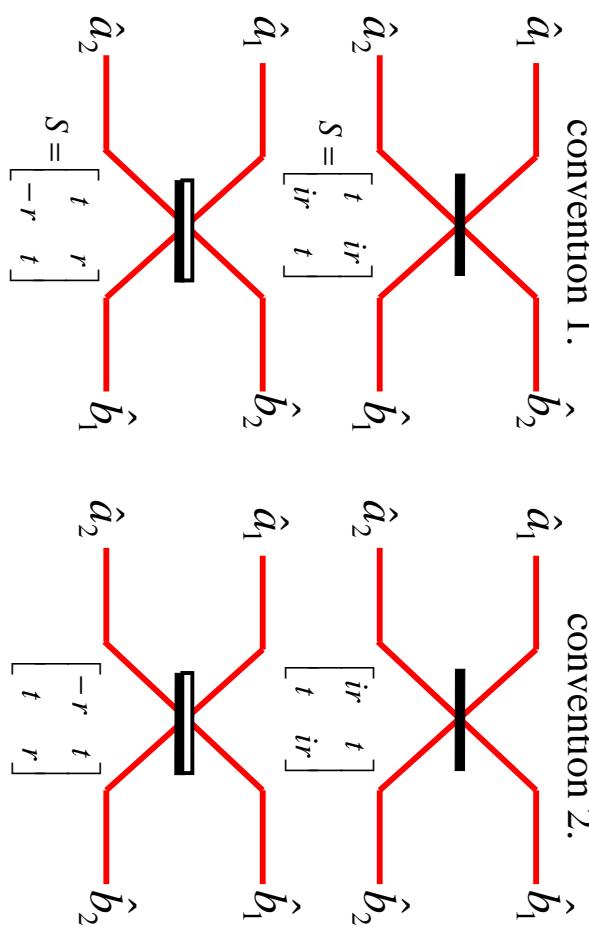
implementation of polarization CNOT gate



rotation of polarization in a waveplate

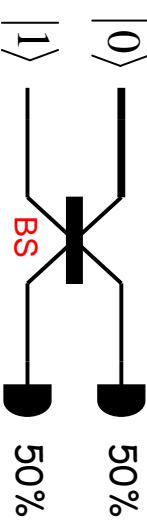


symmetric vs asymmetric BSs

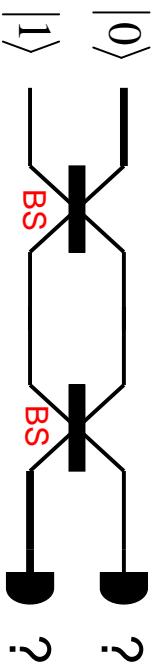


beam-splitter and interference

classical coin tossing

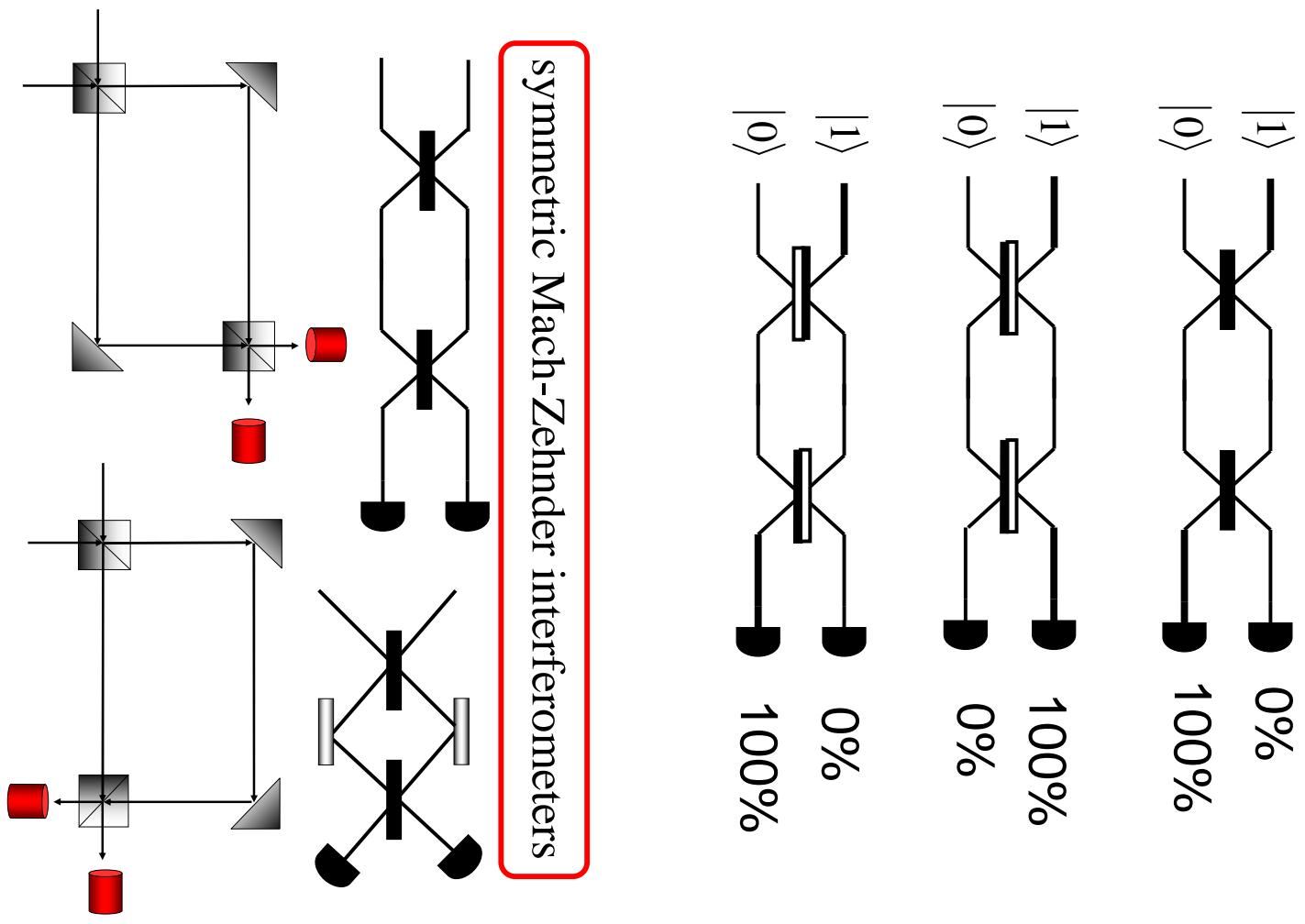


but here classical intuition fails



(all BSs are 50-50)

symmetric Mach-Zehnder interferometers



a single photon in Mach-Zehnder interferometers

We have already shown that 2×2 scattering matrix

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} & S_{12} \\ S_{21} & S_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

transforms

$$|10\rangle \rightarrow S_{11}|10\rangle + S_{21}|01\rangle.$$

Equivalently, in terms of **two-rail qubit** notation

$$|10\rangle \equiv |0\rangle_L, \quad |01\rangle \equiv |1\rangle_L$$

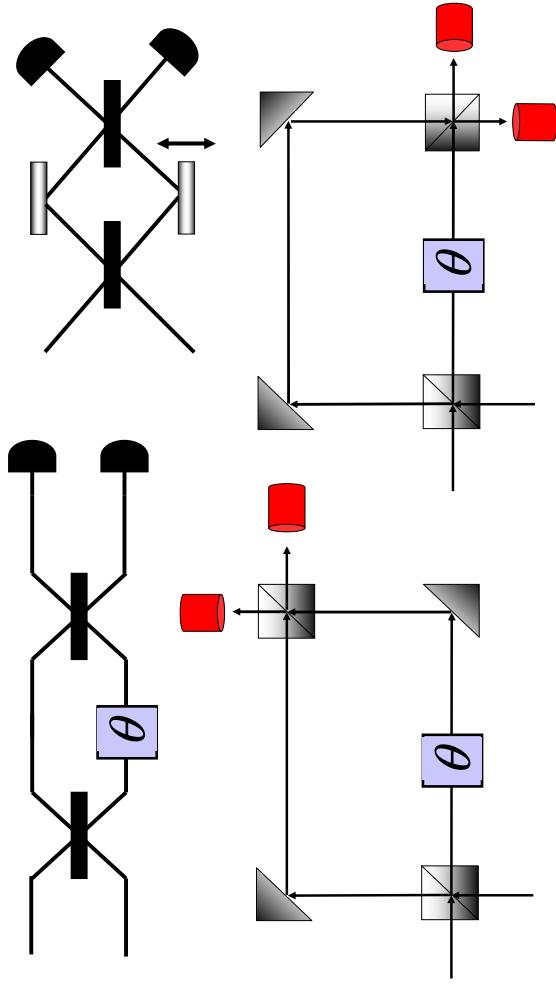
one gets

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow S_{11}|0\rangle_L + S_{21}|1\rangle_L.$$

setup 1:

$$B_1 = B_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

this is the \sqrt{NOT} gate!



Mach-Zehnder interferometers with phase shifter

as

$$S = B_2 B_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} = i \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = i \hat{X}$$

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow i|1\rangle_L \cong |1\rangle_L$$

setup 2:

$$B_1 = B_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = B_2 B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{I}$$

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow |0\rangle_L.$$

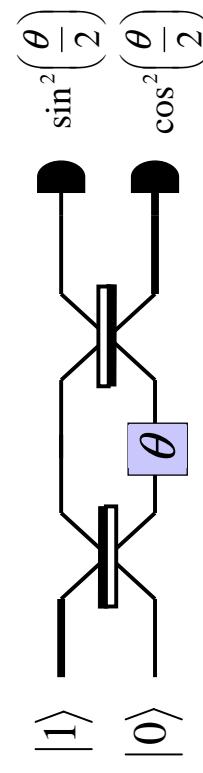
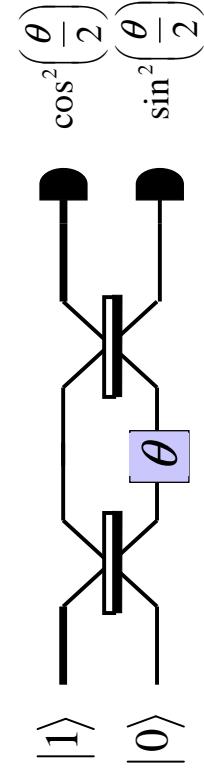
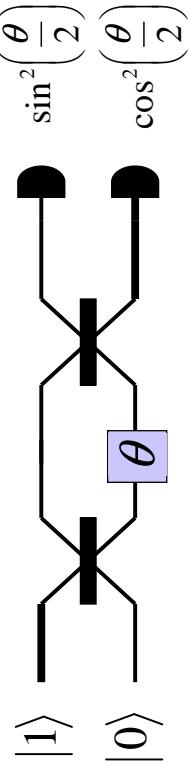
setup 3:

$$B_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = B_2 B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = -i \hat{Y}$$

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow |1\rangle_L.$$

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Mach-Zehnder interferometer with phase shifter

$$P_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix}$$

total scattering matrix

$$S = B_2 P_\theta B_1$$

setup 1:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i & 1 \\ 1 & i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_- & if_+ \\ if_+ & -f_- \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{where } f_\pm = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\theta} \pm 1)$$

so

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow |\psi\rangle = S_{11}|0\rangle_L + S_{21}|1\rangle_L = f_-|0\rangle_L + if_+|1\rangle_L$$

or explicitly

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow \boxed{B_1} \rightarrow \frac{i|0\rangle_L + |1\rangle_L}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow \boxed{P_\theta} \rightarrow \frac{i|0\rangle_L + e^{i\theta}|1\rangle_L}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow \boxed{B_2} \rightarrow f_-|0\rangle_L + if_+|1\rangle_L$$

thus

$$\text{prob}(0_L) = |{}_L\langle 0|\psi\rangle|^2 = |f_-|^2 = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) - \text{prob. of click in upper detector}$$

$$\text{prob}(1_L) = |{}_L\langle 1|\psi\rangle|^2 = |f_+|^2 = \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) - \text{prob. of click in lower detector}$$

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setup 2:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_+ & f_- \\ f_- & f_+ \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow |\psi\rangle = S_{11}|0\rangle_L + S_{21}|1\rangle_L = f_+|0\rangle_L + f_-|1\rangle_L$$

and

$$\text{prob}(0_L) = |{}_L\langle 0|\psi\rangle|^2 = |f_+|^2 = \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{prob}(1_L) = |{}_L\langle 1|\psi\rangle|^2 = |f_-|^2 = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

setup 3:

$$S = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} f_-, & -f_+ \\ f_+, & -f_- \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$|0\rangle_L \rightarrow f_-|0\rangle_L + f_+|1\rangle_L$$

$$\text{prob}(0_L) = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{prob}(1_L) = \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

QIP with simple linear-optical systems

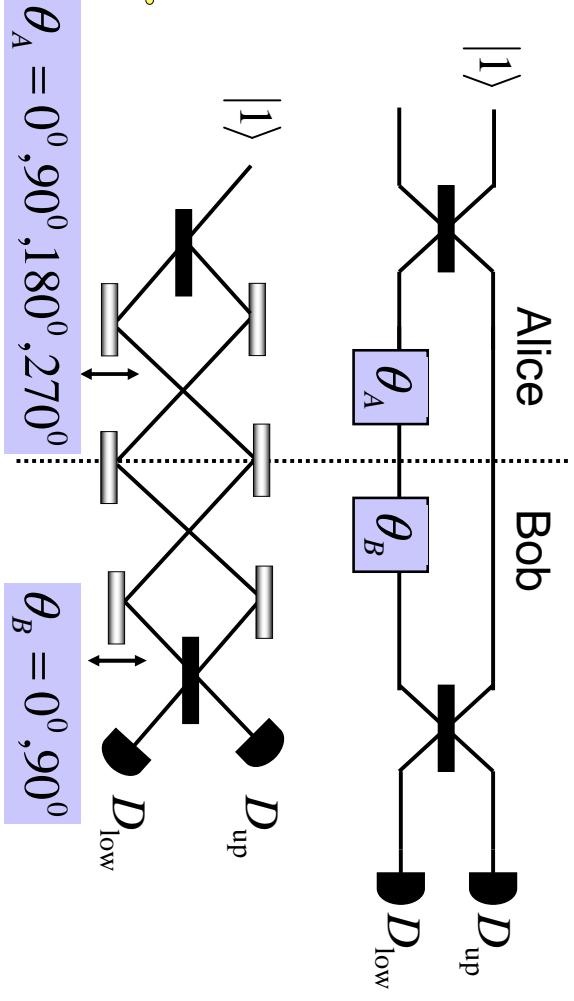
1. quantum key distribution (QKD)

based on Mach-Zehnder interferometer
using Bennett's protocol B92

2. quantum-state engineering and teleportation
of qubit and qutrit states

using quantum scissors device

B92 protocol (Bennett 1992)



$$\theta_A = 0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ$$

$$\theta_B = 0^\circ, 90^\circ$$

quantum key distribution (QKD) using B92 protocol

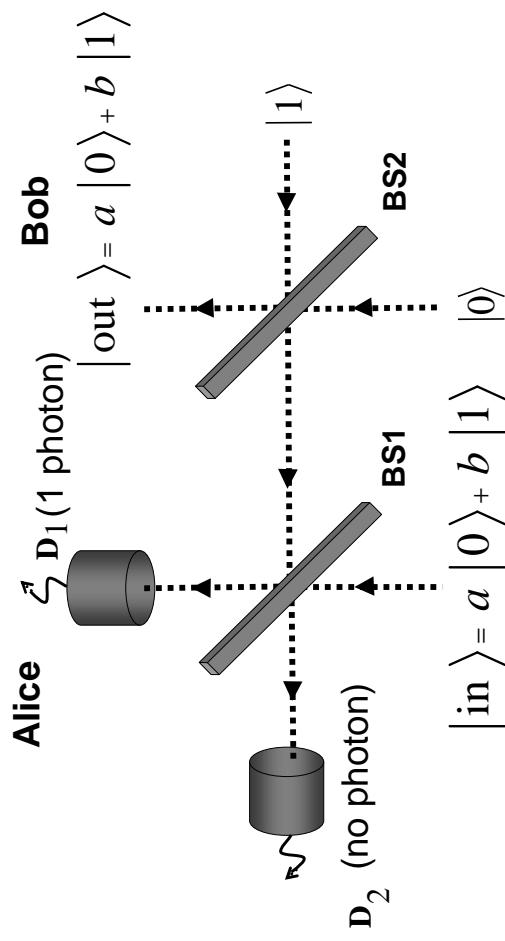
probabilities of click in upper and lower detectors

$$P_{\text{up}} = \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta_A + \theta_B}{2}\right), \quad P_{\text{low}} = \cos^2\left(\frac{\theta_A + \theta_B}{2}\right)$$

θ_A	θ_B	P_{up}	P_{low}	bit
0°	0°	0	1	1
0°	90°	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	-
90°	0°	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	-
90°	90°	1	0	0
180°	0°	1	0	0
180°	90°	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	-
270°	0°	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	-
270°	90°	0	1	1

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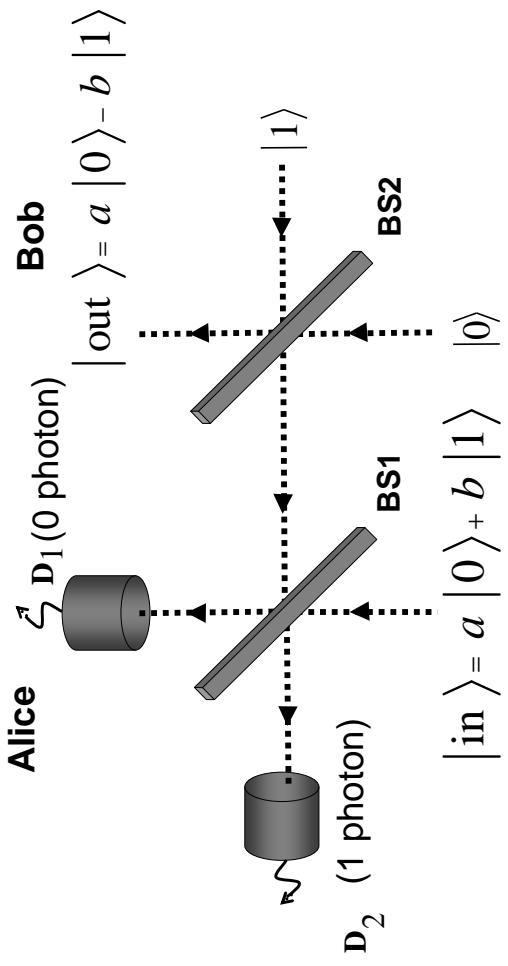
teleportation of optical qubits using quantum scissors



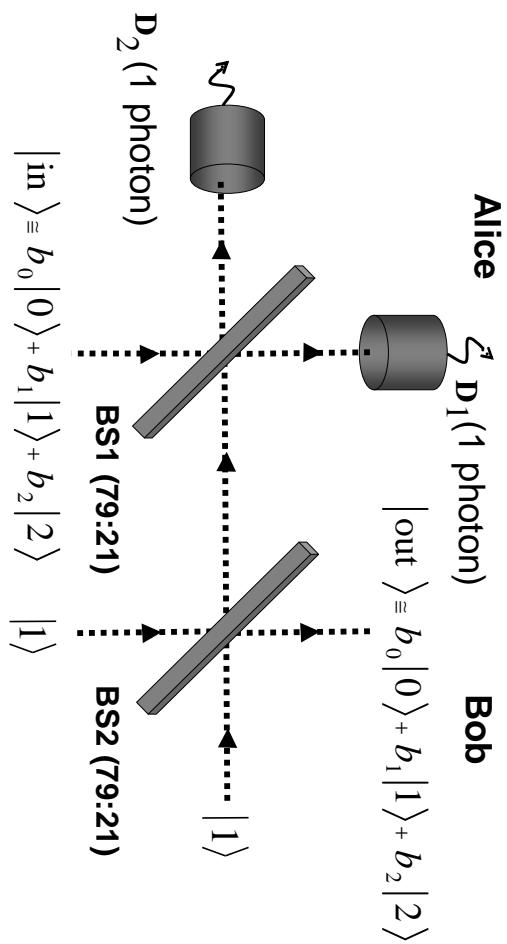
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QKD using B92 protocol

1. Alice sends photons each time randomly choosing one of 4 phase shifts (rotations): $0^\circ, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ$.
2. Bob, just before measuring each Alice's photon, randomly applies phase shift 90° or 0° .
3. Bob through a public channel informs Alice about his phase shifts without, of course, telling his measurement outcomes.
4. Alice publicly informs Bob, when their phase shifts fulfill the condition $\theta_A - \theta_B = n \cdot 180^\circ$ ($n = 0, 1$), which implies the deterministic detection of photons. Alice and Bob keep only those deterministic results.
5. Alice and Bob publicly check their results for some photons. Those photons are rejected from the key.
6. In case of full agreement of the tested photons, the secret key is formed by the remaining bits. Otherwise the protocol is repeated.



teleportation of optical qutrits



Input: coherent state

$$|\alpha\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha^n}{\sqrt{n!}} |n\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2} \left\{ |0\rangle + \alpha|1\rangle + \frac{\alpha^2}{\sqrt{2}}|2\rangle + \dots \right\}$$

Output: qubit state

$$|\Phi\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + \alpha|1\rangle}{\sqrt{1 + |\alpha|^2}}$$

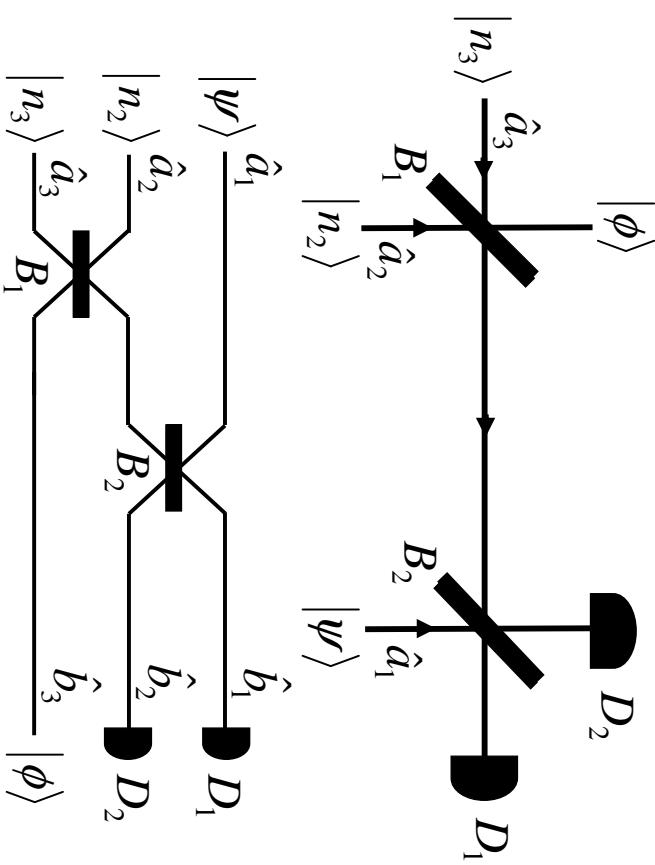
quantum scissors device

Fundamental Concepts

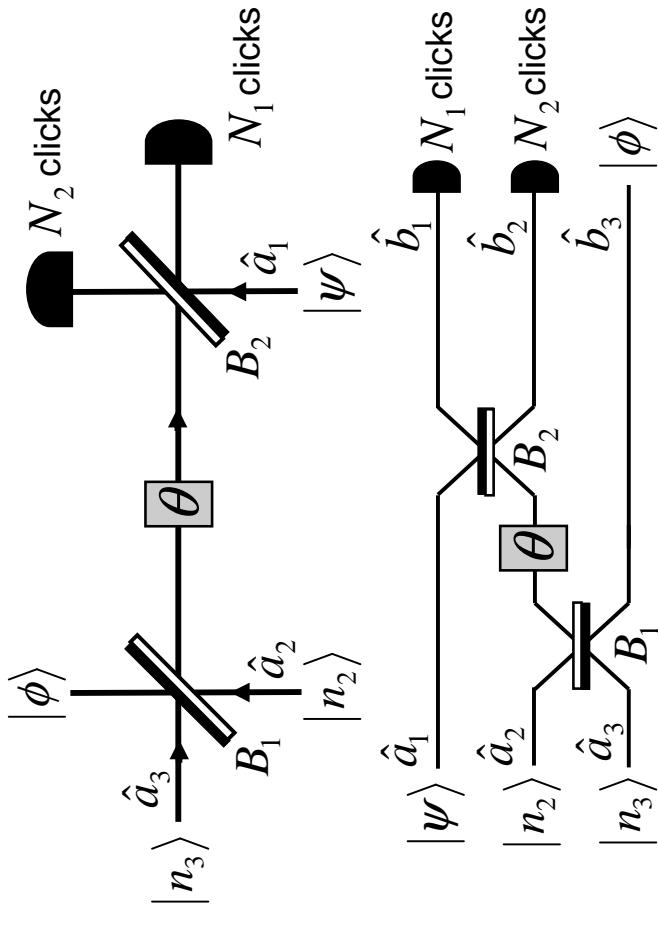
- Entanglement
- Non-locality
- Conditional measurement

Possible Applications

- Qubit generation
- Teleportation of superposition states
- Quantum state engineering
- Conversion of a classical state into a non-classical one
- Cryptography



quantum scissors



output states of the quantum scissors

input state:

$$|\psi, n_2, n_3\rangle \text{ where } |\psi\rangle \sim \gamma_0|0\rangle + \gamma_1|1\rangle$$

three-mode output state (before projection):

$$|\Phi\rangle$$

single-mode output state:

$$|\phi\rangle \equiv |\phi_{n_2 n_3}^{N_1 N_2}\rangle =_1 \langle N_1|_2 \langle N_2|\Phi\rangle$$

after projective measurements of N_1 and N_2 photons in the respective modes.

Example for $|\phi_{10}^{01}\rangle$:

- $|n10\rangle \rightarrow c|01n\rangle$ **for** $n = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} U|100\rangle &= (S_{12}\hat{a}_1^\dagger + S_{22}\hat{a}_2^\dagger + S_{32}\hat{a}_3^\dagger)|000\rangle \\ &= S_{12}|100\rangle + S_{22}|010\rangle + S_{32}|001\rangle \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\langle 010|\hat{U}|010\rangle = S_{22} = e^{i\theta} r_1 r_2$$

scattering matrix for quantum scissors

$$B_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -r_1 & t_1 \\ 0 & t_1 & r_1 \end{bmatrix}, P_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B_2 = \begin{bmatrix} r_2 & t_2 & 0 \\ t_2 & -r_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{U}|110\rangle = \sum_{k,l=1}^3 \frac{S_{k1}S_{l2}}{\sqrt{111}} \hat{a}_k^\dagger \hat{a}_l^\dagger |000\rangle = (S_{21}S_{32}\hat{a}_2^\dagger \hat{a}_3^\dagger + S_{31}S_{22}\hat{a}_3^\dagger \hat{a}_2^\dagger + \dots)|000\rangle$$

$$= (S_{21}S_{32} + S_{31}S_{22})|011\rangle + \dots$$

so

$$\langle 011|\hat{U}|110\rangle = S_{21}S_{32} + S_{31}S_{22} = t_2 t_1 + 0 \cdot S_{22} = t_1 t_2$$

thus we have

$$|\phi_{10}^{01}\rangle \sim e^{i\theta} r_1 r_2 \gamma_0|0\rangle + t_1 t_2 \gamma_1|1\rangle$$

where $x \sim y$ means that x and y are equal up a renormalization constant.

Other examples

Analogously, we can show

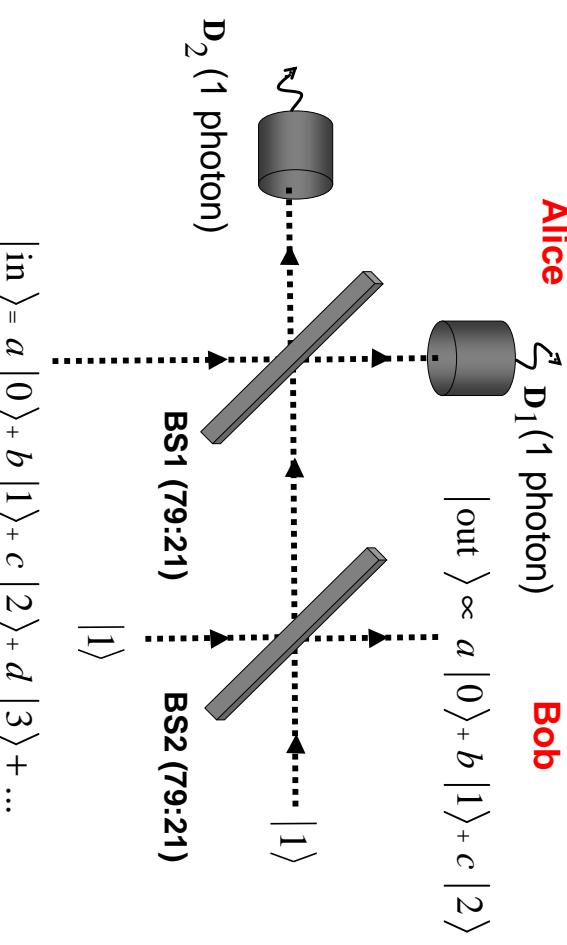
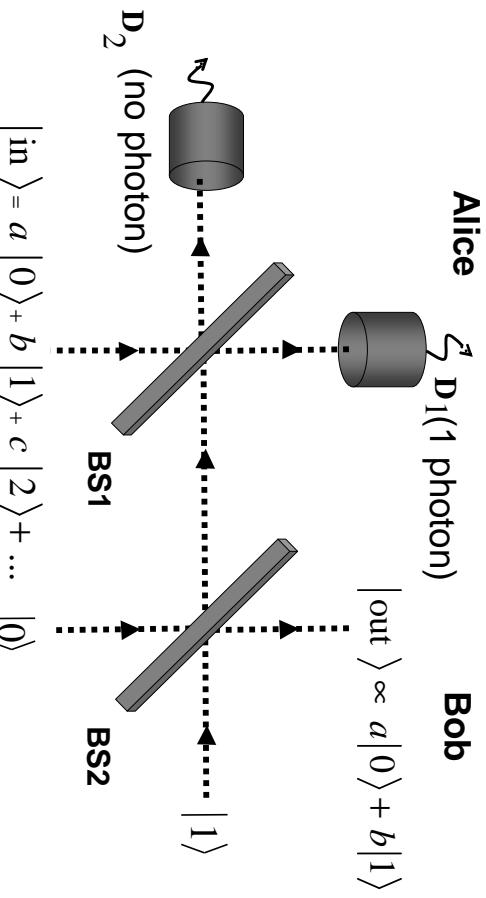
$$\begin{aligned} B_1 &:= \{\{1, 0, 0\}, \{0, -r_1, t_1\}, \{0, t_1, r_1\}\} \\ B_2 &:= \{\{r_2, t_2, 0\}, \{t_2, -r_2, 0\}, \{0, 0, 1\}\} \\ p &:= \{\{1, 0, 0\}, \{0, \text{Exp}[i * \text{theta}], 0\}, \{0, 0, 1\}\} \\ S &= B_2.P.B_1 // \text{MatrixForm} \end{aligned}$$

Mathematica:

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi_{01}^{10}\rangle &\sim e^{i\theta} t_1 t_2 \gamma_0|0\rangle + r_1 r_2 \gamma_1|1\rangle, \\ |\phi_{01}^{01}\rangle &\sim -e^{i\theta} t_1 r_2 \gamma_0|0\rangle + r_1 t_2 \gamma_1|1\rangle, \\ |\phi_{10}^{10}\rangle &\sim -e^{i\theta} r_1 t_2 \gamma_0|0\rangle + t_1 r_4 \gamma_1|1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

PPB quantum scissors

- truncation and teleportation of qubit states



206 quantum state truncation to qubit states
206 quantum state truncation to qutrit states

Note that the same solutions are for
 $|\psi\rangle \sim \gamma_0|0\rangle + \gamma_1|1\rangle + \gamma_2|2\rangle + \dots$

Why?

Since, in this case, the single-mode output state $|\phi\rangle$ is always a superposition of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ for any $|\psi\rangle$.

conditions for perfect qubit-state truncation and teleportation

$t_1 = r_2$ and $\theta = 0$ for $|\phi_{10}^{01}\rangle$ and $|\phi_{01}^{10}\rangle$
 $t_1 = t_2$ and $\theta = \pi$ for $|\phi_{01}^{01}\rangle$ and $|\phi_{10}^{10}\rangle$

optimized solutions

correspond to the highest probability of successful truncation and teleportation.

In the all 4 cases, the optimized solutions are for the 50:50 BSs:

$$t_1 = t_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

and $\theta_2 = 0$ or $= \pi$ (show this!).

optimized 4 solutions

for $t_1^2 = \frac{1}{6}(3 - \sqrt{3}) \approx 0.21$ or $t_1^2 = \frac{1}{6}(3 + \sqrt{3})/6 \approx 0.79$ and $t_2^2 = t_1^2$ if $\xi_4 = 0$ or $t_2^2 = 1 - t_1^2$ if $\xi_4 = \pi$.

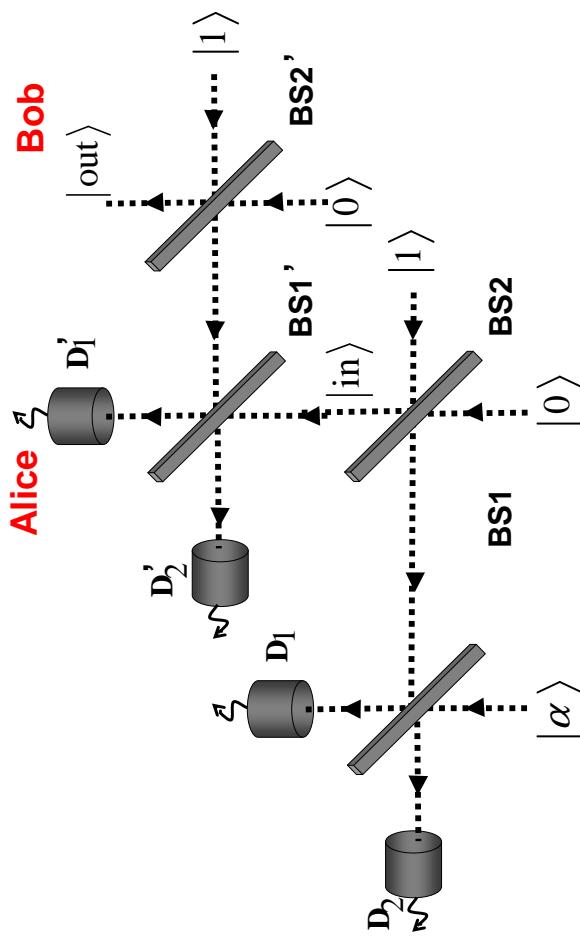
truncation and teleportation of qutrit states

generation and teleportation of qubit states

Plato's allegory

We are like slaves in a dark cave watching only shadows on a wall. The shadows are projections of the “real things”. We think the shadows are real because we do not know better.

[Πλάτωνος Πολιτεία - Plato's Republic]



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Introduction to quantum tomography

How to reconstruct density matrix of a quantum state?

Outline

1. optical-homodyne tomography of a single-mode field
2. tomography of a single qubit
3. tomography of two qubits
4. maximum-likelihood method
5. tomography of a single qudit
6. tomography of nuclear spins I=1/2
7. tomography of a nuclear spin I=3/2

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quantum tomography

this is the tomography applied to quantum objects

optical homodyne tomography

this is the quantum tomography
based on homodyne detection
for reconstruction of Wigner function of optical fields

problem

We cannot measure simultaneously q and p ,
thus we cannot measure directly the Wigner function $W(q, p)$.

phase-space in quasiprobability distributions

uncertainty principle

makes the concept of phase space in quantum mechanics problematic:
 a particle cannot simultaneously have a well defined position and momentum,
 thus one cannot **define a probability** that

a particle has a position q and a momentum p

quasiprobability distribution functions = quasiprobabilities = quasidistributions

functions which bear some resemblance to phase-space distribution functions

useful not only as calculational tools

but can also reveal the connections between classical and quantum mechanics.

- examples:**
- Wigner (Wigner-Ville) W function
 - Husimi (Husimi-Kano) Q function
 - Glauber-Sudarshan P function
 - Cahill-Glauber s -parametrized $W^{(s)}$ function

What is the Wigner function?

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$$W(q, p) = \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \langle q + \frac{x}{2} | \hat{\rho} | q - \frac{x}{2} \rangle \exp\left(\frac{i}{\hbar} px\right)$$

where $|q \pm \frac{x}{2}\rangle$ – eigenstates of position operator \hat{q}

- Wigner function can be **negative**
- **density matrix** ρ can be calculated from Wigner function.

Why is the Wigner function so important?

marginal distributions of Wigner function correspond to classical distributions

- **position distribution**

$$\text{pr}(q) \equiv \langle q | \hat{\rho} | q \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(q, p) dp$$

- **momentum distribution**

$$\text{pr}(p) \equiv \langle p | \hat{\rho} | p \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(q, p) dq$$

10 formulations of quantum mechanics:

1. matrix formalism of Heisenberg (1925)
2. wave-function formalism of Schrödinger (1926)
3. density-matrix formalism of von Neumann (1927)
4. second-quantization formalism of Dirac, Jordan and Klein (1927)
5. variational formalism of Jordan and Klein (1927)
6. **phase-space formalism of Wigner** (1932)
7. path-integral formalism of Feynman (1948)
8. pilot-wave formalism of de Broglie and Bohm (1952)
9. many-worlds interpretation (MWI) of Everett (1957)
10. action-angle quantum formalism of Hamilton and Jacobi (1983)

simple examples of Wigner function

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• coherent state $|\alpha_0\rangle$:

$$W(\alpha) = \frac{2}{\pi} \exp[-2|\alpha - \alpha_0|^2]$$

where $\alpha = q + ip$

• Fock state $|n\rangle$:

$$W(\alpha) = \frac{2}{\pi} (-1)^n L_n(4|\alpha|^2) \exp[-2|\alpha|^2]$$

where $L_n(x)$ is Laguerre polynomial

• Schrödinger cat states $|\psi_{\pm}\rangle \sim |\alpha_0\rangle \pm |-\alpha_0\rangle$:

$$W_{\pm}(\alpha = q + ip) = \frac{f_1 \pm f_0 \cos(4p\alpha_0)}{\pi[1 + \exp(-2\alpha_0^2)]}$$

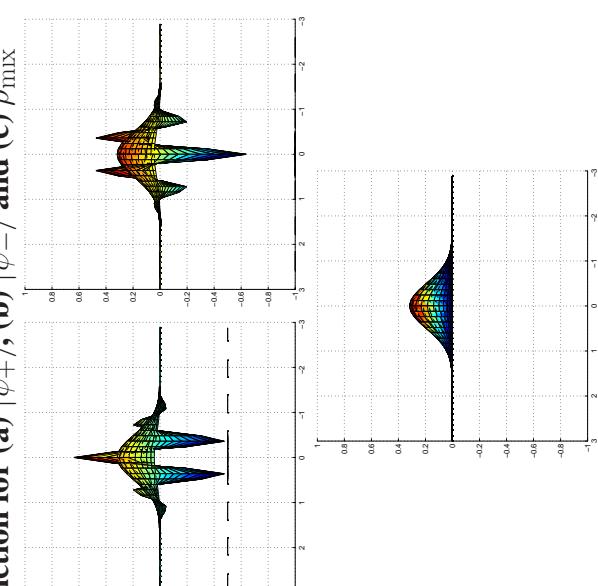
where $\alpha_0 \in \mathcal{R}$ and

$$f_1 = \exp[-2(q - \alpha_0)^2 - 2p^2] + \exp[-2(q + \alpha)^2 - 2p^2], \quad f_0 = 2 \exp[-2q^2 - 2p^2]$$

Wigner function for Fock states $|0\rangle, |1\rangle, |2\rangle$

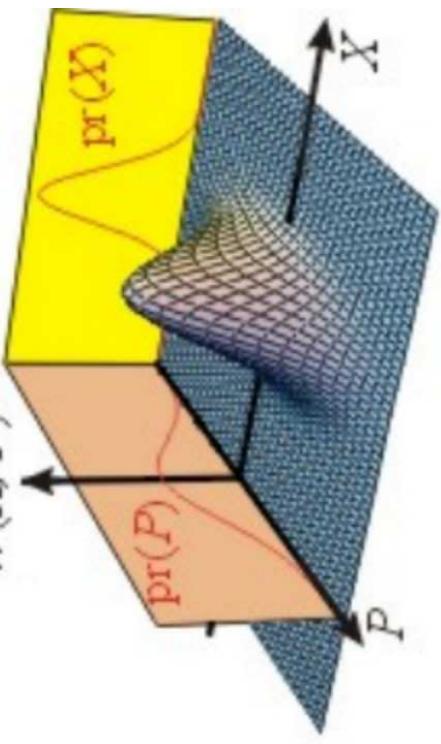


Wigner function for (a) $|\psi_+\rangle$, (b) $|\psi_-\rangle$ and (c) $\hat{\rho}_{\text{mix}}$



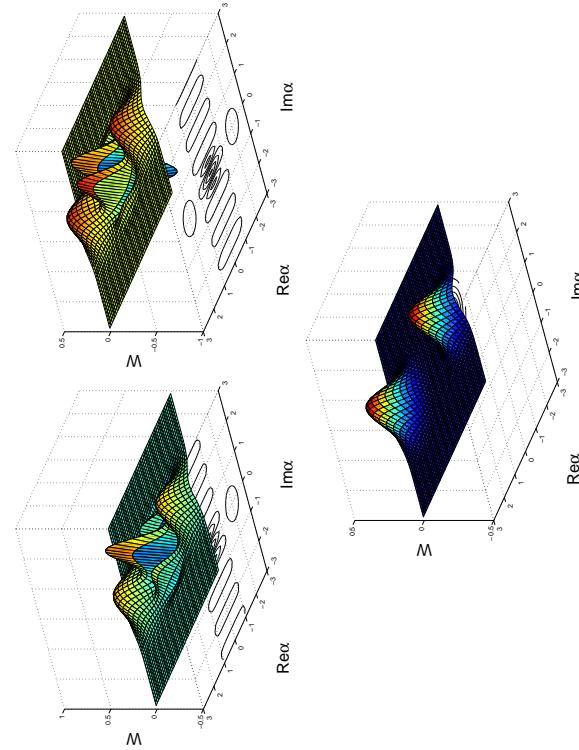
marginal distributions of Wigner function

$W(X, P)$



$$\text{pr}(x) \equiv \langle x | \hat{\rho} | x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(x, p) dp, \quad \text{pr}(p) \equiv \langle p | \hat{\rho} | p \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(x, p) dx$$

Wigner function for Schrödinger cat states (a) $|\psi_+\rangle$, (b) $|\psi_-\rangle$ and (c) mixture of coherent states $\hat{\rho}_{\text{mix}} = |\alpha_0\rangle\langle\alpha_0| + |\alpha_0\rangle\langle-\alpha_0|$



balanced homodyne detection

- we measure **difference of intensities**, which is proportional to:

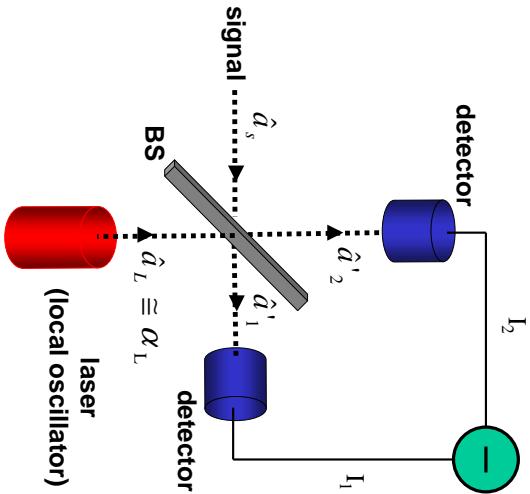
$$\begin{aligned}\hat{n}_2 - \hat{n}_1 &= \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}_S^\dagger + \alpha_L^*)(\hat{a}_S + \alpha_L) - \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}_S^\dagger - \alpha_L^*)(\hat{a}_S - \alpha_L) \\ &= \alpha_L^* \hat{a}_S + \alpha_L \hat{a}_S^\dagger \\ &= |\alpha_L| (e^{-i\theta} \hat{a}_S + e^{i\theta} \hat{a}_S^\dagger) = 2|\alpha_L| \hat{X}(\theta)\end{aligned}$$

where $\theta = \arg(\alpha_L)$ and

$$\hat{X}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{a}_S e^{-i\theta} + \hat{a}_S^\dagger e^{i\theta})$$

is the **generalized quadrature operator**

- special cases:
 - $\hat{X}(0) = \hat{q}$ – position operator
 - $\hat{X}(\frac{\pi}{2}) = \hat{p}$ – momentum operator



222 marginal distribution of Wigner function at angle θ

- **What is measured in homodyne detection?**
- intensity I_k ($k = 1, 2$) is proportional to the number of photons \hat{n}_k :

$$\begin{aligned}I_1 &\sim \hat{n}_1 = \hat{a}_1^\dagger \hat{a}_1' \\ I_2 &\sim \hat{n}_2 = \hat{a}_2^\dagger \hat{a}_2'\end{aligned}$$

- parametric approximation for laser field:

$$\langle \hat{n}_L \rangle \gg 1 \Rightarrow \hat{a}_L \approx \alpha_L$$

- **beam splitter (BS)** is 50:50 ($T = R = 1/2$), thus it is called ‘balanced’ detection.

- relations between input, \hat{a}_k , and output, \hat{a}'_k , annihilation operators:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{a}'_1 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{a}_S - \hat{a}_L) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{a}_S - \alpha_L) \\ \hat{a}'_2 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{a}_S + \hat{a}_L) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{a}_S + \alpha_L)\end{aligned}$$

224 Can we reconstruct Wigner function from its marginal distributions?

$$\text{pr}(X, \theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(q \cos \theta - p \sin \theta, q \sin \theta + p \cos \theta) dp$$

describes probability of measurement result of the quadrature

$$\hat{X}(\theta) = \hat{q} \cos \theta - \hat{p} \sin \theta$$

Remarks:

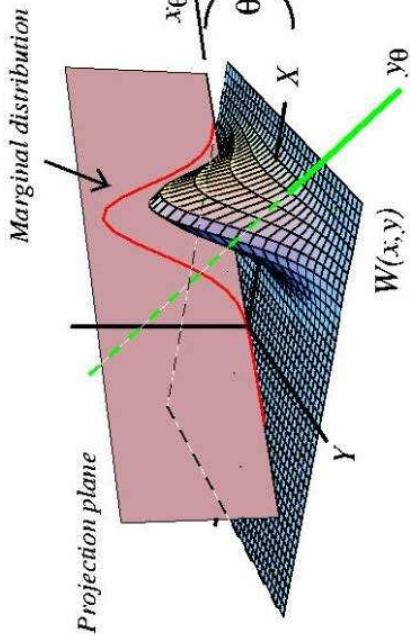
- this is so-called **Radon transformation**
 - $\text{pr}(X, \theta)$ is directly measured in homodyne detection

Can we reconstruct Wigner function from its marginal distributions?

$$W(q, p) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_0^{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{pr}(X, \theta) \exp[i\xi(q \cos \theta + p \sin \theta - X)] |\xi| dX d\theta d\xi$$

this is the **inverse Radon transformation**
[K. Vogel and H. Risken, 1989]

marginal distribution of Wigner function at angle θ



$$\text{pr}(X, \theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} W(q \cos \theta - p \sin \theta, q \sin \theta + p \cos \theta) dp$$

Note: $x \equiv q$, $y \equiv p$, $\text{pr}(X, 0) = \langle q | \hat{\rho} | q \rangle$, $\text{pr}(X, \frac{\pi}{2}) = \langle p | \hat{\rho} | p \rangle$

**one repeats measurements on many copies
i.e. identically prepared quantum objects**

number of measurements

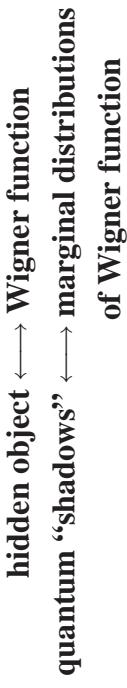
e.g., in the first experiment, Smithey et al. performed 4000 measurements at 27 angles θ , so in total **108 000 measurements**; in the second experiment they performed **160 000 measurements**.

history

1. theoretical proposal – K. Vogel and H. Risken (1989)
2. first experimental reconstruction of nonclassical state [i.e., squeezed vacuum] – D. Smithey, M. Raymer et al. (1993)
3. first experimental reconstruction of single-photon state and its superposition with vacuum (qubit state) – A. Lvovsky and J. Mlynek (2002)

Summary

1. We cannot measure simultaneously q and p , thus we cannot measure directly Wigner function.
2. But we can measure its marginal distributions $\text{pr}(X, \theta)$ at various angles θ
3. By applying the inverse Radon transformation, we can reconstruct Wigner function and thus the density matrix.



4. How to reconstruct finite-dimensional states?

In principle, the same method can be applied, but there more effective methods, which will be described in the following.

**Optical-qubit tomography (part II)
single-qubit tomography by measuring Stokes parameters**

- notation:

$$\begin{aligned} |H\rangle & - \text{horizontal polarization} \\ |V\rangle & - \text{vertical polarization} \\ |\overline{D}\rangle & = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle - |V\rangle) - \text{linear-diagonal polarization at } 45^\circ \\ |D\rangle & = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle + |V\rangle) - \text{linear-diagonal polarization at } 135^\circ \\ |R\rangle & = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle - i|V\rangle) - \text{right-circular polarization} \\ |L\rangle & = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|H\rangle + i|V\rangle) - \text{left-circular polarization} \end{aligned}$$

thus we readily have the inverse relations:

$$\begin{aligned} |H\rangle & = \frac{|R\rangle + |L\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, & |V\rangle & = i \frac{|R\rangle - |L\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, & |\overline{D}\rangle & = \frac{|D\rangle - |D\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ |R\rangle & = \frac{1+i}{2} (|\overline{D}\rangle - i|D\rangle), & |L\rangle & = e^{i\pi/4} \frac{|D\rangle - i|D\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, & |D\rangle & = e^{i\pi/4} \frac{|L\rangle - i|L\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, \\ |D\rangle & = e^{i\pi/4} \frac{|R\rangle - i|R\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, & |\overline{D}\rangle & = e^{i\pi/4} \frac{|L\rangle - i|L\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Single-qubit density matrix via Stokes parameters

moreover

$$\begin{aligned} |H\rangle\langle H| &= \frac{|R\rangle\langle L| + |L\rangle\langle R|}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(|R\rangle\langle R| + |R\rangle\langle L| + |L\rangle\langle R| + |L\rangle\langle L|\right) \\ |V\rangle\langle V| &= \frac{|R\rangle\langle L| - |L\rangle\langle R|}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(|R\rangle\langle R| - |R\rangle\langle L| - |L\rangle\langle R| + |L\rangle\langle L|\right) \\ |D\rangle\langle D| &= \frac{|R\rangle\langle L| - i|R\rangle\langle L|}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(|R\rangle\langle R| + i|R\rangle\langle L| - i|L\rangle\langle R| + |L\rangle\langle L|\right) \\ |\overline{D}\rangle\langle\overline{D}| &= \frac{|L\rangle\langle R| - i|R\rangle\langle L|}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2}\left(|L\rangle\langle L| - i|R\rangle\langle L| + i|L\rangle\langle R| + |R\rangle\langle R|\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^3 \frac{S_i}{S_0} \hat{\sigma}_i,$$

where

$$S_i = \mathcal{N}\langle\hat{\sigma}_i\rangle = \mathcal{N}\text{Tr}\{\hat{\sigma}_i\hat{\rho}\}$$

Pauli operators

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\sigma}_0 &= |R\rangle\langle R| + |L\rangle\langle L| \\ \hat{\sigma}_1 &= |R\rangle\langle L| + |L\rangle\langle R| \\ \hat{\sigma}_2 &= i(|L\rangle\langle R| - |R\rangle\langle L|) \\ \hat{\sigma}_3 &= |R\rangle\langle R| - |L\rangle\langle L| \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \langle\hat{\sigma}_3\rangle & \langle\hat{\sigma}_1\rangle - i\langle\hat{\sigma}_2\rangle \\ i\langle\hat{\sigma}_1\rangle & 1 - \langle\hat{\sigma}_3\rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

Why do we need S_0 ?

- for renormalization of the count statistics
to compensate experimental inefficiencies (e.g. of detectors)

four measurements of intensity, e.g.:

- (1) with a filter that transmits 50% of the incident radiation, regardless of its polarization:

$$n_0 = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{2} (\langle H|\hat{\rho}|H\rangle + \langle V|\hat{\rho}|V\rangle) = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{2} (\langle R|\hat{\rho}|R\rangle + \langle L|\hat{\rho}|L\rangle)$$

- (2) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|H\rangle$:

$$n_1 = \mathcal{N}\langle H|\hat{\rho}|H\rangle$$

- (3) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|\overline{D}\rangle$:

$$n_2 = \mathcal{N}\langle\overline{D}|\hat{\rho}|\overline{D}\rangle$$

- (4) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|R\rangle$:

$$n_3 = \mathcal{N}\langle R|\hat{\rho}|R\rangle$$

Stokes parameters via photon counts

$$\begin{aligned} S_0 &\equiv 2n_0 \\ S_1 &\equiv 2(n_1 - n_0) \\ S_2 &\equiv 2(n_2 - n_0) \\ S_3 &\equiv 2(n_3 - n_0) \end{aligned}$$

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single polarization-qubit measurement operators

- there are infinitely many sets of such projectors
the common ones are e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mu}'_0 &= |H\rangle\langle H| + |V\rangle\langle V| \\ &= |L\rangle\langle L| + |R\rangle\langle R| \\ \hat{\mu}'_1 &= |H\rangle\langle H| \\ &\sim |R\rangle\langle R| + |R\rangle\langle L| + |L\rangle\langle R| + |L\rangle\langle L| \\ \hat{\mu}'_2 &= |\overline{D}\rangle\langle\overline{D}| \\ &\sim |L\rangle\langle L| - i|R\rangle\langle L| + i|L\rangle\langle R| + |R\rangle\langle R| \\ &= |H\rangle\langle H| - |H\rangle\langle V| - |V\rangle\langle H| + |V\rangle\langle V| \\ \hat{\mu}'_3 &= |R\rangle\langle R| \\ &\sim |H\rangle\langle H| - i|H\rangle\langle V| + i|V\rangle\langle H| + |V\rangle\langle V| \end{aligned}$$

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four measurements of intensity, e.g.:

- (1) with a filter that transmits 50% of the incident radiation, regardless of its polarization:

$$n_0 = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{2} (\langle H|\hat{\rho}|H\rangle + \langle V|\hat{\rho}|V\rangle) = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{2} (\langle R|\hat{\rho}|R\rangle + \langle L|\hat{\rho}|L\rangle)$$

- (2) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|H\rangle$:

$$n_1 = \mathcal{N}\langle H|\hat{\rho}|H\rangle$$

- (3) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|\overline{D}\rangle$:

$$n_2 = \mathcal{N}\langle\overline{D}|\hat{\rho}|\overline{D}\rangle$$

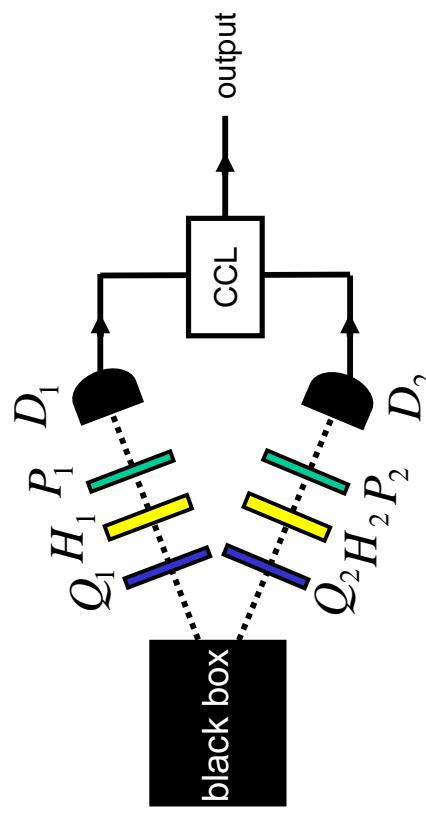
- (4) with a polarizer that transmits only photons in state $|R\rangle$:

$$n_3 = \mathcal{N}\langle R|\hat{\rho}|R\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{or } \hat{\mu}''_0 &= \hat{\mu}'_0, & \hat{\mu}''_1 &= \hat{\mu}'_1, & \hat{\mu}''_2 &= |D\rangle\langle D|, & \hat{\mu}''_3 &= \hat{\mu}'_3 \\ S_0 &\equiv 2n_0 & S_1 &\equiv 2(n_1 - n_0) & S_2 &\equiv 2(n_2 - n_0) & S_3 &\equiv 2(n_3 - n_0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mu}_0 &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_0 = \hat{\mu}'_0 \\ \hat{\mu}_1 &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_1 = \hat{\mu}'_1 - \hat{\mu}'_0 \\ \hat{\mu}_2 &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_2 = \hat{\mu}'_2 - \hat{\mu}'_0 \\ \hat{\mu}_3 &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_3 = \hat{\mu}'_3 - \hat{\mu}'_0\end{aligned}$$

or



assuming loss-free detection (perfect detectors and wave plates)

$$\mathcal{N} = 1 \Rightarrow \hat{\mu}_k = \hat{\sigma}_k \quad (k = 0, \dots, 3)$$

two-qubit measurement operators

standard 16 projectors:

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\mu}_{00} &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_0 \otimes \hat{\sigma}_0, \\ \hat{\mu}_{01} &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_0 \otimes \hat{\sigma}_1, \\ &\dots \\ \hat{\mu}_{33} &= \mathcal{N}\hat{\sigma}_3 \otimes \hat{\sigma}_3\end{aligned}$$

wave plates - a reminder

half-wave plate (HWP)

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(\beta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\beta) & \sin(2\beta) \\ \sin(2\beta) & -\cos(2\beta) \end{bmatrix}$$

special cases of HWPs

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(0) &= \hat{\sigma}_Z \\ \hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(22.5^\circ) &= \hat{H} \\ \hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(45^\circ) &= \hat{\sigma}_X\end{aligned}$$

quarter-wave plate (QWP)

$$\hat{S}_{\lambda/4}(\beta) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(2\beta) - i & \sin(2\beta) \\ \sin(2\beta) & -\cos(2\beta) - i \end{bmatrix}$$

slightly modified defs.

$$\hat{S}'_{\lambda/2}(\beta) = \hat{S}_{\lambda/2}(-\beta), \quad \hat{S}'_{\lambda/4}(\beta) = -\hat{S}_{\lambda/4}(-\beta)$$

measurement operators required for tomography

1 qubit	$\hat{\mu}_0$	$\hat{\mu}_1$	$\hat{\mu}_2$	$\hat{\mu}_3$
2 qubits	$\hat{\mu}_0$	$\hat{\mu}_1$	$\hat{\mu}_2$	$\hat{\mu}_3$
3 qubits	$\hat{\mu}_0$	$\hat{\mu}_1$	$\hat{\mu}_2$	$\hat{\mu}_3$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots

1 qubit – 4 measurement operators: $\hat{\mu}_i$ 2 qubits – 16 measurement operators: $\hat{\mu}_i \otimes \hat{\mu}_j$ 3 qubits – 64 measurement operators: $\hat{\mu}_i \otimes \hat{\mu}_j \otimes \hat{\mu}_k$ \dots n qubits – 4^n measurement operators: $\hat{\mu}_{i_1} \otimes \hat{\mu}_{i_2} \otimes \dots \otimes \hat{\mu}_{i_n}$

tomography of polarization state of two photons

No.	Mode 1	Mode 2	HWP 1	QWP 1	HWP 2	QWP 2
1	H>	H>	45°	0	45°	0
2	H>	V>	45°	0	0	0
3	V>	V>	0	0	0	0
4	V>	H>	0	0	45°	0
5	R>	H>	22.5°	0	45°	0
6	R>	V>	22.5°	0	0	0
7	D>	V>	22.5°	45°	0	0
8	D>	H>	22.5°	45°	0	0
9	D>	R>	22.5°	45°	22.5°	0
10	D>	D>	22.5°	45°	22.5°	45°
11	R>	D>	22.5°	0	22.5°	45°
12	H>	D>	45°	0	22.5°	45°
13	V>	D>	0	0	22.5°	45°
14	V>	L>	0	0	22.5°	90°
15	H>	L>	45°	0	22.5°	90°
16	R>	L>	22.5°	0	22.5°	90°

$$|\bar{D}\rangle = \frac{|H\rangle - |V\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad |L\rangle = \frac{|H\rangle + i|V\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad |R\rangle = \frac{|H\rangle - i|V\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Mathematica program for the tomography scheme

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- def. of Kronecker product (Kron) and Hermitian conjugate (hc)
- ```
<< LinearAlgebra`MatrixManipulation`

f[x_, y_] := x*y;
Kron[matrix1_, matrix2_] := BlockMatrix[Outer[f, matrix1, matrix2]]
hc[x_] := Transpose[Conjugate[x]]
```

- rotated  $\hat{\rho}^{(n)} = \hat{R}^{(n)} \hat{\rho} (\hat{R}^{(n)})^\dagger$  for the  $n$ th measurement

```
RhoRotated[n_] := R[n].rho . hc[R[n]]
```

- examples

**RhoRotated[1] // MF**

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho_{3,3} & -i\rho_{3,2} & -i\rho_{3,1} & -\rho_{3,0} \\ i\rho_{2,3} & \rho_{2,2} & \rho_{2,1} & -i\rho_{2,0} \\ i\rho_{1,3} & \rho_{1,2} & \rho_{1,1} & -i\rho_{1,0} \\ -\rho_{0,3} & i\rho_{0,2} & i\rho_{0,1} & \rho_{0,0} \end{pmatrix}$$

**RhoRotated[2] // MF**

$$\begin{pmatrix} \rho_{2,2} & -i\rho_{2,3} & -i\rho_{2,0} & -\rho_{2,1} \\ i\rho_{3,2} & \rho_{3,3} & \rho_{3,0} & -i\rho_{3,1} \\ i\rho_{0,2} & \rho_{0,3} & \rho_{0,0} & -i\rho_{0,1} \\ -\rho_{1,2} & i\rho_{1,3} & i\rho_{1,0} & \rho_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}$$

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- rotation matrix  $4 \times 4$  of 2 beams by 2 HWP and 2 QWP

```
rotation[h1_, q1_, h2_, q2_] :=
Kron[HWP[h1 Degree], QWP[q1 Degree], HWP[h2 Degree].QWP[q2 Degree]]
```

- our sequence of rotations

```
R[1] := rotation[45, 0, 45, 0];
R[2] := rotation[45, 0, 0, 0];
R[3] := rotation[0, 0, 0, 0];
R[4] := rotation[0, 0, 45, 0];
R[5] := rotation[45/2, 0, 45, 0];
R[6] := rotation[45/2, 0, 0, 0];
R[7] := rotation[45/2, 45, 0, 0];
R[8] := rotation[45/2, 45, 45, 0];
R[9] := rotation[45/2, 45, 45/2, 0];
R[10] := rotation[45/2, 45, 45/2, 45];
R[11] := rotation[45/2, 0, 45/2, 45];
R[12] := rotation[45, 0, 45/2, 45];
R[13] := rotation[0, 0, 45/2, 45];
R[14] := rotation[0, 0, 45/2, 90];
R[15] := rotation[45, 0, 45/2, 90];
R[16] := rotation[45/2, 0, 45/2, 90]
```

### equivalent approach using tomographic states

```

RhoRotated[5] // FS // RF

$$\begin{aligned}
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} - \rho_{3,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{1,2} - \rho_{3,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} - \rho_{2,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,3} - \rho_{2,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{1,2} - \rho_{2,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,3} - \rho_{1,2}) * \rho_{2,1}) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} + \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{2,1})) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{1,2} + \rho_{2,1}) * \rho_{2,1}) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} + \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{3,1})) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,3} + \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{3,1})) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} + \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{2,1})) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{1,2} + \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{3,1})) \\
& \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,3} + \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{3,1})) - \frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,1} * \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,3} + \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{3,1}))
\end{aligned}$$


```

measured probabilities  $P_n = \langle VV | \hat{\rho}^{(n)} | VV \rangle = \rho_{33}^{(n)}$  where  $|V\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

so

```

ketV := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix};
ketVV := KroneckerProduct[ketV, ketV];
braVV := hc [ketVV];
P[n_] := braVV.RhoRotated[n].ketVV // FS
P[1]
{{{\rho_{0,0}}}}
P[2]
{{{\rho_{1,1}}}}
P[5]
{{{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{0,2} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,2})}}}

```

```

ketH := \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; ketV := \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix};

ketD := \frac{ketH + i ketV}{\sqrt{2}}; ketR := \frac{ketH - i ketV}{\sqrt{2}};

ketL := \frac{ketH + i ketV}{\sqrt{2}}; ketDbar := \frac{ketH - i ketV}{\sqrt{2}};

braH = hc [ketH]; braV = hc [ketV];
braD = hc [ketD]; braDbar = hc [ketDbar];
braR = hc [ketR]; braL = hc [ketL];

```

where  $|H\rangle = \text{kethH}$ ,  $\langle H| = \text{braH}$ , etc.

### our choice of tomographic states

= (projection) measurement states = projectors

```

|\psi_1\rangle = |HH\rangle, |\psi_2\rangle = |HV\rangle, ..., |\psi_{16}\rangle = |RL\rangle

psi[1] := KroneckerProduct[ketH, ketH];
psi[2] := KroneckerProduct[ketH, ketV];
psi[3] := KroneckerProduct[ketV, ketV];
psi[4] := KroneckerProduct[ketV, ketH];
psi[5] := KroneckerProduct[ketR, ketH];
psi[6] := KroneckerProduct[ketR, ketV];
psi[7] := KroneckerProduct[ketDbar, ketV];
psi[8] := KroneckerProduct[ketDbar, ketH];
psi[9] := KroneckerProduct[ketDbar, ketR];
psi[10] := KroneckerProduct[ketDbar, ketDbar];
psi[11] := KroneckerProduct[ketR, ketDbar];
psi[12] := KroneckerProduct[ketDbar, ketL];
psi[13] := KroneckerProduct[ketV, ketDbar];
psi[14] := KroneckerProduct[ketV, ketL];
psi[15] := KroneckerProduct[ketH, ketL];
psi[16] := KroneckerProduct[ketR, ketL];

```

```

all1 = Do[Print["P[" n, "]", " = ", P[n]], {n, 1, 16}]
P[1] - {{\rho_{0,0}}}
P[2] - {{\rho_{1,1}}}
P[3] - {{\rho_{3,3}}}
P[4] - {{\rho_{2,2}}}
P[5] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{0,2} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,2})}}
P[6] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{1,1} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,3} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{3,1} + \rho_{3,3})}}
P[7] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{1,1} - \rho_{1,3} - \rho_{3,1} + \rho_{3,3})}}
P[8] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} - \rho_{0,2} - \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,2})}}
P[9] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{0,2} + \rho_{0,2} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,2} + \rho_{2,0} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{2,2} - \rho_{2,1} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,1} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{2,3} + \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{2,3} - \rho_{1,2} - \rho_{1,3} + \rho_{3,2} + \rho_{3,3})}}
P[10] - {{\frac{1}{4} (\rho_{0,0} - \rho_{0,1} - \rho_{0,3} + \rho_{0,2} + \rho_{0,3} - \rho_{1,0} + \rho_{1,1} + \rho_{1,2} - \rho_{1,3} - \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{2,3} + \rho_{2,0} - \rho_{1,1} - \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{3,2} + \rho_{3,3})}}
P[11] - {{\frac{1}{4} (\rho_{0,0} - \rho_{0,1} - \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,2} - \rho_{0,3} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,0} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,1} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{1,3} - \rho_{2,0} + \rho_{2,1} + \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,2} - \rho_{2,3} - \rho_{2,1} - \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{1,3})))}}
P[12] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} - \rho_{0,1} - \rho_{1,0} + \rho_{1,1})}}
P[13] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{2,2} - \rho_{2,3} - \rho_{1,2} + \rho_{1,3})}}
P[14] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{2,2} + \mathbf{i} (\rho_{2,3} - \rho_{3,2}) + \rho_{3,3})}}
P[15] - {{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_{0,0} + \mathbf{i} (\rho_{0,1} - \rho_{1,0}) + \rho_{1,1})}}
P[16] - {{\frac{1}{4} (\rho_{0,0} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{0,1} - \mathbf{i} \rho_{0,2} + \rho_{0,3} + \mathbf{i} \rho_{1,0} + \rho_{1,1} + \rho_{2,0} - \rho_{2,1} + \rho_{2,3} + \rho_{1,0} + \mathbf{i} (\rho_{1,1} - \rho_{1,2}))}}

```

## projection measurements

enable determination of the probabilities

$$P(n) = p(n)$$

both methods give the same probabilities

$p_1 = \langle HH|\hat{\rho}|HH\rangle, p_2 = \langle HV|\hat{\rho}|HV\rangle$ , etc.:

```

p[1] := Kron[brah, braH] . rho.Kron[ketH, ketH];
p[2] := Kron[brah, braV] . rho.Kron[ketH, ketV];
p[3] := Kron[braV, braV] . rho.Kron[ketV, ketV];
p[4] := Kron[braV, braH] . rho.Kron[ketV, ketH];
p[5] := Kron[braR, braH] . rho.Kron[ketR, ketH];
p[6] := Kron[braR, braV] . rho.Kron[ketR, ketV];
p[7] := Kron[braDbar, braV] . rho.Kron[ketDbar, ketV];
p[8] := Kron[braDbar, braH] . rho.Kron[ketDbar, ketH];
p[9] := Kron[braDbar, braR] . rho.Kron[ketDbar, ketR];
p[10] := Kron[braDbar, braDbar].rho.Kron[ketDbar, ketDbar];
p[11] := Kron[braR, braDbar] . rho.Kron[ketR, ketDbar];
p[12] := Kron[braH, braDbar] . rho.Kron[ketH, ketDbar];
p[13] := Kron[braV, braDbar] . rho.Kron[ketV, ketDbar];
p[14] := Kron[braV, braL] . rho.Kron[ketV, ketL];
p[15] := Kron[braH, braL] . rho.Kron[ketH, ketL];
p[16] := Kron[braR, braL] . rho.Kron[ketR, ketL];

all2 := Do[Print[n, " -> ", p[n] // FS], {n, 1, 16}]

```

## projection measurements

enable determination of the probabilities

$p_1 = \langle \psi_1 | \hat{\rho} | \psi_1 \rangle = \langle HH | \hat{\rho} | HH \rangle, p_2 = \langle \psi_2 | \hat{\rho} | \psi_2 \rangle = \langle HV | \hat{\rho} | HV \rangle$ , etc.:

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## reconstruction analysis

### convert 4x4 matrix into 16-dim column vector

represent operators of Hilbert space as superoperators in Liouville space

possible methods:

- method 1:

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \rho_3 & \rho_4 \\ \rho_5 & \rho_6 & \rho_7 & \rho_8 \\ \rho_9 & \rho_{10} & \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} \\ \rho_{13} & \rho_{14} & \rho_{15} & \rho_{16} \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 \\ \vdots \\ \rho_{16} \end{bmatrix} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{00} \\ \rho_{01} \\ \vdots \\ \rho_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- another labelling:

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 + ix_{11} & x_3 + ix_{12} & x_4 + ix_{13} \\ x_2 - ix_{11} & x_5 & x_6 + ix_{14} & x_7 + ix_{15} \\ x_3 - ix_{12} & x_6 - ix_{14} & x_8 & x_9 + ix_{16} \\ x_4 - ix_{13} & x_7 - ix_{15} & x_9 - ix_{16} & x_{10} \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_{16} \end{bmatrix}$$

```

p[1] := hc[psi[11]] . rho.psi[1];
p[2] := hc[psi[21]] . rho.psi[2];
p[3] := hc[psi[31]] . rho.psi[3];
p[4] := hc[psi[41]] . rho.psi[4];
p[5] := hc[psi[51]] . rho.psi[5];
p[6] := hc[psi[61]] . rho.psi[6];
p[7] := hc[psi[71]] . rho.psi[7];
p[8] := hc[psi[81]] . rho.psi[8];
p[9] := hc[psi[91]] . rho.psi[9];
p[10] := hc[psi[101]].rho.psi[10];
p[11] := hc[psi[111]].rho.psi[11];
p[12] := hc[psi[121]].rho.psi[12];
p[13] := hc[psi[131]].rho.psi[13];
p[14] := hc[psi[141]].rho.psi[14];
p[15] := hc[psi[151]].rho.psi[15];
p[16] := hc[psi[161]].rho.psi[16];

all2 := Do[Print[n, " -> ", p[n] // FS], {n, 1, 16}]

```

```

test = Do[Print["P[", n, "]", " -> ", P[n] - p[n] // FS], {n, 1, 16}]
P[1] -> P[1] -{(0,0)}
P[2] -> P[2] -{(0,0)}
P[3] -> P[3] -{(0,0)}
P[4] -> P[4] -{(0,0)}
P[5] -> P[5] -{(0,0)}
P[6] -> P[6] -{(0,0)}
P[7] -> P[7] -{(0,0)}
P[8] -> P[8] -{(0,0)}
P[9] -> P[9] -{(0,0)}
P[10] -> P[10] -{(0,0)}
P[11] -> P[11] -{(0,0)}
P[12] -> P[12] -{(0,0)}
P[13] -> P[13] -{(0,0)}
P[14] -> P[14] -{(0,0)}
P[15] -> P[15] -{(0,0)}
P[16] -> P[16] -{(0,0)}

```

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enable determination of the probabilities

$p_1 = \langle \psi_1 | \hat{\rho} | \psi_1 \rangle = \langle HH | \hat{\rho} | HH \rangle, p_2 = \langle \psi_2 | \hat{\rho} | \psi_2 \rangle = \langle HV | \hat{\rho} | HV \rangle$ , etc.:

solution of the set of equations

exists if  $A$  is non-singular and it is simply given by

$x = A^{-1}P$  where  $A^{-1}$  is equal to

```
In[8]:= all1 = Do[Print["P\"", n, "]", "=", P[n][[1, 1]]], {n, 1, 16}]
```

set of equations  $P = Ax$

卷之三

$$\text{here } \mathbf{I} = [I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{16}], \mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{16}], F_{\mathbf{A}} = [a_{m,n}]_{16 \times 16}$$

卷之三

order to do this, we must first understand what it means for a system to be in equilibrium.

where  $n_\nu = \mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \rho | \psi_\nu \rangle$  so

```
A := Table[a[n, m] [[1, 1]], {n, 1, 16}, {m, 1, 16}]
```

```
A := Table[a[n, m] [[1, 1]], {n, 1, 16}, {m, 1, 16}]
```

$$\mathcal{N} = \langle \Lambda V | \Lambda V \rangle^{\rho} + \langle H V | H V \rangle^{\rho} + \langle V H | V H \rangle^{\rho} + \langle H H | H H \rangle^{\rho}$$

```

Nexp := Transpose[{{34749, 324, 35805, 44, 16324, 17521, 13441,
16901, 17932, 20228, 15152, 17235, 13171, 17170, 16722, 335861}}]
Norm = Sum[Nexp[[i, 1, 4]] [[1]]]
Pexp = 1. Norm / Norm
Pexp // N[]

```

|            |
|------------|
| 0.447213   |
| 0.00454278 |
| 0.502019   |
| 0.00422559 |
| 0.228877   |
| 0.245664   |
| 0.188455   |
| 0.1236568  |
| 0.251423   |
| 0.4439062  |
| 0.212165   |
| 0.241593   |
| 0.184677   |
| 0.2401739  |
| 0.214453   |
| 0.4709057  |

## reconstructed $\hat{\rho}$ by linear tomography

### exemplary generators of the Lie algebra $SU(2) \otimes SU(2)$

final solution for  $\mathbf{x}$  assuming the analyzed experimental data:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{P}_{\text{exp}}$$

```

x = Flatten[InvA.Pexp]
{0.447213, 0.0018524, 0.00975155, 0.519209, 0.00454278, 0.0277305, 0.0648257,
 0.08622529, 0.0694526, 0.52019, 0.01142, -0.0178416, -0.0380247, 0.0145958, -0.00762037, 0.013383}

GenerateGamma = Do[\mathbf{y}[4m+n] = 1/2 KroneckerProduct[\mathbf{\sigma}_m, \mathbf{\sigma}_n], {m, 0, 3}, {n, 0, 3}]

y[16] := y[0]
y[1] // Simplify // MF
y[16] // Simplify // MF
y[16] = 0
y[1] = 0
y[2] = 0
y[3] = 0
y[4] = 0
y[5] = 0
y[6] = 0
y[7] = 0
y[8] = 0
y[9] = 0
y[10] = 0
y[11] = 0
y[12] = 0
y[13] = 0
y[14] = 0
y[15] = 0
y[16] = 0

rhoexp :=

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{[1]} & x_2 + ix_{11} & x_3 + ix_{12} & x_4 + ix_{13} \\ x_2 - ix_{11} & x_5 & x_6 + ix_{14} & x_7 + ix_{15} \\ \vdots & x_3 - ix_{12} & x_6 - ix_{14} & x_8 & x_9 + ix_{16} \\ x_4 - ix_{13} & x_7 - ix_{15} & x_9 - ix_{16} & x_{10} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -\frac{i}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{i}{2} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

rhoexp // MF
rhoexp =

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.447213 & 0.0018524 + 0.01142 \mathbf{i} & 0.00975155 - 0.0178416 \mathbf{i} & 0.519209 - 0.0380247 \mathbf{i} \\ 0.0018524 - 0.01142 \mathbf{i} & 0.00454278 & 0.0277305 + 0.0145958 \mathbf{i} & 0.0648257 - 0.00762037 \mathbf{i} \\ 0.00975155 + 0.0178416 \mathbf{i} & 0.0277305 - 0.0145958 \mathbf{i} & 0.00454278 & 0.013383 \mathbf{i} \\ 0.519209 + 0.0380247 \mathbf{i} & 0.0648257 + 0.00762037 \mathbf{i} & 0.00454278 - 0.013383 \mathbf{i} & 0.52019 \end{bmatrix}$$


```

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- method 2:  $\hat{\rho} \mapsto [r_{\nu}]_{16 \times 1}$

find a set of 16 linearly independent  $4 \times 4$  matrices  $\{\hat{\gamma}_{\nu}\}$  satisfying:

$$\text{Tr} \{ \hat{\gamma}_{\nu} \cdot \hat{\gamma}_{\mu} \} = \delta_{\nu, \mu}$$

$$\forall \hat{\rho} \quad \hat{\rho} = \sum_{\nu=1}^{16} \hat{\gamma}_{\nu} \text{Tr} \{ \hat{\gamma}_{\nu} \cdot \hat{\rho} \} \equiv \sum_{\nu=1}^{16} \hat{\gamma}_{\nu} r_{\nu},$$

are **generalized Pauli operators** or their products chosen as, e.g., **generators of the Lie algebra  $SU(4)$  or just  $SU(2) \otimes SU(2)$ .**

$$\hat{\gamma}_{4mn+n} = \frac{1}{2} \hat{\sigma}_m \otimes \hat{\sigma}_n, \quad (m, n = 0, \dots, 3)$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_n$  are the standard Pauli operators.

for convention we denote  $\hat{\gamma}_{16} = \hat{\rho}_0$

$$\hat{\gamma}_9 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{10} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{11} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & i \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -i & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{12} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$

```

sigma0 = {{1, 0}, {0, 1}}; sigma1 = {{0, 1}, {1, 0}}; sigma2 = {{0, -I}, {I, 0}}; sigma3 = {{1, 0}, {0, -1}};
sigma4 = {{0, 1}, {1, 0}}; sigma5 = {{0, I}, {-I, 0}}; sigma6 = {{0, 0}, {0, 1}}; sigma7 = {{0, 0}, {0, -1}};
sigma8 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma9 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma10 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma11 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma12 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma13 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma14 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma15 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}}; sigma16 = {{0, 0}, {0, 0}};

GenerateGamma = Do[\mathbf{y}[4m+n] = 1/2 KroneckerProduct[\mathbf{\sigma}_m, \mathbf{\sigma}_n], {m, 0, 3}, {n, 0, 3}]

y[16] := y[0]
y[1] // Simplify // MF
y[16] // Simplify // MF
y[16] = 0
y[1] = 0
y[2] = 0
y[3] = 0
y[4] = 0
y[5] = 0
y[6] = 0
y[7] = 0
y[8] = 0
y[9] = 0
y[10] = 0
y[11] = 0
y[12] = 0
y[13] = 0
y[14] = 0
y[15] = 0
y[16] = 0

rhoexp :=

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_2 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_3 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_5 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & i \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_6 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & -i & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_7 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_8 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\hat{\gamma}_9 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{10} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{11} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\gamma}_{12} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix},$$


```

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## reconstruction analysis

projection measurement

$$t_\nu = |\psi_\nu\rangle\langle\psi_\nu|$$

average number of coincidence counts

$$n_\nu = \mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho} | \psi_\nu \rangle$$

reconstructed  $\rho$

$$\hat{\rho} = (\mathcal{N})^{-1} \sum_{\nu=1}^{16} \hat{M}_\nu n_\nu$$

where

$$\hat{M}_\nu = \sum_{\mu=1}^{16} (B^{-1})_{\nu,\mu} \hat{\gamma}_\mu.$$

$$B = [B_{\nu,\mu}]_{16 \times 16} \quad \text{with} \quad B_{\nu,\mu} = \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\gamma}_\mu | \psi_\nu \rangle$$

non-singularity of  $B \leftrightarrow$  sensitivity of method

$$\mathbf{B} = [B_{m,n}]_{16 \times 16} \quad \text{where} \quad B_{m,n} = \langle \psi_m | \hat{\gamma}_n | \psi_n \rangle$$

$\text{psd}[\mathbf{m}] := \text{hc}[\text{psd}[\mathbf{m}]] \cdot \mathbf{x}[\mathbf{n}] \cdot \text{psd}[\mathbf{m}]$

$M_\nu = \sum_{\mu=1}^6 B_{\nu\mu}^{-1} \hat{\gamma}_\mu$  for our set of tomographic states

```

M[1] := sum [i in {m,n}] x[m], {m,1,16}]
M[1] / MF

```

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 \overbrace{\phantom{000}}^{\frac{1}{2}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 -\frac{1}{2} & & & \\
 \hline
 \overbrace{-\frac{1}{2}}^{\frac{1}{2}} & & 0 & 0 \\
 -\frac{1}{2} & & & \\
 \hline
 \overbrace{\phantom{00}}^{\frac{1}{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\
 + & & & \\
 \hline
 \overbrace{\phantom{00}}^{\frac{1}{2}} & & & \\
 \end{array}$$

$$M[2] / MF$$

$$\left( \begin{array}{cccc} 0 & \frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} & 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$M[16] / M_F$$

## another common set of tomographic states

### 16 matrices $\hat{M}_n$ for the latter tomographic states

| No. | Mode 1      | Mode 2      |
|-----|-------------|-------------|
| 1   | $ H\rangle$ | $ H\rangle$ |
| 2   | $ H\rangle$ | $ V\rangle$ |
| 3   | $ V\rangle$ | $ V\rangle$ |
| 4   | $ V\rangle$ | $ H\rangle$ |
| 5   | $ R\rangle$ | $ H\rangle$ |
| 6   | $ R\rangle$ | $ V\rangle$ |
| 7   | $ D\rangle$ | $ V\rangle$ |
| 8   | $ D\rangle$ | $ H\rangle$ |
| 9   | $ D\rangle$ | $ R\rangle$ |
| 10  | $ D\rangle$ | $ D\rangle$ |
| 11  | $ R\rangle$ | $ D\rangle$ |
| 12  | $ H\rangle$ | $ D\rangle$ |
| 13  | $ V\rangle$ | $ D\rangle$ |
| 14  | $ V\rangle$ | $ L\rangle$ |
| 15  | $ H\rangle$ | $ L\rangle$ |
| 16  | $ R\rangle$ | $ L\rangle$ |

Note: we have just replaced  $\bar{D}$  by  $D$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{M}_3 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & i & -\alpha \\ 0 & -i & 0 & -\beta \\ 1 & -\beta & -\alpha & 2 \end{pmatrix}, & \hat{M}_4 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -\alpha & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & -\beta & -i & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & -\alpha & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \hat{M}_5 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2i & -\alpha \\ 0 & 0 & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & -2i & \alpha & 0 \\ -\beta & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & \hat{M}_6 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -\alpha \\ 0 & 0 & \beta & 2i \\ 0 & \alpha & 0 & 0 \\ -\beta & -2i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \hat{M}_7 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -\alpha \\ 0 & 0 & -\beta & 2 \\ 0 & -\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ -\beta & 2 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, & \hat{M}_8 &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 2 & -\alpha \\ 0 & 0 & -\beta & 0 \\ 2 & -\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ -\beta & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},\end{aligned}$$

$\hat{M}_\nu = \sum_{\mu=1}^{16} B_{\nu,\mu}^{-1} \hat{\gamma}_\mu$  for the new set of tomographic states

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```
b[m_, n_] := hc[Psi[m]] . \[Chi][n] . Psi[m]
B := Table[b[n, m][[1, 1]], {n, 1, 16}, {m, 1, 16}]
invB := Inverse[B]
M[n_] := Sum[invB[[m, n]] \[Chi][m], {m, 1, 16}]
M[1] // MF
```

$$\left( \begin{array}{cccc} 1 & -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} & 0 & \frac{i}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & -\frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

M[2] // MF

$$\left( \begin{array}{cccc} 0 & -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} & 1 & \frac{i}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} - \frac{i}{2} \\ 0 & -\frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{i}{2} & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

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**Note:** other  $\hat{M}_n$ 's are obtained for other sets of rotations.  
where  $\alpha \equiv 1+i$ ;  $\beta \equiv 1-i$ .

## experimental example of James et al. counts for 16 projection measurements

$$n_1 = 34749, n_2 = 324, n_3 = 35805, n_4 = 444,$$

$$n_5 = 16324, n_6 = 17521, n_7 = 13441, n_8 = 16901,$$

$$n_9 = 17932, n_{10} = 32028, n_{11} = 15132, n_{12} = 17238,$$

$$n_{13} = 13171, n_{14} = 17170, n_{15} = 16722, n_{16} = 33586$$

### reconstructed $\hat{\rho}$ by linear tomography

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.4872 & 0.0042 + i0.0114 & 0.0098 - i0.0178 & 0.5192 - i0.0380 \\ 0.0042 - i0.0114 & 0.0045 & 0.0271 + i0.0146 & 0.0648 - i0.0076 \\ 0.0098 + i0.0178 & 0.0271 - i0.0146 & 0.0062 & 0.0695 + i0.0134 \\ 0.5192 + i0.0380 & 0.0648 + i0.0076 & 0.0695 - i0.0134 & 0.5020 \end{pmatrix}$$

### problems with semi-definiteness and normalization

$$\text{eig } \hat{\rho} = \{1.02155, 0.0681238, -0.065274, -0.024396\}$$

$$\text{Tr } \hat{\rho}^2 = 1.053$$

this is not a physical density matrix!

## maximum-likelihood (MaxLik) method

### 1. construct explicitly a “physical” density matrix $\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}$

- normalized
- Hermitian
- positive

e.g.

$$\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}} \equiv \hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{16}) = \frac{\hat{T}^\dagger \hat{T}}{\text{Tr}\{\hat{T}^\dagger \hat{T}\}}$$

with e.g.

$$\hat{T} = \begin{pmatrix} t_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_5 + it_6 & t_2 & 0 & 0 \\ t_{11} + it_{12} & t_7 + it_8 & t_3 & 0 \\ t_{15} + it_{16} & t_{13} + it_{14} & t_9 + it_{10} & t_4 \end{pmatrix},$$

of lower-triangular (or upper-triangular) form, which is easily invertible

By the **Schur decomposition**, any normal matrix  $\hat{A}$  (i.e.,  $\hat{A}^\dagger \hat{A} = \hat{A} \hat{A}^\dagger$ ) can be represented as  $\hat{A} = \hat{U} \hat{T} \hat{U}^\dagger$  in terms of a triangular  $\hat{T}$  and a unitary  $\hat{U}$ . For simplicity, we neglect  $\hat{U}$ .

## maximum-likelihood method

### 2. construct a likelihood function

assuming e.g. **Gaussian noise** of the measurements, the probability of obtaining a set of counts

$$\mathbf{n} = (n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{16})$$

for given  $\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}(\mathbf{t})$  with  $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_{16})$

is

$$P(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{t}) = \frac{1}{N_{\text{norm}}(\mathbf{t})} \prod_{\nu=1}^{16} \exp \left[ -\frac{(n_\nu - \bar{n}_\nu(\mathbf{t}))^2}{2\sigma_\nu^2(\mathbf{t})} \right]$$

where

$$\bar{n}_\nu(\mathbf{t}) = \mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle - \text{number of counts expected for } \nu \text{th measurement}$$

$$\sigma_\nu(\mathbf{t}) \approx \sqrt{\bar{n}_\nu(\mathbf{t})} - \text{standard deviation}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{N} &= \sum_{\nu=1}^4 n_\nu \gg 1 - \text{normalization, so } \frac{\bar{n}_\nu}{\mathcal{N}} \text{ corresponds to a probability} \\ N_{\text{norm}}(\mathbf{t}) &= \text{const} - \text{normalization assumed to be independent of } \mathbf{t} \end{aligned}$$

## maximum-likelihood method

### 3. optimize $\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}(\mathbf{t})$ :

find numerically a maximum of  $P(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{t})$

$$\max_{\mathbf{t}} \prod_{\nu=1}^{16} \exp \left[ -\frac{(\mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle - n_\nu)^2}{2\mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle} \right].$$

or, equivalently, analyze logarithm of  $P(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{t})$ :

$$\max_{\mathbf{t}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{16} -\frac{(\mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle - n_\nu)^2}{2\mathcal{N} \langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle} = \frac{\mathcal{N}}{2} \min_{\mathbf{t}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{t})$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{t}) = \sum_{\nu=1}^{16} \frac{(\langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle - \frac{n_\nu}{\mathcal{N}})^2}{\langle \psi_\nu | \hat{\rho}_p(\mathbf{t}) | \psi_\nu \rangle}$$

is a useful ‘likelihood’ function.

## 'likelihood' function

## for our experimental data

```
t[t1_, t2_, t3_, t4_, t5_, t6_, t7_, t8_, t9_, t10_, t11_,
t12_, t13_, t14_, t15_, t16_] := Module[{tr, Rhophys, sum, Nmean},

$$\mathbf{T} := \begin{pmatrix} t_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ t_5 + it_6 & t_2 & 0 & 0 \\ t_{11} + it_{12} & t_7 + it_8 & t_3 & 0 \\ t_{15} + it_{16} & t_{13} + it_{14} & t_9 + it_{10} & t_4 \end{pmatrix},$$

Rhophys := hc[t].T / tr[hc[t].T];
sum = 0;
Do[
```

```
(Nmean = Re[Norm * hc[psi[m]] . pPhys . psi[m]];
sum = sum + (Nmean - Nexp[{m}])^2 / 2 / Nmean), {m, 1, 16}];
Return[Re[sum]]
```

$$\hat{T}(\mathbf{t}_{\text{ini}}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5948i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.8706 + 0.7282i & 0.4060 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.0215 + 0.9935i & -0.2827 - 0.2982i & 0.0615i & 0 \\ 0.7328 + 0.0536i & 0.0915 + 0.0107i & 0.0981 - 0.0189i & 0.7085 \end{bmatrix}$$

## numerical optimization

```
FindMinimum[
L[{t1, t2, t3, t4, t5, t6, t7, t8, t9, t10, t11, t12, t13, t14, t15, t16},
{t1, tini1}, {t2, tini2}, {t3, tini3}, {t4, tini4}, {t5, tini5}, {t6, tini6},
{t7, tini7}, {t8, tini8}, {t9, tini9}, {t10, tini10}, {t11, tini11},
{t12, tini12}, {t13, tini13}, {t14, tini14}, {t15, tini15}, {t16, tini16}]]
```

thus, we need initial values  $\mathbf{t}_{\text{ini}}$ .

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{t}_{\text{ini}}) = 3.0695$$

by applying the optimization procedure we can diminish this value to

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{t}_{\text{opt}}) = 0.0104$$

for the following matrix ...

## How to estimate initial 'physical' matrix $\hat{T}(\mathbf{t}_{\text{ini}})$ ?

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## our matrix reconstructed by MaxLik method

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$$\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}(\mathbf{t}_{\text{opt}}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5028 & 0.0230 + 0.0117i & 0.0279 - 0.0130i & 0.4686 - 0.0346i \\ 0.0230 - 0.0117i & 0.0051 & 0.0050 + 0.0001i & 0.0333 - 0.0082i \\ 0.0279 + 0.0130i & 0.0050 - 0.0001i & 0.0066 & 0.0416 + 0.0102i \\ 0.4686 + 0.0346i & 0.0333 + 0.0082i & 0.0416 - 0.0102i & 0.4854 \end{bmatrix}$$

is a physical density matrix as it is

- positive (semidefinite)

$$\text{eig } \hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}} = \{0.9687, 0.0313, 0, 0\}$$

where

$$\mathcal{M}^{(0)} = \text{Det}(\hat{\rho}),$$

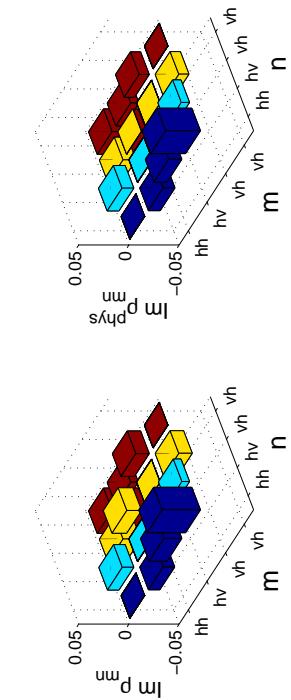
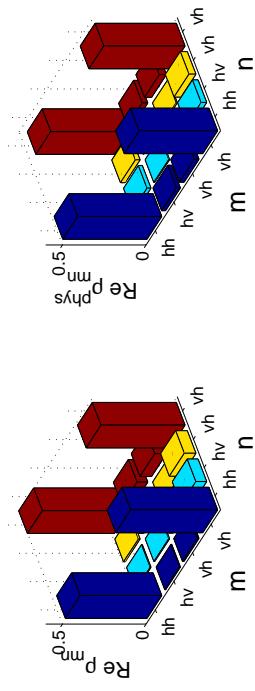
$$\mathcal{M}_{ij}^{(1)} = \text{Det}(\hat{\rho}_{\text{without row i \& col j}}),$$

$$\mathcal{M}_{ij,kl}^{(2)} = \text{Det}(\hat{\rho}_{\text{without rows i,k \& cols j,l}})$$

$$i, j, k, l = 0, \dots, 3$$

### comparison of reconstructed matrices

$\hat{\rho}$  by linear tomography (left) and  $\hat{\rho}_{\text{phys}}$  by MaxLik tomography (right figures)



### reconstruction of a qutrit density matrix

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_8 \rangle + \sqrt{3}\langle \hat{\sigma}_3 \rangle) & \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_1 \rangle - i\langle \hat{\sigma}_2 \rangle) & \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_4 \rangle - i\langle \hat{\sigma}_5 \rangle) \\ \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_1 \rangle + i\langle \hat{\sigma}_2 \rangle) & 1 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_8 \rangle - \sqrt{3}\langle \hat{\sigma}_3 \rangle) & \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_6 \rangle - i\langle \hat{\sigma}_7 \rangle) \\ \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_4 \rangle + i\langle \hat{\sigma}_5 \rangle) & \frac{3}{2}(\langle \hat{\sigma}_6 \rangle + i\langle \hat{\sigma}_7 \rangle) & 1 - \sqrt{3}\langle \hat{\sigma}_8 \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

### via measurement of the generalized Pauli operators

which can be chosen as generators of the Lie algebra  $SU(3)$

$$\hat{\sigma}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\hat{\sigma}_5 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_6 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_7 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_8 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Analogously, a **qudit density matrix** can be reconstructed via measurement of generators of the Lie algebra  $SU(d)$

### Question

### Quantum tomography and no-cloning theorem:

For complete reconstruction of  $\hat{\rho}$  we need to repeat measurements on many copies of  $\hat{\rho}$ .

But unknown  $\hat{\rho}$  cannot be copied.

Thus, do we violate the no-cloning theorem?

### Answer

No! The term ‘copies’ refers to identically prepared quantum objects.

Copies of  $\hat{\rho}$  are generated from the same (known) initial state(s) by applying the same transformations in the same experimental setup.

## Quantum gates (part III)

reversible gates

Toffoli and CCU gates

simulation of gates by various circuits

## reversible computing

- a computational process that is (or almost is) time-invertible (time-reversible).

### Landauer's principle

- a computational process to be **physically reversible**, it must also be **logically reversible**.

### logically-reversible process

- a discrete, deterministic computational process for which the transition function that maps input states to output states is a one-to-one function.

### examples of reversible quantum gates

all unitary quantum gates are reversible, e.g.:

$$\hat{H}(c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle) = c_0|+\rangle + c_1|-\rangle \rightarrow \hat{H}(c_0|+\rangle + c_1|-\rangle) = c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle$$

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|10\rangle + c_3|11\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|11\rangle + c_3|10\rangle \equiv |\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOR}}|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = c_0|00\rangle + c_1|01\rangle + c_2|11\rangle + c_3|10\rangle = |\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$$

**but measurement is irreversible**

$$\begin{matrix} (1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \\ |a\rangle & \xrightarrow{\quad} & |a\rangle \\ |0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \\ |b\rangle & \xrightarrow{\oplus} & |a \oplus b\rangle \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} (1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \\ |a\rangle & \xrightarrow{\quad} & |a\rangle \\ |0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \\ |b\rangle & \xrightarrow{\oplus} & |b\rangle \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1) \\ |0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0) \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} |a\rangle & \xrightarrow{\quad} & |a\rangle \\ |b\rangle & \xrightarrow{\oplus} & |b\rangle \\ |c\rangle & \xrightarrow{\oplus} & |ab \oplus c\rangle \end{matrix}$$

## examples of irreversible classical gates

logic gates in a classical computer, other than NOT gate, are irreversible, e.g.:

| AND    | OR     | XOR=CNOT |
|--------|--------|----------|
| ab     | ab     | ab       |
| -----  | -----  | -----    |
| 00   0 | 00   0 | 00   0   |
| 01   0 | 01   1 | 01   1   |
| 10   0 | 10   1 | 10   1   |
| 11   1 | 11   1 | 11   0   |

**how to make these gates reversible?**

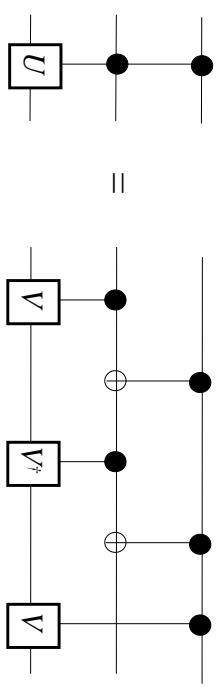
keep input(s) together with the standard output, e.g.:

| R-AND    | R-OR     | R-XOR    |
|----------|----------|----------|
| ab       | ab       | ab       |
| -----    | -----    | -----    |
| 00   000 | 00   000 | 00   000 |
| 01   010 | 01   011 | 01   011 |
| 10   100 | 10   101 | 10   101 |
| 11   111 | 11   110 | 11   100 |

## replacement for CCU gate

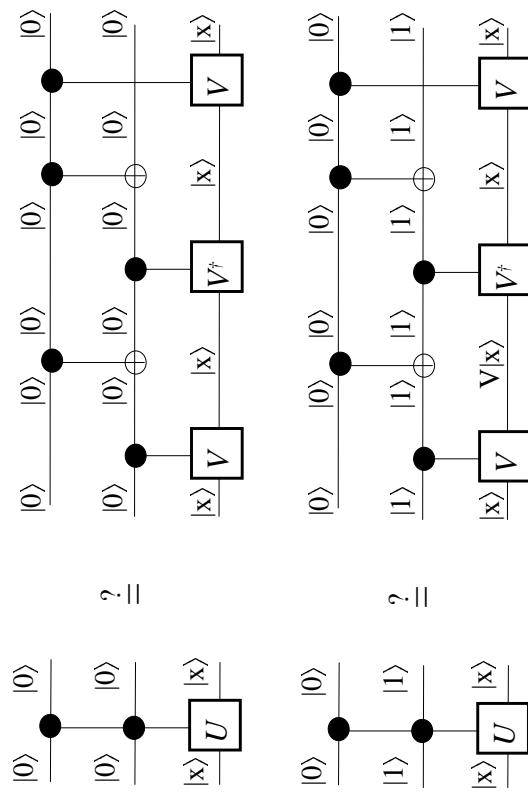
theorem of Barenco, Bennett et al. (1995)

Any CCU gate can be built from CNOT, CV, and  $CV^t$  gates, where  $V^t = U$



**Note:** Toffoli gate is a special case of CCU

## replacement for CCU gate (proof)



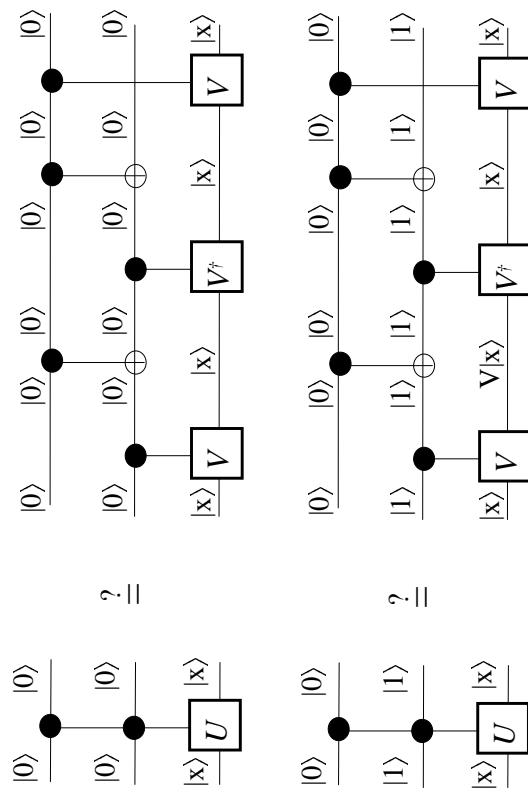
## implementing gates in Mathematica

- two-qubit states

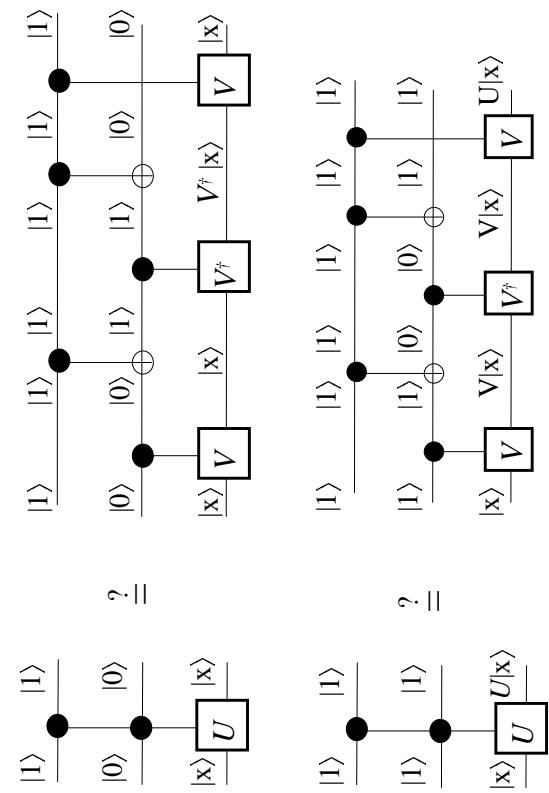
$\text{ket}[n_1, n_2] = |n_1, n_2\rangle \rightarrow 4\text{-element column vector with '1' at pos. } 2n_1 + n_2 + 1$

$\text{bra}[n_1, n_2] = \langle n_1, n_2| \rightarrow \text{row vector}$

```
ket[n1_, n2_] := Module[{state},
 state = ZeroMatrix[4, 1];
 state[[2 n1 + n2 + 1, 1]] = 1;
 Return[state]
bra[n1_, n2_] := Transpose[ket[n1, n2]]
ket[0, 0] // MF
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$


## replacement for CCU gate (proof)



CNOT gate – cnot =  $|00\rangle\langle 00| + |01\rangle\langle 01| + |11\rangle\langle 10| + |10\rangle\langle 11|$

```
cnot := ket[0, 0].bra[0, 0] + ket[0, 1].bra[0, 1] + ket[1, 1].bra[1, 0] + ket[1, 0].bra[1, 1]
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

CV gate – control unitary  $V = \begin{bmatrix} v_{0,0} & v_{0,1} \\ v_{1,0} & v_{1,1} \end{bmatrix}$

$\text{cv} = |00\rangle\langle 00| + |01\rangle\langle 01| + v_{0,1}|10\rangle\langle 10| + v_{1,0}|11\rangle\langle 11| + v_{1,1}|11\rangle\langle 11|$

```
cv := ket[0, 0].bra[0, 0] + ket[0, 1].bra[0, 1] + v_{0,0}ket[1, 0].bra[1, 0] + v_{0,1}ket[1, 0].bra[1, 1] + v_{1,0}ket[1, 1].bra[1, 0] + v_{1,1}ket[1, 1].bra[1, 1]
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & v_{0,1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & v_{1,0} & v_{1,1} \end{pmatrix}$$

- three-qubit states

$KET[n_1, n_2, n_3] = |n_1, n_2, n_3\rangle \rightarrow 2^3\text{-element column vector with}$

'1' at position  $4n_1 + 2n_2 + n_3 + 1$

$BRA[n_1, n_2, n_3] = \langle n_1, n_2, n_3| \rightarrow \text{row vector}$

```
KER[n1_, n2_, n3_] := Module[{state},
 state = zeroMatrix[8, 1];
 state[[4 n1 + 2 n2 + n3 + 1, 1]] = 1;
 Return[state]
]
BRA[n1_, n2_, n3_] := transpose[KER[n1, n2, n3]]
KER[0, 0, 0] // MF
{{1}, {0}, {0}, {0}, {0}, {0}, {0}, {0}}
BRA[0, 0, 1] // MF
{{0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}}
BRA[1, 1, 1] // MF
{{0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1}}
```

## control gates for 3 qubits

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1.  $CNOT_{23} = \text{kron(id}, cnot)$  where  $\text{id} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

or  $CNOT_{23} = |000\rangle\langle 000| + |001\rangle\langle 001| + |011\rangle\langle 010| + |010\rangle\langle 011| + |100\rangle\langle 100| + |101\rangle\langle 101| + |111\rangle\langle 110| + |110\rangle\langle 111|$

```
CNOT23 :=
KET[0, 0, 0].BRA[0, 0, 0] + KET[0, 0, 1].BRA[0, 0, 1] +
v0,0 KET[0, 1, 0].BRA[0, 1, 0] + v0,1 KET[0, 1, 0].BRA[0, 1, 1] +
v1,0 KET[0, 1, 1].BRA[0, 1, 0] + v1,1 KET[0, 1, 1].BRA[0, 1, 1] +
KET[1, 0, 0].BRA[1, 0, 0] + KET[1, 0, 1].BRA[1, 0, 1] +
v0,0 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 0] + v0,1 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 1] +
v1,0 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 0] + v1,1 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 1]
```

$CNOT23 // MF$

```
{{1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0}, {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1}, {0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0}}
```

2.  $CNOT_{12} = \text{kron(cnot,id)}$  – analogously

## 3. $CV_{23} = \text{kron(id, cv)}$

$CV23new := \text{Kron[id, cv]}$

$CV23new // MF$

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V0,0 & V0,1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V1,0 & V1,1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V0,0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V1,0 & V1,1 \end{array} \right)$$

or explicitly

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$CV23 :=$

```
KET[0, 0, 0].BRA[0, 0, 0] + KET[0, 0, 1].BRA[0, 0, 1] +
v0,0 KET[0, 1, 0].BRA[0, 1, 0] + v0,1 KET[0, 1, 0].BRA[0, 1, 1] +
v1,0 KET[0, 1, 1].BRA[0, 1, 0] + v1,1 KET[0, 1, 1].BRA[0, 1, 1] +
KET[1, 0, 0].BRA[1, 0, 0] + KET[1, 0, 1].BRA[1, 0, 1] +
v0,0 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 0] + v0,1 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 1] +
v1,0 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 0] + v1,1 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 1]
```

$CV23 // MF$

$$\left( \begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V0,0 & V0,1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & V1,0 & V1,1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V0,0 & V0,1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & V1,0 & V1,1 \end{array} \right)$$

#### 4. CV<sub>13</sub> gate

$CV_{13} = |000\rangle\langle000| + |001\rangle\langle001| + |010\rangle\langle010| + |011\rangle\langle011| + |v_{0,0}|100\rangle\langle100| + v_{0,1}|100\rangle\langle101| + v_{1,0}|101\rangle\langle100| + v_{1,1}|101\rangle\langle101| + |v_{0,0}|110\rangle\langle110| + v_{0,1}|110\rangle\langle111| + v_{1,0}|111\rangle\langle110| + v_{1,1}|111\rangle\langle111|$

```

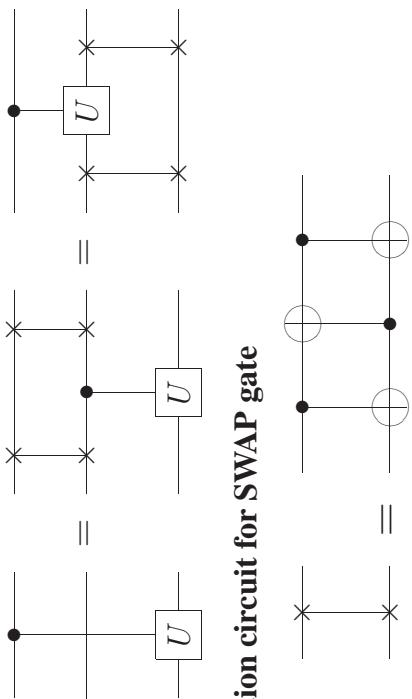
CV13 :=
 KET[0, 0, 0].BRA[0, 0, 0] + KET[0, 0, 1].BRA[0, 0, 1] +
 KET[0, 1, 0].BRA[0, 1, 0] + KET[0, 1, 1].BRA[0, 1, 1] +
 v0,0 KET[1, 0, 0].BRA[1, 0, 0] + v0,1 KET[1, 0, 1].BRA[1, 0, 1] +
 v1,0 KET[1, 0, 1].BRA[1, 0, 1] + v1,1 KET[1, 0, 1].BRA[1, 0, 1] +
 v0,0 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 0] + v0,1 KET[1, 1, 0].BRA[1, 1, 0] +
 v1,0 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 1] + v1,1 KET[1, 1, 1].BRA[1, 1, 1]

```

CV13 // MF

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v0,0 & v0,1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v1,0 & v1,1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v0,0 & v0,1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v1,0 & v1,1 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### substitution circuits for CU<sub>13</sub> gate



#### tricky way to calculate CV<sub>13</sub>

$CV_{13} = SWAP_{12} CV_{23} SWAP_{12} = \text{kron}(swap,id) CV_{23} \text{kron}(swap,id)$

CV13new := KroneckerProduct[swap, id] . CV23 . KroneckerProduct[swap, id]

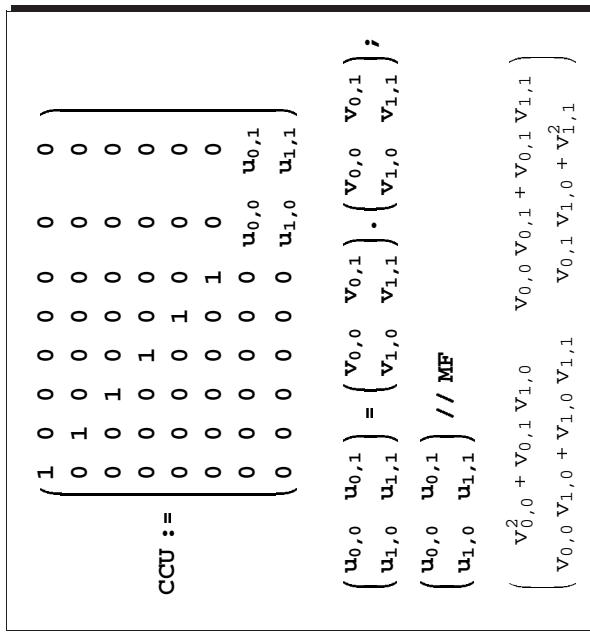
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v0,0 & v0,1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v1,0 & v1,1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v0,0 & v0,1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & v1,0 & v1,1 \end{pmatrix}$$

test = Max[CV13 - CV13new]

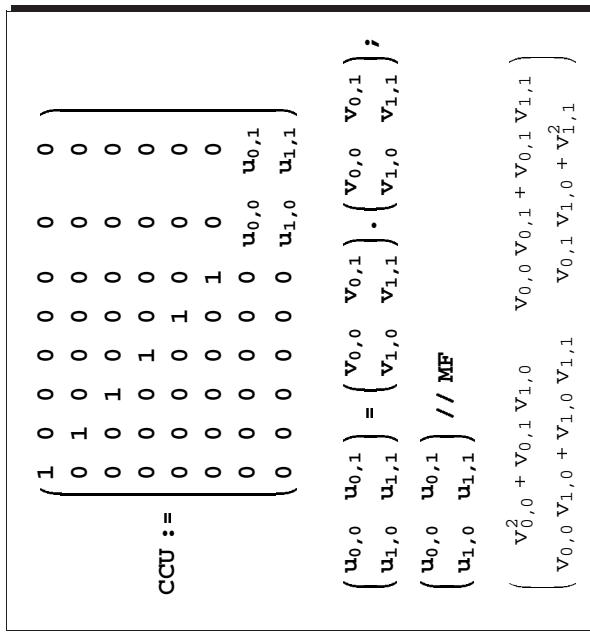
0

or  $CV_{13} = SWAP_{23} CV_{12} SWAP_{23} = \dots$

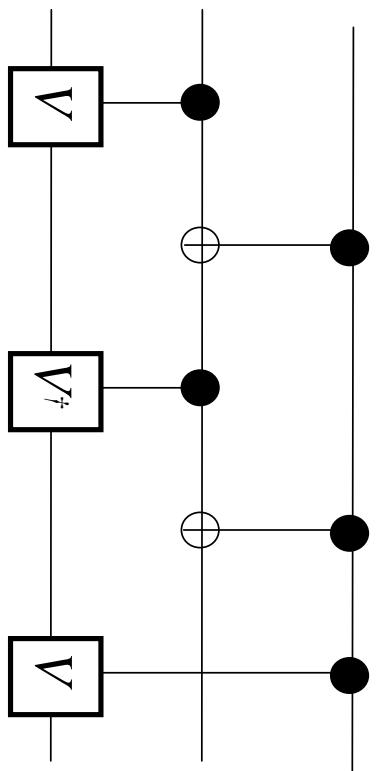
#### substitution circuit for SWAP gate



#### 5. CCU gate ( $U = V^2$ )



## a substitution circuit for CCU gate



a matrix is unitary iff its row and column vectors are orthonormal

thus for

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} v_{0,0} & v_{0,1} \\ v_{1,0} & v_{1,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} v_{0,0}^* v_{0,1} + v_{1,0}^* v_{1,1} &= 0 \\ v_{0,0}^* v_{0,0} + v_{0,1}^* v_{0,1} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

etc.

gate1 gate2 gate3 gate4 gate5

```
r1 := [Conjugate[v0,0] v0,0 + Conjugate[v1,0] v1,0 → 1]
r2 := [Conjugate[v0,0] v0,0 + Conjugate[v0,1] v0,1 → 1]
r3 := [Conjugate[v0,1] v0,1 + Conjugate[v1,1] v1,1 → 1]
r4 := [Conjugate[v1,0] v1,0 + Conjugate[v1,1] v1,1 → 1]
r5 := [Conjugate[v0,0] v0,1 + Conjugate[v1,0] v1,1 → 0]
r6 := [Conjugate[v0,0] v1,0 + Conjugate[v0,1] v1,1 → 0]
r7 := [Conjugate[v0,1] v0,0 + Conjugate[v1,1] v1,0 → 0]
r8 := [Conjugate[v1,0] v0,0 + Conjugate[v1,1] v0,1 → 0]
```

## substitution circuit for CCU gate

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...finally

```
ccu1 := ccu1temp / .r1 / .r2 / .r3 / .r4 / .r5 / .r6 / .r7 / .r8
ccu1 // MF
ccu1 = {1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1}

```

```
swap := {1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0}, cnot = {0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 1
 0 0 1 0
 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0}
cv = {1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1}, id = IdentityMatrix[2];
```

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```
gate1 := Kron[id, cv]
gate2 := Kron[cnot, id]
gate3 := Kron[id, hc[cv]]
gate4 := gate2
gate5 := Kron[swap, id].gate1.Kron[swap, id]
ccu1temp := gate5.gate4.gate3.gate2.gate1
```

we have shown that our gate CCU<sub>1</sub> simulates the original CCU gate

## properties of unitary matrices

```

ccu2temp := cv13 .Kron[cnot, id].hc[cv23] .Kron[cnot, id].cv23
ccu2 := CCU2temp / .r1 /. r2 /. r3 /. r4 /. r5 /. r6 /. r7 /. r8
ccu2 // MF

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

0 0 0 0 0 0 v0,02 + v0,1v1,0 v0,0v0,1 + v0,1v1,1
0 0 0 0 0 0 v0,0v1,0 + v1,0v1,1 v0,1v1,0 + v1,12
0 0 0 0 0 0 v0,0v1,0 + v1,0v1,1 v0,1v1,0 + v1,12
0
test = Max[CCU - CCU2] // MF
0

```

bit-flip errors

 $0 \rightarrow 1 \& 1 \rightarrow 0$ **errors in quantum computers****1. bit-flip errors = amplitude errors** $|0\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle \& |1\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle$ **2. phase-flip errors = phase errors** $|0\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle \& |1\rangle \rightarrow -|1\rangle$ **e.g.  $|+\rangle \rightarrow |-\rangle \& |-\rangle \rightarrow |+\rangle$  (orthogonal)****3. small errors** $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \rightarrow \sqrt{a^2 + \epsilon}|0\rangle + \sqrt{b^2 - \epsilon}|1\rangle$ 

which can also correspond to  
removing the qubit and replacing it with garbage!  
thus

there is a continuous set of quantum errors

**error-correcting code (ECC)**

quantum states are very fragile to decoherence and dissipation,  
thus we need a quantum ECC – an analog of classical ECC

**can we really correct quantum errors?****1. errors are continuous**

quantum vs classical errors

correction of bit-flip and phase-flip errors

Shor's ECC

Steane's ECC

fault-tolerant gates

**a note**

without quantum ECCs construction of  
practical quantum computers would be impossible

# Introduction to quantum error-correction codes

**error-correcting code (ECC)**

quantum states are very fragile to decoherence and dissipation,  
thus we need a quantum ECC – an analog of classical ECC

**can we really correct quantum errors?****1. errors are continuous**

there are infinitely many quantum errors

**2. measurement destroys quantum information**

qubits cannot be measured without disturbing quantum information they carry,  
i.e., by measuring

 $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ we get either  $|0\rangle$  with probability  $|a|^2$  or  $|1\rangle$  with probability  $|b|^2$ **3. no cloning**

quantum information cannot be copied with perfect fidelity

### bit-flip error

$$|\psi_0\rangle = a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{3\text{rd bit flip}} \rightarrow |\psi_1\rangle = a|00\underline{1}\rangle + b|11\underline{0}\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle = \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12}(a|00\rangle + b|10\rangle)$$

$$= a|0,0,0\oplus 0\rangle + b|1,0\oplus 1\rangle$$

$$= \underline{a|00\rangle + b|11\rangle}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{13}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12}|\psi\rangle|0\rangle &= \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{13}(a|00\rangle + b|11\rangle)|0\rangle \\ &= a|0,0,0\oplus 0\rangle + b|1,1,0\oplus 1\rangle \\ &= \underline{a|00\rangle + b|11\rangle}\end{aligned}$$

note that

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{13}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12} &= \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{13} \\ \text{in general}\end{aligned}$$

$$\prod_{i=2}^N \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{1i}(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle)|0\rangle^{\otimes(N-1)} = \underline{a|0\rangle^{\otimes N} + b|1\rangle^{\otimes N}}$$

so let us measure modes 4 & 5:

$$|\psi_5\rangle = {}_{45}\langle M', M''|\psi_4\rangle = a|0,0,1\rangle + b|1,1,0\rangle$$

in our case the measurement result (i.e. error syndrome) is:

$$M' = 0, M'' = 1$$

### error correction = recovery

so we know that we have to flip the 3rd qubit

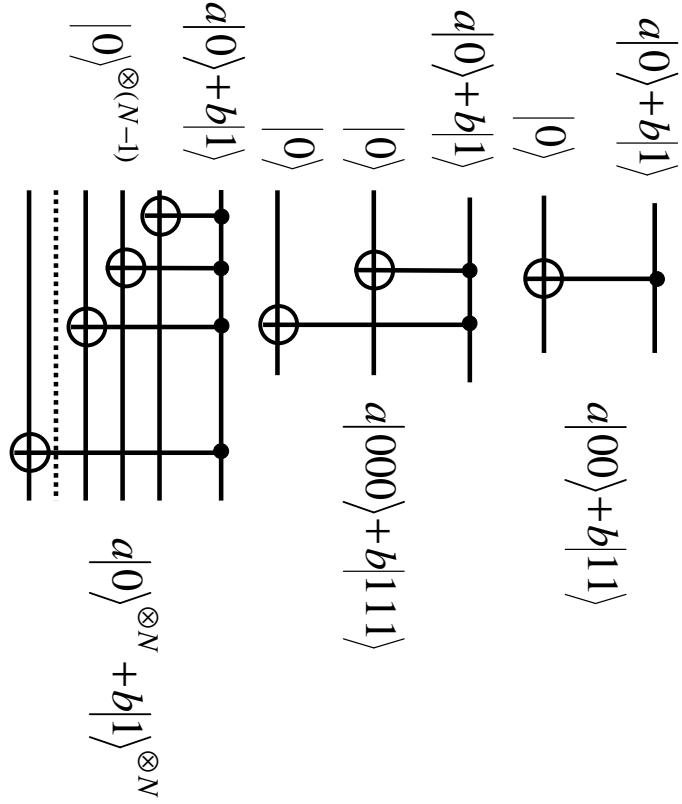
$$|\psi_6\rangle = \hat{X}_3|\psi_5\rangle = a|0,0,\underline{0}\rangle + b|1,1,\underline{1}\rangle = |\psi_0\rangle$$

Analogously, we can find a proper action for other measurement results:

### error syndrome $\Rightarrow$ error correction

$$\begin{aligned}M' = 0, M'' = 1 &\implies |\psi_0\rangle = \hat{X}_3|\psi_5\rangle \\ M' = 1, M'' = 0 &\implies |\psi_0\rangle = \hat{X}_2|\psi_5\rangle \\ M' = 1, M'' = 1 &\implies |\psi_0\rangle = \hat{X}_1|\psi_5\rangle \\ M' = 0, M'' = 0 &\implies |\psi_0\rangle = |\psi_5\rangle\end{aligned}$$

so in general



### error detection = error syndrome diagnosis/measurement

$$|\psi_2\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle|00\rangle = a|00100\rangle + b|11000\rangle$$

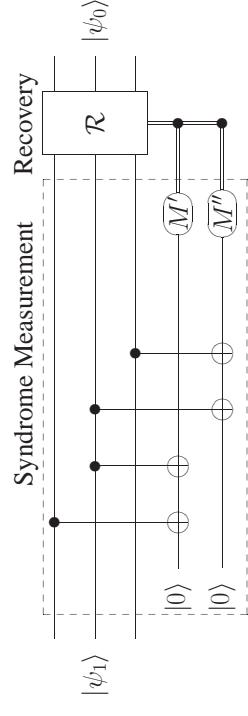
$$\begin{aligned}|\psi_3\rangle &= \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{24}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{14}|\psi_2\rangle \\ &= a|0,\underline{0},1,0\oplus 0,0\rangle + b|\underline{1},\underline{1},0,0\oplus 1,0\rangle \\ &= a|0,0,1,0,0\rangle + b|1,1,0,0,0\rangle = |\psi_2\rangle \quad (\text{sic!})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}|\psi_4\rangle &= \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{35}\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{25}|\psi_3\rangle \\ &= a|0,\underline{1},0,0\oplus 0,0\rangle + b|1,\underline{1},0,0\oplus 1,0\rangle \\ &= a|0,0,1,\underline{0},1\rangle + b|1,1,\underline{0},1\rangle \\ &= (a|0,0,1\rangle + b|1,1,0\rangle) \otimes |0,1\rangle\end{aligned}$$

### bit-flip error $|\psi_0\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_1\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_0\rangle &= a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle \\ |\psi_1\rangle &= a|001\rangle + b|110\rangle, a|010\rangle + b|101\rangle, a|100\rangle + b|011\rangle \text{ or } a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle \end{aligned}$$

**bit-flip error correction**  $|\psi_1\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_0\rangle$



$$|\psi_0\rangle = \hat{X}_{[3M''-2M']} \left( \dots \right)$$

### phase vs amplitude errors

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}\hat{\sigma}_z\hat{H} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{\sigma}_x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}\hat{\sigma}_x\hat{H} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{\sigma}_z \end{aligned}$$

thus

a phase error (phase flip) in a rotated basis

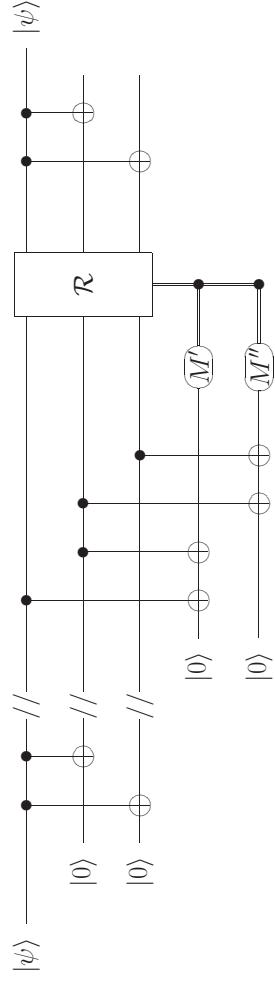
appears as an amplitude error (bit flip) and vice versa.

### phase-flip error

$$\begin{aligned} a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle &\rightarrow \boxed{\text{phase flip}} \rightarrow a|0\rangle - b|1\rangle \\ |+\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{phase flip}} \rightarrow |-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ |-\rangle &\rightarrow \boxed{\text{phase flip}} \rightarrow |+\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where  $-//-$  denotes quantum channel where an error can occur

### example: a quantum bit-flip ECC



### initial encoding

$$\begin{aligned} a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle &\rightarrow |\psi_0\rangle = a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle \\ &\rightarrow |\psi'_0\rangle = a|+++⟩ + b|---⟩ \end{aligned}$$

or explicitly

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_0\rangle &= \hat{H}^{\otimes 3} \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{13} \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{12} (a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle) \\ &= \hat{H}_1 \hat{H}_2 \hat{H}_3 (a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle) \\ &= a|+++⟩ + b|---⟩ \end{aligned}$$

## encoded initial state

$$|\psi'_0\rangle = a|+++ \rangle + b|--- \rangle$$

**phase-flip error**  $|\psi'_0\rangle \rightarrow |\psi'_1\rangle$

$$|\psi'_1\rangle = a|++-\rangle + b|--+\rangle$$

or  $a|+-+\rangle + b|-+-\rangle$

or  $a| - ++\rangle + b| + --\rangle$

or  $a| + ++\rangle + b| - --\rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_1\rangle &= \hat{H}^{\otimes 3}|\psi'_1\rangle = \hat{H}_1\hat{H}_2\hat{H}_3(a|++-\rangle + b|--+\rangle) = a|001\rangle + b|110\rangle \\ &\text{apply Hadamard gates to } |\psi'_1\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

and analogously

$$a|+-+\rangle + b|-+-\rangle \rightarrow a|010\rangle + b|101\rangle$$

$$a| - ++\rangle + b| + --\rangle \rightarrow a|100\rangle + b|011\rangle$$

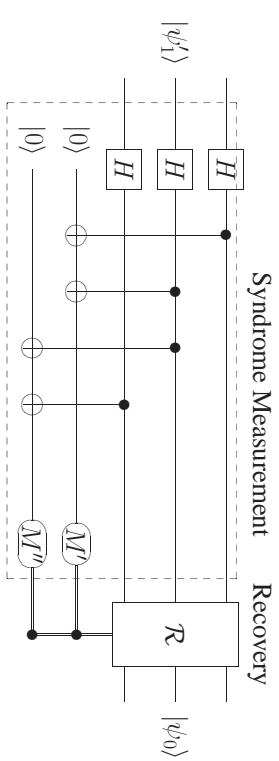
$$a| + ++\rangle + b| - --\rangle \rightarrow a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle$$

so now our standard bit-flip ECC can be applied

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## phase-flip error correction

$$|\psi'_1\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_0\rangle$$



$$|\psi_0\rangle = \hat{X}_{[3M'-2M'']} \left( {}_{45} \langle M', M'' | \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{35} \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{25} \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{24} \hat{U}_{\text{CNOT}}^{14} \hat{H}^{\otimes 3} |\psi_1\rangle |00\rangle \right)$$

## encoding qubit against bit-flip error

$$\begin{array}{c} a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array} \xrightarrow{\oplus} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \oplus \\ \bullet \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} a|000\rangle + b|111\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array}$$

## encoding qubit against phase-flip error

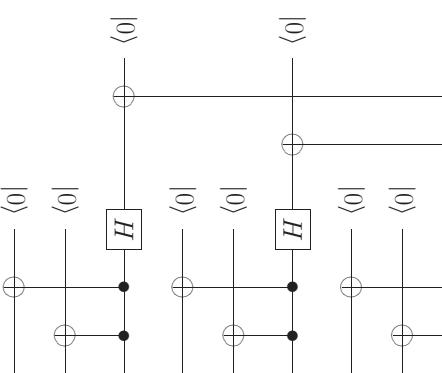
$$\begin{array}{c} a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array} \xrightarrow{\oplus} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \oplus \\ \bullet \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} a|++-\rangle + b|--+\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array}$$

## How to encode qubit against both errors?

## encoding code for Shor's nine-qubit ECC

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$$a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \xrightarrow{\oplus} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \oplus \\ \bullet \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array} \xrightarrow{H} \begin{array}{c} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{array}$$



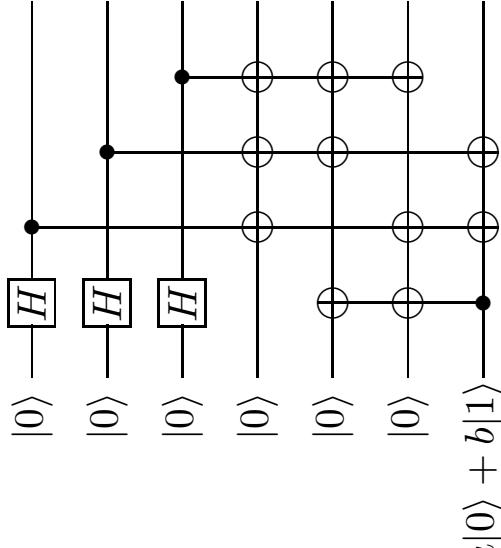
first real error correction code against both bit-flip and phase-flip **single** error

## encoding code for Shor's nine-qubit ECC

$|0\rangle \rightarrow |000\rangle$   
 $\rightarrow |+++\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$   
 $\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)(|000\rangle + |111\rangle)(|000\rangle + |111\rangle) \equiv |0\rangle_L$   
  
 $|1\rangle \rightarrow |111\rangle$   
 $\rightarrow |---\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$   
 $\rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|000\rangle - |111\rangle)(|000\rangle - |111\rangle)(|000\rangle - |111\rangle) \equiv |1\rangle_L$   
  
 $a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \longrightarrow a|0\rangle_L + b|1\rangle_L$

- Note that:
- the corrections of bit and phase flip errors are independent
  - thus Shor's code can correct combined bit and phase flips on a **single** qubit
  - there are other more concise ECCs

## encoding code for Steane's seven-qubit ECC



$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi_1\rangle &= \hat{H}_1 \hat{H}_2 \hat{H}_3 |0\rangle^{\otimes 6} |\psi_0\rangle = |+, +, +, 0, 0, 0\rangle \\
 |\psi_2\rangle &= \hat{U}_{CNOT} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^T |\psi_1\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \\
 |\psi_3\rangle &= \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{14} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{16} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{17} |\psi_2\rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\underline{0}, +, +, 0, 0, 0\rangle + |\underline{1}, +, +, 0 \oplus 1, 0, 0 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 1\rangle) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0, +, +, 0, 0, 0\rangle + |1, +, +, 1, 0, 1\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi_4\rangle &= \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{24} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{25} |\psi_3\rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(|0, \underline{0}, +, 0, 0, 0\rangle + |0, \underline{1}, +, 0 \oplus 1, 0, 0 \oplus 1\rangle \\
 &\quad + |1, \underline{0}, +, 1, 0, 1, 1\rangle + |1, \underline{1}, +, 1 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 1, 1, 1\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{2}(|0, 0, +, 0, 0, 0\rangle + |0, 1, +, \underline{1}, 0, \underline{1}\rangle \\
 &\quad + |1, 0, +, 1, 0, 1, \underline{1}\rangle + |1, 1, +, \underline{1}, 1, 0\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

**final step 5:**

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\psi_5\rangle &= \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{34} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{35} \hat{U}_{CNOT}^{36} |\psi_4\rangle \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}(|0, 0, \underline{0}, 0, 0, 0\rangle + |0, 0, \underline{1}, 0 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 1, 0\langle \\
 &\quad + |0, 1, \underline{0}, 1, 1, 0, 1\rangle + |0, 1, \underline{1}, 1 \oplus 1, 0 \oplus 1, 1\rangle \\
 &\quad + |1, 0, \underline{0}, 1, 0, 1\rangle + |1, 0, \underline{1}, 1 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1, 1\rangle \\
 &\quad + |1, 1, \underline{0}, 0, 1, 1, 0\rangle + |1, 1, \underline{1}, 0 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1, 1 \oplus 1, 0\rangle)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\mathbf{0}\rangle_L &\equiv |\psi_5\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}(|000000\rangle + |001110\rangle + |0101101\rangle + |0110011\rangle \\
 &+ |1001011\rangle + |1010101\rangle + |1100110\rangle + |111000\rangle) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \sum_{\text{even } \nu \in \text{Hamming}} |\nu\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Analogously

$$|\psi\rangle = |1\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_5\rangle \equiv |1\rangle_L$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 |1\rangle_L &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}(|111111\rangle + |111000\rangle + |1001100\rangle + |1000011\rangle \\
 &+ |0101010\rangle + |0100101\rangle + |0011001\rangle + |0010110\rangle) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \sum_{\text{odd } \nu \in \text{Hamming}} |\nu\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, in general

$$a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \rightarrow a|0\rangle_L + b|1\rangle_L$$

## bit-flip syndrome detection in Steane's 7-qubit ECC

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### most general single-qubit error

the most general single-qubit unitary error transformation  
(apart from irrelevant global phase factor) can be expanded to order  $\epsilon$  as

$$\hat{U}_{\text{error}} = \epsilon_i \hat{I} + \hat{\mathcal{O}}(\epsilon) = \epsilon_i \hat{I} + \epsilon_x \hat{\sigma}_x + \epsilon_y \hat{\sigma}_y + \epsilon_z \hat{\sigma}_z$$

### discrete set of quantum errors

fundamental result of quantum error correction theory:

correcting just a discrete set of errors  
(bit flip, phase flip and combined bit-phase flip)

a quantum error-correcting codes can correct a continuous set of errors.

### phase-flip syndrome detection

- the same circuit but with extra Hadamard gates, as for Shor's code

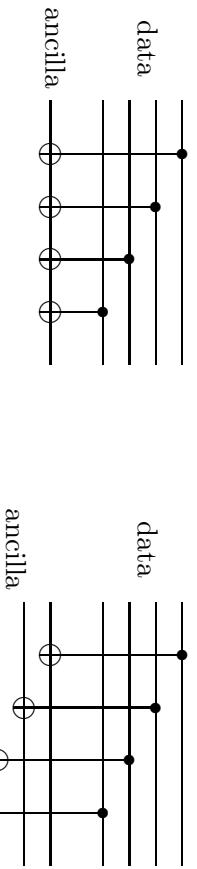
### fault-tolerant syndrome detection

to make the circuit fault tolerant, each ancilla qubit must be replaced by four qubits in a suitable state.

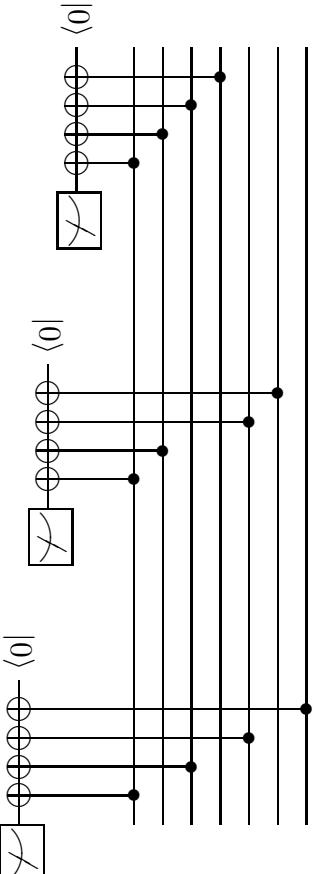
## fault-tolerant device

- a device that works effectively even when its elementary components are imperfect.

### fault-intolerant and fault-tolerant circuits



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## bit-flip syndrome detection in Steane's 7-qubit ECC

<sup>318</sup>

### most general single-qubit error

the most general single-qubit unitary error transformation  
(apart from irrelevant global phase factor) can be expanded to order  $\epsilon$  as

$$\hat{U}_{\text{error}} = \epsilon_i \hat{I} + \hat{\mathcal{O}}(\epsilon) = \epsilon_i \hat{I} + \epsilon_x \hat{\sigma}_x + \epsilon_y \hat{\sigma}_y + \epsilon_z \hat{\sigma}_z$$

### discrete set of quantum errors

fundamental result of quantum error correction theory:

correcting just a discrete set of errors  
(bit flip, phase flip and combined bit-phase flip)

a quantum error-correcting codes can correct a continuous set of errors.

### Shor's and Steane's ECCs

- they protect not only against bit and phase flip errors but against arbitrary errors affecting only a single qubit

- by measuring the error syndrome, the state collapses into one of the four states

$\hat{\sigma}_x |\psi\rangle, \hat{\sigma}_y |\psi\rangle, \hat{\sigma}_z |\psi\rangle$ , which are correctable with the codes.

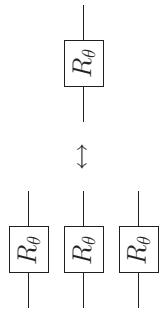
## fault-tolerant memory

so far we have analyzed coding for fault-tolerant storing of quantum information, but we also need:

### fault-tolerant gates

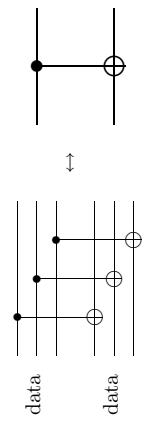
#### 1. fault-tolerant single qubit-gates

can be applied bitwise with majority vote

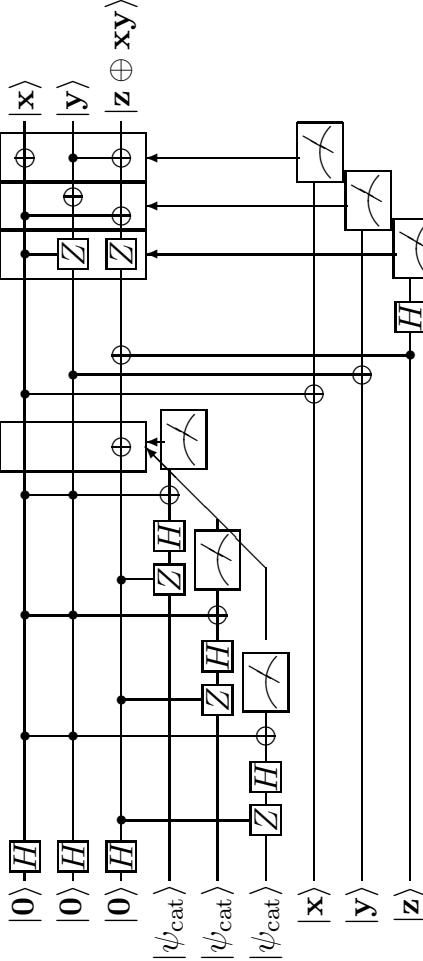


#### 2. fault-tolerant CNOT (XOR) = transversal CNOT

can also be applied bitwise with majority vote



## Shor's construction of fault-tolerant Toffoli gate



- each line represents a block of 7 qubits!
- $|\psi_{\text{cat}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle^{\otimes 7} + |1\rangle^{\otimes 7})$ ,  $|0\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes 7}$ ,  $|\mathbf{x}\rangle = |x\rangle^{\otimes 7}$ , etc.
- gates are implemented transversally
- if a given measurement outcome is 1, the arrow points to the set of gates to be applied; no action is taken if the outcome is 0.

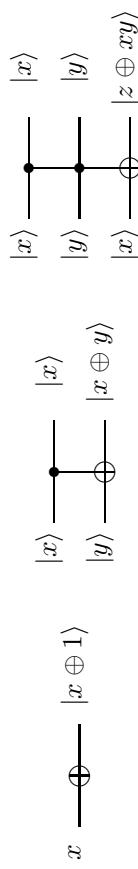
## Error correction codes (part II)

perfect ECC with the smallest number of ancillas  
requirements for scalable QIP  
error-threshold theorem

**Note:** for convenience we neglect normalizations

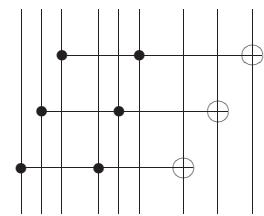
### 3. fault-tolerant Toffoli gate

Toffoli gate = controlled-controlled-NOT (CCNOT)



NOT                    CNOT                    Toffoli gate

**naive solution but not fault-tolerant**



## Hilbert space for ECC

subspaces corresponding to different errors should be orthogonal  
thus the total Hilbert space for ECC should be  
large enough to contain all the orthogonal subspaces.

**number of subspaces is**  $2(3n + 1)$

Orthogonality requires a subspace for each of the three errors every qubit can suffer and another one for the unperturbed logical state.

We must double this to have enough space to accommodate both logical states and their erroneous descendants.

**minimum number of encoded qubits is  $n = 5$  for ECC**

$$2(3n + 1) \leq 2^n \Rightarrow 26 \not\leq 16 \text{ for } n = 4 \quad \& \quad 32 \leq 32 \text{ for } n = 5$$

**number of encoded qubits for ECC**

$$n = 9 - \text{Shor ECC}$$

$$n = 7 - \text{Steane ECC}$$

$$n = 5 - \text{Los Alamos ECC} \Rightarrow \text{it requires the minimum number of ancillas}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle_L &= |B_1\rangle|00\rangle - |B_3\rangle|11\rangle + |B_5\rangle|01\rangle + |B_7\rangle|10\rangle \\ |1\rangle_L &= -|B_2\rangle|11\rangle - |B_4\rangle|00\rangle - |B_6\rangle|10\rangle + |B_8\rangle|01\rangle \end{aligned}$$

in terms of the (unnormalized) 3-qubit Bell states:

$$\begin{aligned} |B_2\rangle &= |000\rangle \pm |111\rangle \\ |B_4\rangle &= |100\rangle \pm |011\rangle \\ |B_6\rangle &= |010\rangle \pm |101\rangle \\ |B_8\rangle &= |110\rangle \pm |001\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Other allowed encodings can be found from those by permutations of bits and coordinated signs.

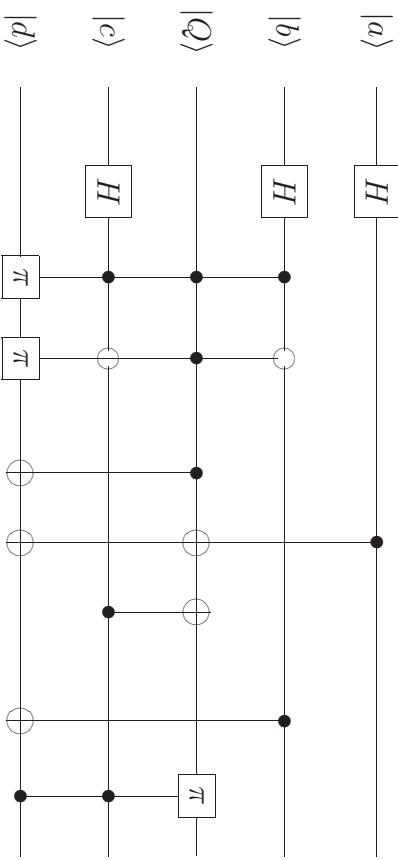
Thus, all the allowed encodings have the same sign pattern:  
with two minus signs in one of the logical states and four in the other.

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## Los Alamos ECC

[Laflamme, Miquel, Paz, Zurek (1996)]

### 1. 5-bit encoder



gates 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

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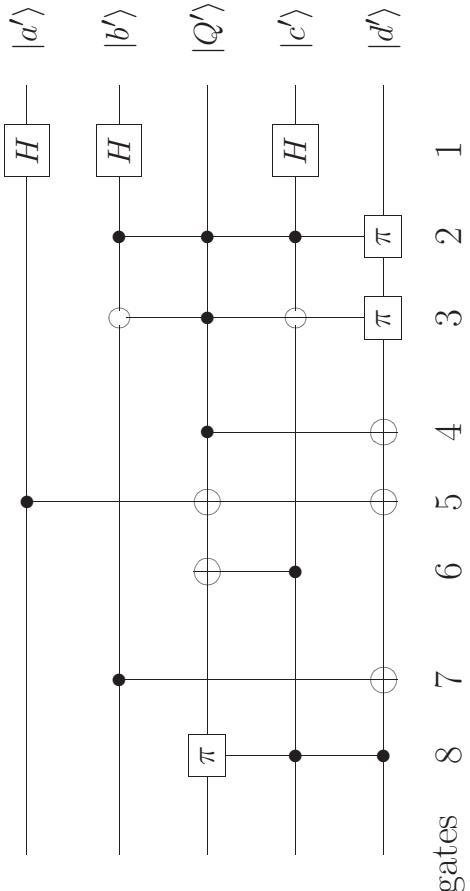
## encoded qubits explicitly

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle_L &= |B_1\rangle|00\rangle - |B_3\rangle|11\rangle + |B_5\rangle|01\rangle + |B_7\rangle|10\rangle \\ &= (|000\rangle + |111\rangle)|00\rangle - (|100\rangle + |011\rangle)|11\rangle \\ &\quad + (|010\rangle + |101\rangle)|01\rangle + (|110\rangle + |001\rangle)|10\rangle \\ &= |0000\rangle + |1100\rangle - |1001\rangle - |0111\rangle \\ &\quad + |0101\rangle + |1010\rangle + |1101\rangle + |0011\rangle \\ &\quad (\text{lexicographic order}) \\ &= |00000\rangle + |00110\rangle + |01001\rangle - |01111\rangle \\ &\quad - |10011\rangle + |10101\rangle + |11010\rangle + |11100\rangle \\ |1\rangle_L &= -|B_2\rangle|11\rangle - |B_4\rangle|00\rangle - |B_6\rangle|10\rangle + |B_8\rangle|01\rangle \\ &= -(|000\rangle - |111\rangle)|00\rangle - (|100\rangle - |011\rangle)|11\rangle \\ &\quad - (|010\rangle - |101\rangle)|01\rangle + (|110\rangle - |001\rangle)|10\rangle \\ &= -|00011\rangle + |1111\rangle - |10000\rangle + |01100\rangle \\ &\quad - |01010\rangle + |10110\rangle + |11001\rangle - |00101\rangle \\ &\quad (\text{lexicographic order}) \\ &= -|00011\rangle - |00101\rangle - |01010\rangle + |01100\rangle \\ &\quad - |10000\rangle + |10110\rangle + |11001\rangle + |11111\rangle \end{aligned}$$

## Los Alamos ECC

### 2. decoder

(reverse of the encoder)



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## Matlab program for Los Alamos ECC

```
I=eye(2); % identity operator
H=[1 1;1 -1]; % Hadamard gate - for simplicity we neglect 1/sqrt(2)
R=-I; % pi-rotation

CNOT=[1 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 1
 0 0 1 0];
CCNOT=[1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1];
j;
```

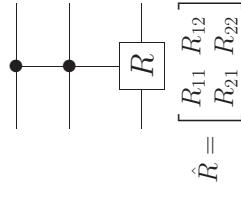
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### errors and their syndromes

| error    | syndrome<br>$ a'b'c'd'\rangle$ | resulting state<br>$ Q'\rangle$ |
|----------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| none     | 0000                           | $a 0\rangle + b 1\rangle$       |
| $X_3Z_3$ | 1101                           | $-a 1\rangle + b 0\rangle$      |
| $X_5Z_5$ | 1111                           | $-a 0\rangle + b 1\rangle$      |
| $X_2$    | 0001                           | $a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$       |
| $Z_3$    | 1010                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $Z_5$    | 1100                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $X_2Z_2$ | 0101                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $X_5$    | 0011                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $Z_1$    | 1000                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $Z_2$    | 0100                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $Z_4$    | 0010                           | $-a 0\rangle - b 1\rangle$      |
| $X_1$    | 0110                           | $-a 1\rangle - b 0\rangle$      |
| $X_3$    | 0111                           | $-a 1\rangle - b 0\rangle$      |
| $X_4$    | 1011                           | $-a 1\rangle - b 0\rangle$      |
| $X_1Z_1$ | 1110                           | $-a 1\rangle - b 0\rangle$      |
| $X_4Z_4$ | 1001                           | $-a 1\rangle - b 0\rangle$      |

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### double-controlled rotation: CCR



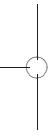
$$R = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$CCR = \hat{I} + |110\rangle\langle 110|(|R_{11}-1\rangle+|110\rangle\langle 111|R_{12}+|111\rangle\langle 111|R_{21}+|110\rangle\langle 111|R_{22}-1\rangle)$$

```
CCR= [1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 1 0 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 1 0
 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 1];
j;
```

input state  $|Q\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$ ,  $X_i$  – bit flip error,  $Z_i$  – phase flip error

### triple-controlled rotation: CCCC



$$CCCR = I + |110\rangle\langle 110|(R_{11}-1) + |110\rangle\langle 111|R_{12} + |111\rangle\langle 110|R_{21} + |111\rangle\langle 111|(R_{22}-1)$$

```

CCCR=eye(16)+...
ket([1 1 1 0])*bra([1 1 1 0])*(R(1,1)-1)+...
ket([1 1 1 0])*bra([1 1 1 1])*R(1,2) + ...
ket([1 1 1 1])*bra([1 1 1 0])*R(2,1) + ...
ket([1 1 1 1])*bra([1 1 1 1])*(R(2,2)-1);

```

$$\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$cCcR = \hat{I} + |0100\rangle\langle0100|(|R_{11}-1\rangle+|0100\rangle\langle0101|R_{12}+|0101\rangle\langle0100|R_{21}+|0101\rangle\langle0101|(R_{22}-1)$$

```
cCCR=eye(16)+...
ket([0 1 0 0])*bra([0 1 0 0])*(R(1,1)-1)+...
ket([0 1 0 0])*bra([0 1 0 1])*R(1,2) +...
ket([0 1 0 1])*bra([0 1 0 0])*R(2,1) +...
ket([0 1 0 1])*bra([0 1 0 1])*(R(2,2)-1);
```

CCCR gate explicitly

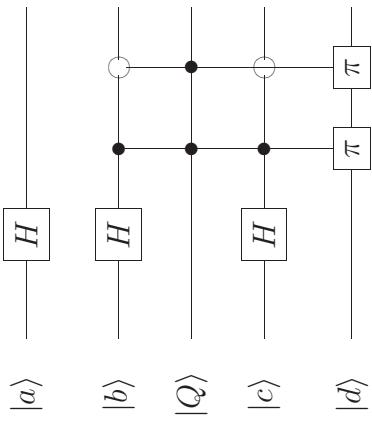
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cCCK gate explicitly

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## Los Alamos encoding circuit in Matlab

• gates 1, 2, 3



```
gate1=tensor_product(H,H,I,H,I);
gate2=tensor_product(I,CCCR);
gate3=tensor_product(I,ccCR);
```

1      2      3

```
CNOT12=tensor_product(CNOT,I,I,I);
SWAP23=tensor_product(I,SWAP,I,I);
SWAP34=tensor_product(I,I,SWAP,I);
SWAP45=tensor_product(I,I,I,SWAP);
SWAP25=SWAP23*SWAP34*SWAP45*SWAP34*SWAP23;

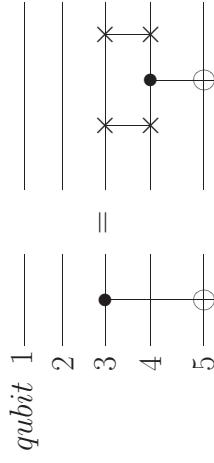
gate5=SWAP23*CNOT12*SWAP23*SWAP25*CNOT12*SWAP25;
```

```
CNOT45=tensor_product(I,I,I,CNOT);
gate5 = swap_qubits(swap_qubits(swap_qubits(CNOT45 , 5 , 3) , 4 , 1) * ...
```

```
swap_qubits(CNOT45 , 4 , 1));
```

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• gate 4

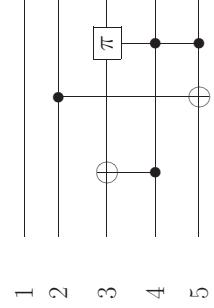


```
SWAP=[1 0 0 0
 0 0 1 0
 0 1 0 0
 0 0 0 1];
];
```

```
SWAP34=tensor_product(I,I,SWAP,I);
CNOT45=tensor_product(I,I,I,CNOT);
gate4=SWAP34*CNOT45*SWAP34;
```

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• gate 5



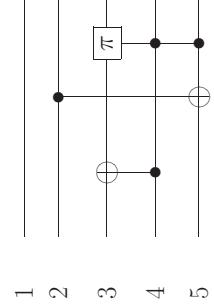
```
gate6=swap_qubits(CNOT45,5,3);
gate7=swap_qubits(CNOT45,4,2);

gate=tensor_product(I,I,CCR);
gate8=swap_qubits(gate,5,3);

6 7 8
```

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• gates 6,7,8



```
gate6=swap_qubits(CNOT45,5,3);
gate7=swap_qubits(CNOT45,4,2);

gate=tensor_product(I,I,CCR);
gate8=swap_qubits(gate,5,3);

6 7 8
```

```
gate6=swap_qubits(CNOT45,5,3);
gate7=swap_qubits(CNOT45,4,2);

gate=tensor_product(I,I,CCR);
gate8=swap_qubits(gate,5,3);

thus the encoding and decoding circuits are described by the operators
```

```
U_encoder=gate8*gate7*gate6*gate5*gate4*gate3*gate2*gate1*gate0;
U_decoder=gate8*gate7*gate6*gate5*gate4*gate3*gate2*gate1*gate0;
```

$\hat{U}_{\text{decoder}} = \hat{U}_{\text{encoder}}^\dagger$

input state to encoder

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = a|00000\rangle + b|00100\rangle$$

`psi_in=a*ket([0 0 0 0 0])+b*ket([0 0 1 0 0])`

```
psi_in'
ans = [a000b00000000000000000000000000];
```

$$|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = \hat{U}_{\text{encoder}} |\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$$

special case:  $a = 1, b = 0$

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**2. encoding qubit**  $|1\rangle_L$   
**ut state to encoder:**  $|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = |1\rangle$

special case for  $a = 0, b = 1$

```
psi_in'
ans = [00001000000000000000000000000000];
```

**output state**  $|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = |1\rangle_L$

```
psi_out'
ans = [000z0z0000z0100z00000100100001]
```

U\_decoder

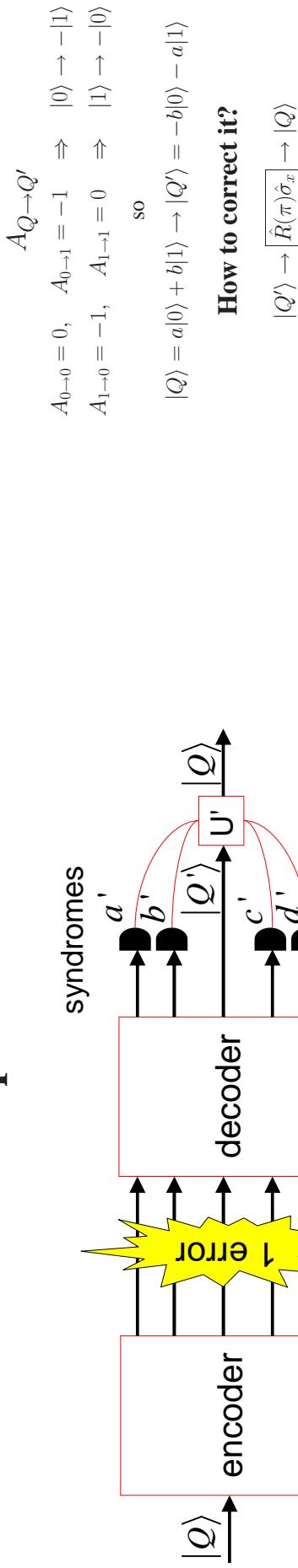
```
show_state(psi_out, '|1>_L = ')
ans = |1>_L = -|00011>-|00101>-|01010>+|01100>...
 -|10000>+|10110>+|11001>+|11111>
```

thus we have got  $|0\rangle_L$  and  $|1\rangle_L$  in agreement with our definition

# basic elements of the perfect ECC

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transition amplitudes  $|Q\rangle \rightarrow |Q'\rangle$



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Errors and their syndromes

example 1: bit flip of the 1st qubit

error

$$\hat{U}_{\text{error}} = \hat{\sigma}_x \otimes \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I}$$

```
sigma_x=[0,1;1,0];
U_error=tensor_product(sigma_x,I,I,I,I);
```

input state to encoder

$$|\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle = |abQcd\rangle = |00Q00\rangle$$

syndrome

$$|a'b'c'd'\rangle = |a'b'Q'c'd'\rangle = |01Q'10\rangle$$

transition amplitude

$$|Q\rangle = a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \rightarrow |Q'\rangle = a|0\rangle - b|1\rangle$$

so

**How to correct it?**

|                                                                       |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $ Q'\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{\hat{\sigma}_z} \rightarrow  Q\rangle$ |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|

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example 2: phase flip of the 3rd qubit

error

$$\hat{U}_{\text{error}} = \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I} \otimes \hat{\sigma}_z \otimes \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I}$$

```
sigma_z=[1,0;0,-1];
U_error=tensor_product(I,I,sigma_z,I,I);
```

syndrome

```
psi_syndrome=ket([1 0 Q_prime 1 0]);
```

transition amplitudes  $|Q\rangle \rightarrow |Q'\rangle$

|                                                                                                  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $A_{0 \rightarrow 0} = 1, A_{0 \rightarrow 1} = 0 \Rightarrow  0\rangle \rightarrow  0\rangle$   |
| $A_{1 \rightarrow 0} = 0, A_{1 \rightarrow 1} = -1 \Rightarrow  1\rangle \rightarrow - 1\rangle$ |

so

**How to correct it?**

|                                                                       |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $ Q'\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{\hat{\sigma}_x} \rightarrow  Q\rangle$ |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|

|                                                                                                                                                               |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $A_{Q \rightarrow Q'} = \langle \psi_{\text{syndrome}}   \hat{U}_{\text{decoder}} \hat{U}_{\text{error}} \hat{U}_{\text{encoder}}   \psi_{\text{in}} \rangle$ |
| $\psi_{\text{in}} = \text{ket}([0 0 Q 0 0]);$                                                                                                                 |
| $\psi_{\text{syndrome}} = \text{ket}([0 1 Q\_prime 1 0]);$                                                                                                    |
| $\text{amplitude} = \text{psi\_syndrome}' * \text{U\_decoder}' * \text{U\_error}' * \text{U\_encoder}' * \text{psi\_in}$                                      |

## 5. Quantum control:

[Knill, Laflamme, Zurek et al., 2002]

### 1. Scalable physical systems:

- the ability to support any number of independent qubits.

### 2. State preparation:

- the ability to prepare any qubit (or at least large fraction of them) in the standard initial state  $|0\rangle$ .

### 3. Measurement:

- the ability to measure any qubit (or at least large fraction of them) in the logical basis.

**Note:** sometimes the **standard projective measurement** can be replaced by **weak measurements** that return a noisy number whose expectation is the probability that a qubit is in the state  $|1\rangle$ .

### accuracy-threshold theorem

Assuming the above requirements for scalable QIP:

If the error per gate is less than a **threshold**,  
then it is possible to efficiently quantum compute arbitrarily accurately.

This is one of the most important results in quantum ECC and fault-tolerant computation.

### 4. Errors:

The error probability per gate must be below a **threshold** and satisfy **independence** and **locality** properties.

- For the most **pessimistic** independent, local error models, the error threshold is above  $\sim 10^{-6}$ .

For some **special error models**, the threshold is substantially higher.

For example:

- For the **independent depolarizing error model**, it is believed to be better than  $\sim 10^{-4}$ .
- For the **independent ‘erasure’ error model**, where error events are always detected, the threshold is above .01.
- The threshold is also above .01 when the goal is only to **transmit quantum information** through noisy quantum channels.

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## Introduction to quantum algorithms (part I)

quantum algorithms and classical cryptography  
public key cryptography (PKC)

# quantum algorithms and cryptography

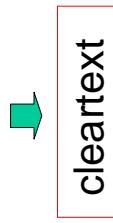
## symmetric algorithms

1985 **Deutsch (Deutsch-Jozsa / DJ)** algorithm:  
How to see both sides of a coin simultaneously?

1994 **Shor** algorithm for number factorization:  
How to break cryptosystems of  
RSA, Rabin, Williams, Blum-Goldwasser, ...?

1994 **Shor** algorithm for finding discrete logarithms:  
How to break ElGamal cryptosystem?

1997 **Grover** algorithm for searching databases:  
How to search the keys more effectively?



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public-key cryptography (PKC)  
= asymmetric cryptography

= non-secret encryption

invented by Ellis (1970, British CESG)

and independently by Diffie & Hellman (1976)

**two keys in PKC**

1. public, open key
  2. private, confidential key
- without additional information, it is not always possible to decrypt by repeating encryption operations in reverse order

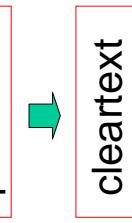
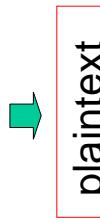
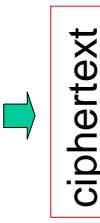
$$f(\text{in}) = \text{out}, \quad \text{but} \quad f^{-1}(\text{out}) = ?$$

**example**

$$y = 17 \bmod 3 \Rightarrow y = 2 \text{ (unique result)}$$

$$x \bmod 3 = 2 \Rightarrow x = 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, \dots \text{ (not unique result)}$$

**asymmetric algorithms**  
= **public-key algorithms**



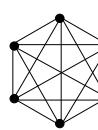
## Encryption with a secure channel for key exchange

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- a problem of huge number of keys for symmetric algorithms.

- How many keys should be generated for  $N$  correspondents if everyone wants to communicate with all others using symmetric algorithms?



$$n_{\text{sym}}(N) = \binom{N}{2} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$

$$n_{\text{sym}}(6) = 15$$

- How many keys are required for 6 or 1 million correspondents?

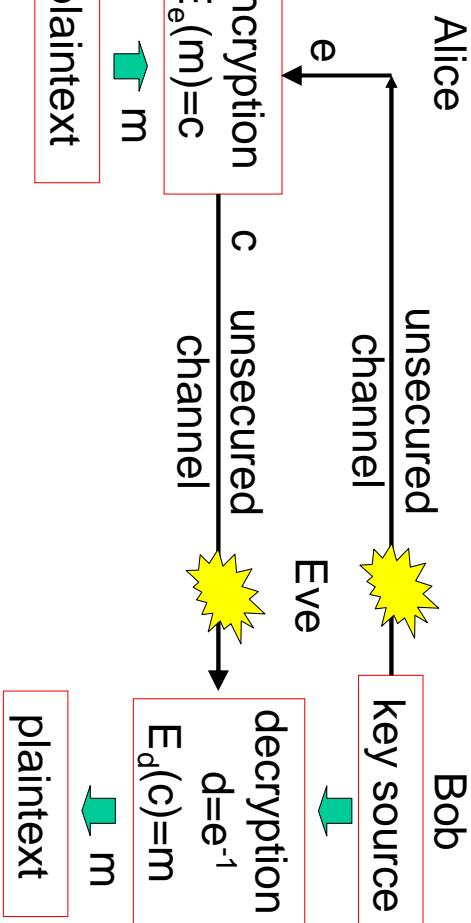
$$n_{\text{sym}}(10^6) \approx \frac{10^{12}}{2}$$

- How many keys are required asymmetric algorithms?

$$n_{\text{asym}}(N) = 2N$$

## Encryption with a unsecured channel for key exchange

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### popular public-key encryption schemes based on integer factorization problem

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| public-key encryption scheme           | computational problem                                                   |
|----------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| RSA<br>(Rivest-Shamir-Adleman & Cocks) | integer factorization problem                                           |
| Rabin                                  | integer factorization problem                                           |
| Williams                               | integer factorization problem                                           |
| Blum-Goldwasser probabilistic          | integer factorization problem                                           |
| Goldwasser-Micali probabilistic        | quadratic residuosity problem or integer factorization problem          |
| ElGamal                                | discrete logarithm problem or integer factorization problem             |
| generalized ElGamal                    | generalized discrete logarithm problem or integer factorization problem |

## Why do we need PKC?

### Number of keys

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**popular public-key encryption schemes**  
**not based on integer factorization problem**

| public-key encryption scheme                          | computational problem                                                  |
|-------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| McEliece                                              | linear code decoding problem<br>or error-correction-code problem       |
| Merkle-Hellman                                        | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>cracked by Shamir &amp; Zippel!</i>  |
| Graham-Shamir                                         | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>cracked!</i>                         |
| Lu-Lee                                                | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>cracked by Adleman &amp; Rivest!</i> |
| Goodman-McAuley                                       | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>cracked!</i>                         |
| Powerline System<br>(a simple version of Chor-Rivest) | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>cracked by Lenstra!</i>              |
| Chor-Rivest                                           | knapsack subset sum problem<br><i>publicly not cracked!</i>            |

## Motivation for Shor's Algorithm

### - effectiveness of classical integer factorization methods

What is the time or number of bit operations required to factorize  $n$ ?

#### 1. direct method

$$\sim \sqrt{n} = \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} \log n\right)$$

#### 2. Monte Carlo method (Pollard method)

$$\sim n^{1/4} \log^3 n$$

#### 3,4. Fermat method and quadratic sieve method

$$\sim \exp(c\sqrt{r \log r}), \text{ where } r \sim \log n \text{ is the number of bits}$$

thus

$$\sim \exp(c\sqrt{\log n(\log \log n)})$$

#### 5. number field sieve method

$$\sim \exp(c\sqrt[3]{\log n(\log \log n)^2})$$

This is the fastest publicly available ;-) classical method for  $r \geq 150$ .

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## effectiveness of classical factorization methods

exponential in time,  $\exp(\log n)$

## effectiveness of quantum factorization methods

polynomial in time,  $\text{poly}(\log n)$

- original Shor algorithm

$$\sim (\log n)^3$$

- optimized Shor algorithm

$$\sim (\log n)^2 \log \log n$$

and  $\log n$  steps of post processing on a classical computer.

## our estimations

Thus, we estimate numbers of operations required to factorize  $n$  as:

$$N_{\text{Shor}}(n) = c_1 (\log n)^2 \log(\log n) + c_2 \log n$$

$$N_{\text{clas}}(n) = c_3 \exp[c(\log n)^{1/3}(\log \log n)^{2/3}]$$

with  $c = 2$  in the fastest version of number field sieve method due to Lenstra

for simplicity, we choose:  $c_3 = 1$

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## “easy” and “hard” computational problems

should be interpreted relative to a specified frame of reference.

### easy = computationally feasible

- in polynomial time and space

- practically, within a certain number of machine operations or time units
  - perhaps seconds or milliseconds.

### hard = computationally infeasible

- require super-polynomial time or space

- practically, exceeding the specified bound on the number of operations or memory corresponding to a specified security parameter

## hard problems in PKC

by having only one key it is *practically* impossible to calculate the other key using *practically* available computers over *practically* long period of time.

## examples of factorization times

**MIPS** = millions of instructions per second

- 1-10 MIPS in a modest PC
- hundreds-thousands of MIPS in a supercomputer
- say,  $N' = 10^6$  MIPS are available in contemporary computers

time required to factorize  $n$

| $t(n) = N(n)$     | /N'           | /60                                      | /60   | /24                 | /365                   |
|-------------------|---------------|------------------------------------------|-------|---------------------|------------------------|
|                   | sec           | min                                      | hours | days                | years                  |
| 1. $n = 10^{130}$ | $\Rightarrow$ | $N_{\text{clas}} \sim 3.5 \cdot 10^{12}$ | MIPS  | $\rightarrow 40.5$  | days $\approx 1$ month |
| 2. $n = 10^{150}$ | $\Rightarrow$ | $N_{\text{clas}} \sim 5.9 \cdot 10^{13}$ | MIPS  | $\rightarrow 687.5$ | days $\approx 2$ years |
| 3. $n = 10^{300}$ | $\Rightarrow$ | $N_{\text{clas}} \sim 7.0 \cdot 10^{20}$ | MIPS  | $\rightarrow 22.5$  | mln years              |

### examples

classical RSA algorithm  
 quantum Deutsch algorithm  
 quantum Deutsch-Jozsa (DJ) algorithm  
 quantum Hadamard transform  
 quantum Fourier transform

## Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (RSA) algorithm (1978)

### I. generation of RSA keys (by Bob)

1. direct method  
 $N = 10^{60} \Rightarrow T \approx 3.17 \cdot 10^{10} > T_{\text{universe}}$
2. Monte Carlo method (Pollard method)  
 $N = 10^{91} \Rightarrow T \approx 1.6 \cdot 10^{10} > T_{\text{universe}}$

### 3,4. Fermat method and quadratic sieve method

$$N = 10^{94} \Rightarrow T \approx 1.36 \cdot 10^{10} > T_{\text{universe}}$$

### 5. number field sieve method

$$N = 10^{400} \Rightarrow T \approx 8.1 \cdot 10^{10} > T_{\text{universe}}$$

$$N = 10^{375} \Rightarrow T \approx 1.18 \cdot 10^{10} < T_{\text{universe}}$$

## Introduction to quantum algorithms (part II)

- public key -**  $(n, e)$   
**private key -**  $d$
- cryptographic terms:  
 $n$  - modulus  
 $e$  – encryption exponent  
 $d$  – decryption exponent

## II. RSA encryption (by Alice)

encrypt your message with the public key  $(n, e)$

1. change cleartext into plaintext represented by an integer

$$m \in \langle 0, n - 1 \rangle$$

2. calculate

$$c = m^e \bmod n$$

3. send a cipher  $c$  to Bob

## III. RSA decryption (by Bob)

use your private key  $d$  to calculate

$$m = c^d \bmod n$$

### A note

It has been revealed only very recently that the RSA algorithm has been devised already in 1973 by **Cocks** for the British security agency CESG.

## extended Euclidean algorithm

$$\text{GCD}(a, b) = d = ax + by \quad x, y, d = ?$$

```

initial x1=y2=0; x2=y1=1
while b>0
 q = Int(a/b)
 r = a - q b
 x1 = x2 -q x1; x2 = x1
 y1 = y2 -q y1; y2 = y1
 a = b
 b = r
return (d,x,y)=(a, x2, y2)

```

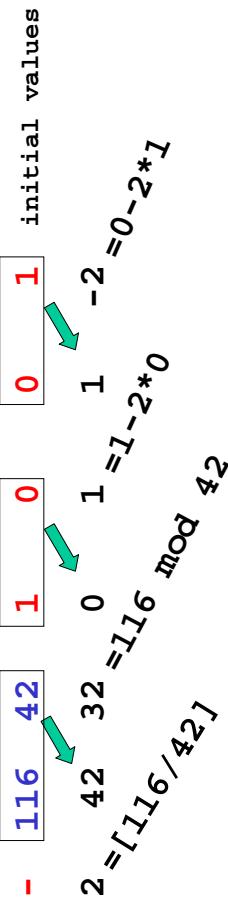
a,b,x,y,d - integers

$$\text{GCD}(116, 42) = d = ax + by ?$$

how to calculate  
the greatest common divisor (GCD)?  
Euclidean algorithm

$$\text{GCD}(116, 42) = ?$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 116 \mod 42 = 32 \\
 42 \mod 32 = 10 \\
 32 \mod 10 = 2 \\
 10 \mod 2 = 0
 \end{array}$$



Answer: 2

$$QCD(116,42) = d = ax + by ?$$

inverse of an integer modulo 9

problem:  $8^{-1} \text{ mod } 9 = ?$

$$8y=1 \text{ mod } 9 \Rightarrow 9y+8y=1 \text{ mod } 9$$

| q | a   | b  | $x_2$ | $x_1$ | $y_2$ | $y_1$ |
|---|-----|----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| - | 116 | 42 | 1     | 0     | 0     | 1     |
| 2 | 42  | 32 | 0     | 1     | 1     | -2    |
| 1 | 32  | 10 | 1     | -1    | -2    | 3     |
| 3 | 10  | 2  | -1    | 4     | 3     | -11   |
| 5 | 2   | 0  | 4     | -21   | -11   | 58    |
|   |     |    |       |       |       |       |
| d | x   | y  |       |       |       |       |

answer:

| q | a | b | $x_2$ | $x_1$ | $y_2$ | $y_1$ |
|---|---|---|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| - | 9 | 8 | 0     | 1     |       |       |
| 1 | 8 | 1 | 1     | 1     |       |       |
| 8 | 1 | 0 |       |       |       |       |
|   |   |   |       |       |       |       |

so  $9^*1 + 8^*(-1)=1$  &  $y=-1=8 \text{ mod } 9$   
thus  $8$  is the inverse of itself mod 9

$$8=8^{-1} \text{ mod } 9$$

$$8*8 = 1 \text{ mod } 9$$

multiplicative or modular  
inverse of an integer

problem:  $4^{-1} \text{ mod } 9 = ?$

$$4y=1 \text{ mod } 9 \Rightarrow 9x+4y=1 \text{ mod } 9$$

| q | a | b | $x_2$ | $x_1$ |
|---|---|---|-------|-------|
| - | 9 | 4 | 0     | 1     |

| q | a | b | $x_2$ | $x_1$ |
|---|---|---|-------|-------|
| - | 9 | 4 | 0     | 1     |
| 2 | 4 | 1 | 1     | -2    |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | -2    | .     |

so  $9^*1 + 4^*(-2)=1$  &  $y=-2=7 \text{ mod } 9$   
thus  $7$  is the inverse of  $4 \text{ mod } 9$

$$4^*7=1 \text{ mod } 9$$

all invertible elements modulo 9  
 $Z_9^*=\{1,2,4,5,7,8\}$

n is invertible  $\Leftrightarrow \text{GCD}(n,9)=1$

## How to calculate powers modulo $n$ ?

$$b = a^k \bmod n = ? \quad \text{if } n \in I; a, k \in \mathbb{Z}_n$$

### Algorithm

if  $k = 0$  then  $b = 1$

else begin

$$A = a$$

convert  $k$  into binary form  $k = \sum_{i=0}^j k_i 2^i$

$$b = A^{k_0}$$

for  $i = 1$  to  $j$  do begin

$$A = A^2 \bmod n$$

$$b = b \cdot A^{k_i} \bmod n$$

end

return( $b$ )

- *Mathematica:* `b=PowerMod[a,k,n]`

- efficient Euclidean algorithm

|     |     |    |   |   |
|-----|-----|----|---|---|
| 160 | mod | 13 | = | 4 |
| 13  | mod | 4  | = | 1 |
| 4   | mod | #1 | = | 0 |

$$\Rightarrow \text{GCD}(160, 13) = 1$$

- 3. Bob calculates  $d$  using the extended Euclidean algorithm

|      |        |     |       |       |
|------|--------|-----|-------|-------|
| $q'$ | $\phi$ | $e$ | $y_2$ | $y_1$ |
| -    | 160    | 13  | 0     | 1     |
| 12   | 13     | 4   | 1     | -12   |
| 3    | 4      | 1   | -12   | 37    |
| 4    | 1      | 0   | 37    | .     |

$$\Rightarrow d = 37$$

- 4. he double checks that  $d$  is the multiplicative inverse of  $e$ :

$$de = 13 \cdot 37 = 481 \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$$

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## Example of RSA application

### I. RSA key generation

Bob chooses  $p=11, q=17, e=13$

(artificially small numbers so completely insecure)

1. Bob calculates

$$n = pq = 11 \cdot 17 = 187$$

$$\phi = (p-1)(q-1) = 10 \cdot 16 = 160$$

2. Bob checks whether  $\phi$  are  $e$  are coprime:

|    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |
|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|
| 01 | A | 02 | A | 03 | B | 04 | C | 05 | C | 06 | D | 07 | E | 08 | F | 09 | G |
| 11 | H | 12 | I | 13 | J | 14 | K | 15 | L | 16 | M | 17 | N | 18 | N | 19 | O |
| 21 | O | 22 | P | 23 | Q | 24 | R | 25 | S | 26 | S | 27 | T | 28 | U | 29 | V |
| 31 | X | 32 | Y | 33 | Z | 34 | Z | 35 | Z | 36 | _ | 37 | _ | 38 | ? | 39 | W |

|                                                                             |                                                                                                                      |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Alice converts her cleartext into the plaintext:<br>$m = (01, 17) = 117$ | 2. Alice calculates cipher using the public key $(n, e) = (187, 13)$ :<br>$c = m^e \bmod n = 117^{13} \bmod 187 = ?$ |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

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- 5. so Bob has generated the keys:

$$\text{public key } (n, e) = (187, 13)$$

$$\text{private key } d = 37$$

or vice versa

$$\text{public key } (n, d) = (187, 37)$$

$$\text{private key } e = 13$$

### II. RSA encryption

Assume that Alice wants to encrypt the following cleartext: "AM" :-)  
using, for example, the following public alphabet:

|    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |    |   |
|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|----|---|
| 01 | A | 02 | A | 03 | B | 04 | C | 05 | C | 06 | D | 07 | E | 08 | F | 09 | G |
| 11 | H | 12 | I | 13 | J | 14 | K | 15 | L | 16 | M | 17 | N | 18 | N | 19 | O |
| 21 | O | 22 | P | 23 | Q | 24 | R | 25 | S | 26 | S | 27 | T | 28 | U | 29 | V |
| 31 | X | 32 | Y | 33 | Z | 34 | Z | 35 | Z | 36 | _ | 37 | _ | 38 | ? | 39 | W |

|                                                                             |                                                                                                                      |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Alice converts her cleartext into the plaintext:<br>$m = (01, 17) = 117$ | 2. Alice calculates cipher using the public key $(n, e) = (187, 13)$ :<br>$c = m^e \bmod n = 117^{13} \bmod 187 = ?$ |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

- inefficient direct method
- GCD( $\phi, e$ ) = GCD(160, 13) = GCD( $2^5 \cdot 5, 13$ ) = 1  $\Rightarrow$  OK
- Alice calculates cipher using the public key  $(n, e) = (187, 13)$ :

$$13 = (1101)_2$$

|       |     |                       |                               |                              |
|-------|-----|-----------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| $i$   | 0   | 1                     | 2                             | 3                            |
| $e_i$ | 1   | 0                     | 1                             | 1                            |
| $A^2$ | 117 | $117^2 \equiv 38$     | $38^2 \equiv 135$             | $135^2 \equiv 86 \pmod{187}$ |
| $c$   | 117 | $117 * 135 \equiv 87$ | $87 * 86 \equiv 2 \pmod{187}$ |                              |

so the cipher is  $c = 2$

- *Mathematica*:  $\text{PowerMod}[117, 13, 187] \hookrightarrow 2$

### III. RSA decryption

1. Bob calculates  $m = c^d \pmod{n} = 2^{37} \pmod{187}$

$$d = 37 = (100101)_2$$

|       |   |   |    |                  |                                  |                              |
|-------|---|---|----|------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| $i$   | 0 | 1 | 2  | 3                | 4                                | 5                            |
| $d_i$ | 1 | 0 | 1  | 0                | 0                                | 1                            |
| $A^2$ | 2 | 4 | 16 | $16^2 \equiv 69$ | $69^2 \equiv 86$                 | $86^2 \equiv 103 \pmod{187}$ |
| $m$   | 2 | 2 | 32 | 32               | $32 * 103 \equiv 117 \pmod{187}$ |                              |

2. thus he finds Alice's message to be

$$m = 117 = (01, 17) = \text{,,AM"} \quad \square$$

## lengths of public keys

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### How Eve can crack the RSA cryptosystem?

By factorizing  $n$ :

If Eve can factorize  $n = pq$  then she can calculate  $\phi = (p-1)(q-1)$

and thus can calculate Bob's private key  $d$

### Why is the RSA believed to be secure for large integers?

There is seemingly no efficient

- (i.e., polynomial-time and polynomial-space) classical algorithm for integer factorization.

### RSA hypothesis (1978)

Any general method of cracking the RSA cryptosystem which enables finding private key  $d$  from public key  $(n, e)$  requires an efficient algorithm for integer factorization.

### Note

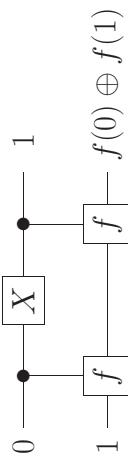
There is still no proof of this hypothesis.

to be secure against attacks of  
(a) a single person, (b) private agencies, (c) national security agencies:

| year | Length in bits => |      |      | Length in decimal digits |     |     |
|------|-------------------|------|------|--------------------------|-----|-----|
|      | (a)               | (b)  | (c)  | (a)                      | (b) | (c) |
| 1995 | 768               | 1280 | 1536 | 231                      | 386 | 463 |
| 2000 | 1024              | 1280 | 1536 | 308                      | 386 | 463 |
| 2005 | 1280              | 1536 | 2048 | 386                      | 463 | 617 |
| 2010 | 1280              | 1536 | 2048 | 386                      | 463 | 617 |
| 2015 | 1536              | 2048 | 2048 | 463                      | 617 | 617 |

## classical solution

2 queries + 1 auxiliary operation



RSA and majority of public-key cryptosystems would be **insecure** if we could implement efficiently:

- Shor's algorithm

on a large quantum computer

or

- Adleman's algorithm  
on a DNA computer.

## main idea

$|0\rangle \xrightarrow{H} |0\rangle \xrightarrow{Z^k} |\delta_{k1}\rangle$  ( $k = 0, 1$ )

or

$(-1)^{f(x)}$

$|0\rangle \xrightarrow{H} |0\rangle \xrightarrow{H} |\delta_{k1}\rangle$  for constant  $f$  &  $|1\rangle$  for balanced  $f$

$|-\rangle \xrightarrow{f} |-\rangle$

## different symbols for the same gate



## a Deutsch problem

Given an oracle (black box) that computes a **Boolean function**

$f(x) : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

How many questions one should ask the oracle to check whether  $f$  is constant or balanced?

or

Can you check whether a coin is real or fake by a single observation?

## balanced and constant functions

|          |              |              |
|----------|--------------|--------------|
| constant | $f_1(0) = 0$ | $f_1(1) = 0$ |
|          | $f_2(0) = 1$ | $f_2(1) = 1$ |
| balanced | $f_3(0) = 0$ | $f_3(1) = 1$ |
|          | $f_4(0) = 1$ | $f_4(1) = 0$ |

## Deutsch algorithm

We neglect normalization thus sign ‘ $\sim$ ’ is used.

**case I:**  $f(0) = f(1) = 0$

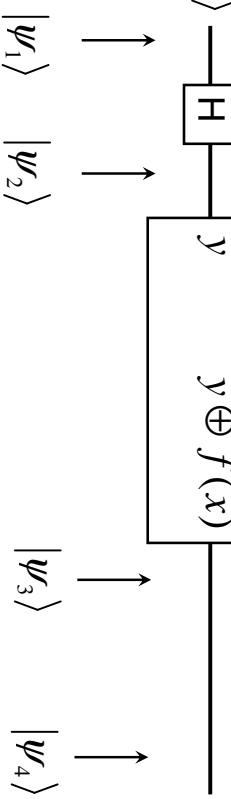
$$\begin{array}{c} |0\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{H}} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \xrightarrow{\text{H}} |1\rangle \end{array} \xrightarrow{x} U_f \xrightarrow{x} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H}$$

$$\sim |\psi_3\rangle \sim |0, 0 \oplus 0\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus 0\rangle + |1, 0 \oplus 0\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus 0\rangle$$

$$= |0, 0\rangle - |0, 1\rangle + |1, 0\rangle - |1, 1\rangle$$

$$= |0\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) + |1\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

$$\sim |+\rangle|-\rangle$$



**case II:**  $f(0) = f(1) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_3\rangle &\sim |0, 0 \oplus 1\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus 1\rangle + |1, 0 \oplus 1\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus 1\rangle \\ &= |0, 1\rangle - |0, 0\rangle + |1, 1\rangle - |1, 0\rangle \\ &= -|0\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) - |1\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \\ &\sim -|+\rangle|-\rangle \end{aligned}$$

so

$$f(0) = f(1) \Rightarrow |\psi_3\rangle = \pm|+\rangle|-\rangle$$

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### Deutsch algorithm

**1. prepare input state**

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle|1\rangle$$

**2. apply Hadamard gates (create equal superposition)**

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_2\rangle &= \hat{H}^{\otimes 2}|\psi_1\rangle = |+\rangle|-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle - |01\rangle + |10\rangle - |11\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

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**case III:**  $f(0) = 0, f(1) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_3\rangle &\sim |0, 0 \oplus f(0)\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus f(0)\rangle + |1, 0 \oplus f(1)\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus f(1)\rangle \\ &= |0, 0 \oplus 0\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus 0\rangle + |1, 0 \oplus 1\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus 1\rangle \\ &= |0, 0\rangle - |0, 1\rangle + |1, 1\rangle - |1, 0\rangle \\ &= |0\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) + |1\rangle(|1\rangle - |0\rangle) \\ &\sim |0\rangle|-\rangle - |1\rangle|-\rangle \\ &\sim |-\rangle|-\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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**case IV:**  $f(0) = 1, f(1) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_3\rangle &= \hat{U}_f|\psi_2\rangle \\ &\sim \hat{U}_f|00\rangle - \hat{U}_f|01\rangle + \hat{U}_f|10\rangle - \hat{U}_f|11\rangle \\ &= |0, 0 \oplus f(0)\rangle - |0, 1 \oplus f(0)\rangle + |1, 0 \oplus f(1)\rangle - |1, 1 \oplus f(1)\rangle \\ &= |0, 1\rangle - |0, 0\rangle + |1, 0\rangle - |1, 1\rangle \\ &= -|0\rangle(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) - |1\rangle(|1\rangle - |0\rangle) \\ &\sim |-\rangle|-\rangle \end{aligned}$$

so

$$f(0) \neq f(1) \Rightarrow |\psi_3\rangle = \pm|-\rangle|-\rangle$$

#### 4. apply Hadamard gates

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \hat{H} \otimes \hat{I} |\psi_3\rangle$$

cases I & II:

$$f(0) = f(1) \Rightarrow |\psi_4\rangle = \pm \hat{H} \otimes \hat{I} |+\rangle |-\rangle = \pm |0\rangle |-\rangle = \pm |f(0) \oplus f(1)\rangle |-\rangle$$

cases III & IV:

$$f(0) \neq f(1) \Rightarrow |\psi_4\rangle = \pm \hat{H} \otimes \hat{I} |-\rangle |-\rangle = \pm |1\rangle |-\rangle = \pm |f(0) \oplus f(1)\rangle |-\rangle$$

thus we have for any case:

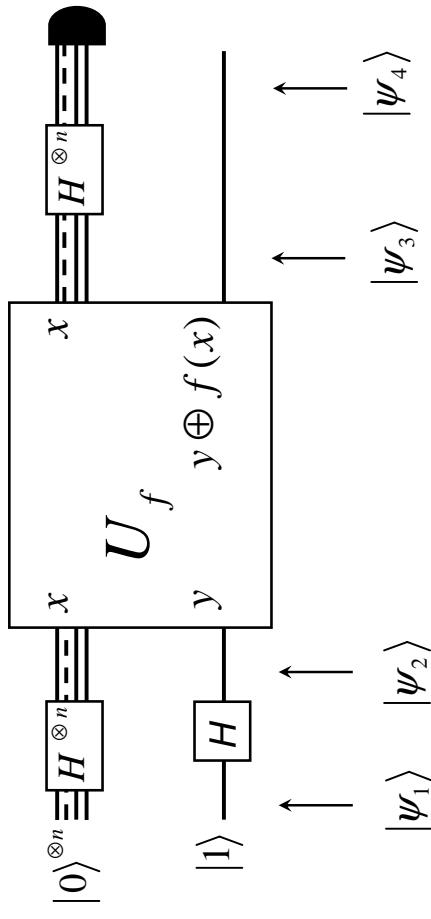
$$|\psi_4\rangle = \pm |f(0) \oplus f(1)\rangle |-\rangle \equiv |x\rangle |y\rangle$$

5. measure only the 1st register

$$\begin{aligned} x = 0 \Rightarrow f(0) &= f(1) \\ x = 1 \Rightarrow f(0) &\neq f(1) \end{aligned}$$

QED

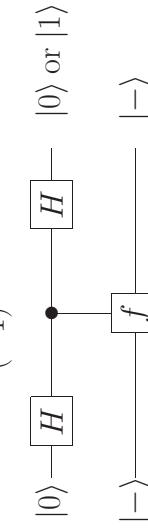
#### Deutsch-Jozsa (DJ) algorithm



#### 394 Some remarks on Deutsch algorithm

- top qubit undergoes a single-qubit interference

$$(-1)^{f(x)}$$

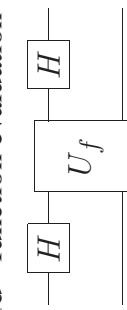


- relative phases are introduced by the function evaluation

- lower qubit is an ancilla – it is not measured and can be discarded after function evaluation

- a sequence of gates

Hadamard - function evaluation - Hadamard



is a common pattern in quantum algorithms

#### 396 Deutsch-Jozsa (DJ) algorithm for 3 qubits

- 1. prepare input state

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes 2} |1\rangle = |001\rangle$$

- 2. apply Hadamard gates

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_2\rangle &= \hat{H}^{\otimes (2+1)} |\psi_1\rangle \\ &= |+\rangle^{\otimes 2} |-\rangle \\ &= \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle |0\rangle + |1\rangle |0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(|100\rangle + |011\rangle + |101\rangle + |110\rangle - (|001\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |111\rangle)) \\ &\sim |000\rangle + |010\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle \\ &\quad - (|001\rangle + |011\rangle + |101\rangle + |111\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

### 3. apply $\hat{U}_f$ gate

$$|\psi_3\rangle \sim |00, 0 \oplus f(00)\rangle + |01, 0 \oplus f(01)\rangle \\ + |10, 0 \oplus f(10)\rangle + |11, 0 \oplus f(11)\rangle$$

$$- \left( |00, 1 \oplus f(00)\rangle + |01, 1 \oplus f(01)\rangle \right. \\ \left. + |10, 1 \oplus f(10)\rangle + |11, 1 \oplus f(11)\rangle \right)$$

### 4. apply Hadamard gates

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \hat{H}^{\otimes 2} \otimes \hat{I} |\psi_3\rangle$$

\*. let's analyze all cases for different functions  $f$

number of cases

$$N_{\text{cases}} = C_0^4 + C_4^4 + C_2^4 = 1 + 1 + 6 = 8$$

where  $|\{00, 01, 10, 11\}| = 4$

$C_n^m$  – binomial coefficient

so

$$|\psi_4\rangle = (\hat{H}^{\otimes 2} \otimes \hat{I}) |\psi_3\rangle \sim (\hat{H}^{\otimes 2} \otimes \hat{I}) |-, +, -\rangle = |1, 0, -\rangle$$

**case 1:** (trivial)

$$f(00) = f(01) = f(10) = f(11) = 0$$

$$|\psi_4\rangle = (\hat{I} \otimes \hat{H}) |\psi_1\rangle = |00-\rangle$$

**case 2:** (trivial)

$$f(00) = f(01) = f(10) = f(11) = 1$$

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \hat{U}_f |\psi_2\rangle \\ = \hat{U}_f \left( |00\rangle + |10\rangle + |01\rangle + |11\rangle \right) \left( |0\rangle - |1\rangle \right) \\ = \left( |00\rangle + |10\rangle + |01\rangle + |11\rangle \right) \left( |1\rangle - |0\rangle \right) \\ = -|\psi_2\rangle$$

so

$$|\psi_4\rangle = -(\hat{I} \otimes \hat{H}) |\psi_1\rangle = -|00-\rangle$$

**case 3:**

$$f(00) = 0, f(01) = 0, f(10) = 1, f(11) = 1$$

$$|\psi_3\rangle \sim |00, 0 \oplus 0\rangle + |01, 0 \oplus 0\rangle + |10, 0 \oplus 1\rangle + |11, 0 \oplus 1\rangle \\ - (|00, 1 \oplus 0\rangle + |01, 1 \oplus 0\rangle + |10, 1 \oplus 1\rangle + |11, 1 \oplus 1\rangle)$$

$$= |000\rangle + |010\rangle + |101\rangle + |111\rangle$$

$$- (|001\rangle + |011\rangle + |100\rangle + |110\rangle)$$

$$= (|00\rangle - |10\rangle + |01\rangle - |11\rangle) (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

$$= (|0\rangle - |1\rangle) (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

$$\sim |-, +, -\rangle$$

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**all cases in DJ algorithm for 3 qubits**

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| case | f(00) | f(01) | f(10) | f(11) | $ x_1, x_2, y\rangle$ | $ \mathbf{x}, y\rangle$ | answer   |
|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------|
| 1.   | 0     | 0     | 0     | 0     | $ 00-\rangle$         | $ 0-\rangle$            | constant |
| 2.   | 1     | 1     | 1     | 1     | $ 00-\rangle$         | $ 0-\rangle$            |          |
| 3.   | 0     | 0     | 1     | 1     | $ 10-\rangle$         | $ 2-\rangle$            |          |
| 4.   | 0     | 1     | 0     | 1     | $ 01-\rangle$         | $ 1-\rangle$            |          |
| 5.   | 0     | 1     | 1     | 0     | $ 10-\rangle$         | $ 11-\rangle$           |          |
| 6.   | 1     | 0     | 0     | 1     | $ 11-\rangle$         | $ 3-\rangle$            | balanced |
| 7.   | 1     | 0     | 1     | 0     | $ 01-\rangle$         | $ 3-\rangle$            |          |
| 8.   | 1     | 1     | 0     | 0     | $ 10-\rangle$         | $ 2-\rangle$            |          |

$$\mathbf{x} \equiv (x_1, x_2) \cong 2x_1 + x_2$$

## Matlab program

```

H=[1 1 1 -1] ;Norm=1/8 ;
f=[
 0 0 0
 1 1 1
 0 0 1
 0 1 0
 0 1 1
 1 0 0
 1 0 1
 1 1 0
];
for n=1:8,
 f00=f(n,1);f01=f(n,2);f10=f(n,3);f11=f(n,4);

 psi3=ket([0,0,f00])+ket([0,1,f01])+ket([1,0,f10])+ket([1,1,f11])...
 -ket([0,0,1-f00])+ket([0,1,1-f01])+ket([1,0,1-f10])+ket([1,1,1-f11]);
 psi4=Norm*tensor_product(H,H,H)*psi3; % for clarity we add extra H gate
 vector2ket(psi4)
end;

```

f00=f(n,1);f01=f(n,2);f10=f(n,3);f11=f(n,4);

psi3=ket([0,0,f00])+ket([0,1,f01])+ket([1,0,f10])+ket([1,1,f11])...  
 $-ket([0,0,1-f00])+ket([0,1,1-f01])+ket([1,0,1-f10])+ket([1,1,1-f11])$ )  
 psi4=Norm\*tensor\_product(H,H,H)\*psi3; % for clarity we add extra H gate  
 vector2ket(psi4)

end;

## quantum Hadamard transform

### 1. How to generate equal (equally-weighted) superposition

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}^{\otimes 2}|00\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle) \\
 &\equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^2} |\mathbf{x}\rangle \\
 &\equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x}=0}^3 |\mathbf{x}\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

in general

$$\hat{H}^{\otimes n}|0\rangle^{\otimes n} = \hat{H}^{\otimes n}|\mathbf{0}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle$$

where  $N = 2^n$  and  $x = 2^n x_1 + 2^{n-1} x_2 + \dots + x_n z_n$

$$\sum_{\mathbf{x}} = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} = \sum_{x_1=0}^1 \sum_{x_2=0}^1 \dots \sum_{x_n=0}^1 = \sum_{x=0}^{N-1}$$

## 2. How to compactly write the quantum Hadamard transform

- for a single qubit

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}|0\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z=0}^1 (-1)^{0 \cdot z} |z\rangle \\
 \hat{H}|1\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z=0}^1 (-1)^{1 \cdot z} |z\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

combining together

$$\hat{H}|x_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z_1=0}^1 (-1)^{x_1 \cdot z_1} |z_1\rangle$$

- for two qubits

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}^{\otimes 2}|x_1 x_2\rangle &= \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z_1=0}^1 (-1)^{x_1 \cdot z_1} |z_1\rangle \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z_2=0}^1 (-1)^{x_2 \cdot z_2} |z_2\rangle \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^2}} \sum_{z_1=0}^1 \sum_{z_2=0}^1 (-1)^{x_1 \cdot z_1 + x_2 \cdot z_2} |z_1 z_2\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

- thus in general for  $n$  qubits

$$\hat{H}^{\otimes n}|x_1 x_2 \dots x_n\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n=0}^1 (-1)^{x_1 \cdot z_1 + x_2 \cdot z_2 + \dots + x_n \cdot z_n} |z_1 z_2 \dots z_n\rangle$$

where  $N = 2^n$  is the Hilbert-space dimension

or compactly

$$\hat{H}^{\otimes n}|\mathbf{x}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{z}} (-1)^{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})} |\mathbf{z}\rangle$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{x} &= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), \quad |\mathbf{x}\rangle = |x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\rangle \\
 \mathbf{z} &= (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n), \quad |\mathbf{z}\rangle = |z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z} \rangle \equiv \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z} = x_1 z_1 + x_2 z_2 + \dots + x_n z_n$$

is the scalar product.

## DJ algorithm for $n$ qubits

- 1. initialize  $(n + 1)$ -qubit state

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n}|1\rangle$$

- 2. generate equal superposition by applying Hadamard gates

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \hat{H}^{\otimes(n+1)}|\psi_1\rangle = (\hat{H}^{\otimes n}|0\rangle^{\otimes n})|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle|-\rangle$$

- 3. calculate  $f$  by applying  $\hat{U}_f$  gate

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \hat{U}_f|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} (-1)^{f(\mathbf{x})} |\mathbf{x}\rangle|-\rangle$$

group  $Z_N = \text{the set } \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}^n \text{ with addition modulo } N \text{ } (\oplus)$

## DJ algorithm for $n$ qubits

- 4. apply Hadamard gate

$$|\psi_4\rangle = (\hat{H}^{\otimes n} \otimes \hat{I})|\psi_3\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}^{\otimes n}|\mathbf{x}\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} (-1)^{f(\mathbf{x})} \left( \hat{H}^{\otimes n}|\mathbf{x}\rangle \right) |-\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \sum_{\mathbf{z}} (-1)^{\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{z} \rangle + f(\mathbf{x})} |\mathbf{z}\rangle |-\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- 5. measure  $|\mathbf{z}\rangle$ :

$\mathbf{z} = 0 \Rightarrow f(\mathbf{x})$  is constant  
 $\mathbf{z} > 0 \Rightarrow f(\mathbf{x})$  is balanced

## quantum Fourier transform (QFT)

- QFT on group  $(Z_2)^n$   
 $= \text{quantum Hadamard transform}$

$$QFT'|\mathbf{x}\rangle = \hat{H}^{\otimes n}|\mathbf{x}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{y}} (-1)^{\langle \mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \rangle} |\mathbf{y}\rangle, \quad (N = 2^n)$$

group  $Z_2 = \text{the set } \{0, 1\}$  with addition modulo 2  $(\oplus)$   
 $Z_2^n = \text{the set } \{0, 1\}^n \text{ with addition modulo } 2 \text{ } (\oplus) \text{ bit by bit}$

- QFT on group  $Z_N$

$$QFT|\mathbf{x}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{\mathbf{y}} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N} \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}\right) |\mathbf{y}\rangle$$

or just without the bold face:

$$QFT|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N} xy\right) |y\rangle$$

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## Quantum Fourier Transform

$$|x\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{QFT} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z=0}^{N-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N} xy\right) |y\rangle$$

or compactly

$$|x\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{QFT} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{z=0}^{N-1} \beta^{xy} |y\rangle$$

where

$$\beta = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}\right)$$

## QFT of arbitrary pure state of $n$ qubits

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} c_x |x\rangle \rightarrow \boxed{QFT} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \sum_{y=0}^{N-1} c_x \beta^{xy} |y\rangle$$

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## Quantum Fourier Transform in matrix representation

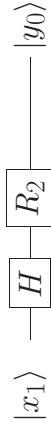
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## Circuits for QFT

### QFT for n=1



### QFT for n=2



$$QFT|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{s+1}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 & \cdots & \beta^s \\ 1 & \beta^2 & \beta^4 & \cdots & \beta^{2s} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \beta^s & \beta^{2s} & \cdots & \beta^{ss} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_s \end{bmatrix}$$

where

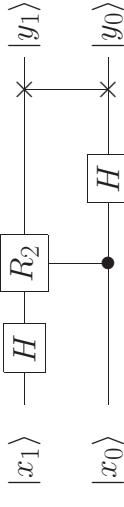
$$\begin{aligned} \beta &= \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{N}\right) \\ s &= N - 1 = 2^n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$|x_0\rangle \quad \boxed{H} \quad |y_0\rangle$$

where

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad R_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{2^k}\right) \end{bmatrix}$$

including SWAP



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### example: QFT of a Bell state

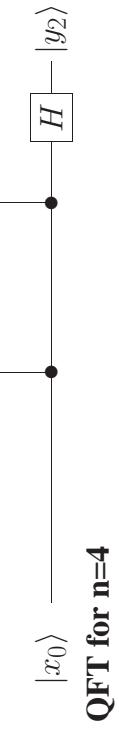
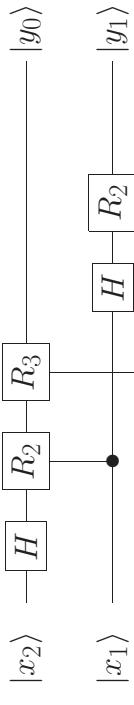
$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[1001]^T$$

$$N = 2^2 = 4 \Rightarrow s = 3, \quad \beta = \exp\left(i\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = i$$

$$QFT = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & \beta & \beta^2 & \beta^3 \\ 1 & \beta^2 & \beta^4 & \beta^6 \\ 1 & \beta^3 & \beta^6 & \beta^9 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & i & -1 & -i \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -i & -1 & i \end{bmatrix}$$

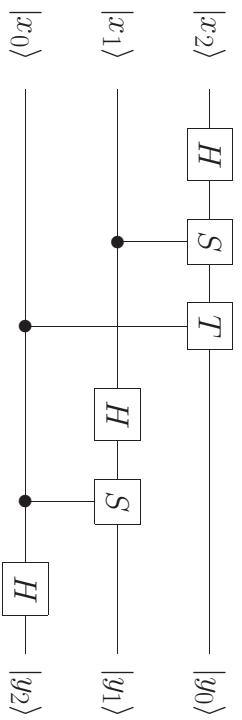
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### QFT for n=3



$$\begin{aligned} QFT|\psi\rangle &= QFT \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1-i \\ 0 \\ 1+i \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|00\rangle + \frac{e^{-i\pi/4}}{2}|01\rangle + \frac{e^{i\pi/4}}{2}|11\rangle \end{aligned}$$

## Seemingly another implementation of QFT for n=3



given in terms of the phase gate (S gate) and  $\pi/8$  (sic!) gate (T gate)

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

but it is exactly our scheme as

$$\hat{R}_2 = \hat{S}, \quad \hat{R}_3 = \hat{T}$$

- given an **oracle** which calculates  $f(x)$ :
  - $f(x) = 1$  if  $x = x_0$
  - $f(x) = 0$  if  $x \neq x_0$
- $f(x)$  can be calculated using ordinary (reversible) computer code.

### problem

find the element  $x_0$  in the least number of oracle queries.

### average number of evaluations of $f$

classically –  $N/2$

quantumly – ???

### examples

- searching a phone book for a name and phone number
- searching a database for a key to crack a cryptosystem

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## Introduction to quantum algorithms (part III)

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### oracle queries

#### 1. oracle query in DJ algorithm

$$\hat{U}_f = |x\rangle|y\rangle \xrightarrow{f} |x\rangle|x \oplus y\rangle$$

#### a note

in fact, the content of the **target register**  $|y\rangle$  is unchanged in the DJ algorithm and  $f(x)$  is encoded in the sign of the **control register**  $|x\rangle$ .

#### 2. oracle query in Grover's algorithm

$$\hat{U}_f|x\rangle = (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle$$

or

$$\hat{U}_f = 1 - 2|x_0\rangle\langle x_0|$$

it is just equivalent to the query in DJ algorithm

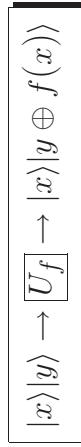
## problem for Grover's algorithm (the needle in a haystack problem)

## two types of quantum oracles

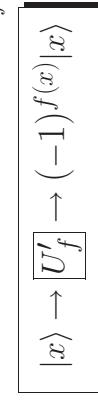
oracle = a black-box unitary operation

### 1. quantum oracle $\hat{U}_f$ of a Boolean function

$$f : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$



### 2. quantum phase-oracle $\hat{U}'_f$



**Note:**



## III. Grover iteration

repeat the following subroutine  $\text{Int}(\pi\sqrt{N}/4)$  times:

1. Call the oracle to flip the phase of eigenstate  $|x_0\rangle$ :

$$f_{x_0} : |x\rangle \mapsto (1 - 2\delta_{x_0,x})|x\rangle,$$

where  $\delta_{y,x}$  is Kronecker delta.

2. Apply Hadamard gate  $\hat{H}^{\otimes n}$ .

3. Flip the phase of all eigenstates  $|x\rangle$  except  $|0\rangle$ :

$$f_0 : |x\rangle \mapsto -(1 - 2\delta_{0,x})|x\rangle.$$

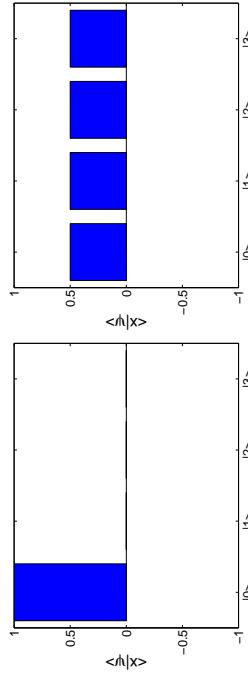
4. Apply Hadamard gate  $\hat{H}^{\otimes n}$ .

**Note:**

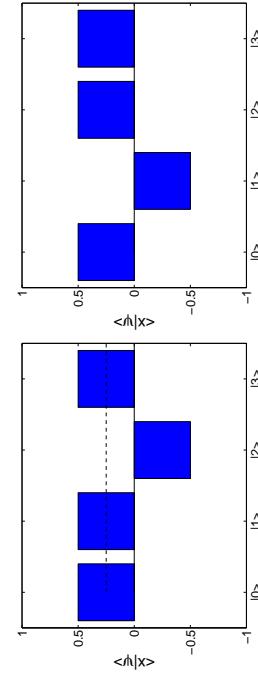
operations 2,3,4 are called the **inversion about the average**

## two-qubit Grover's search of $|x_0\rangle = |2\rangle$

initialization      Hadamard gate



1. oracle phase flip of  $|x_0\rangle$



2. Hadamard gate

## n-Qubit Grover's algorithm

PROBLEM:

ALGORITHM:

### I. Initialization

prepare  $n$  qubits in state

$$|\psi_I\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n}$$

find  $x_0$  among  $N = 2^n$  elements encoded by  $n$ -qubits

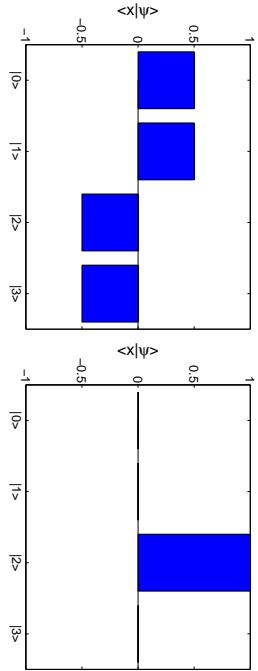
### II. Generation of equally-weighted superposition

apply Hadamard gate  $\hat{H}^{\otimes n}$  to all qubits to get

$$|\psi_{II}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle.$$

**two-qubit Grover's search of  $|x_0\rangle = |2\rangle$** 

3. phase flip of all  $|x\rangle$  except  $|0\rangle$   
4. Hadamard gate



- end of 1st Grover iteration

**recommended number of repetitions (or queries)**

$$N_{\text{queries}} = \text{Int}(\pi\sqrt{N}/4)$$

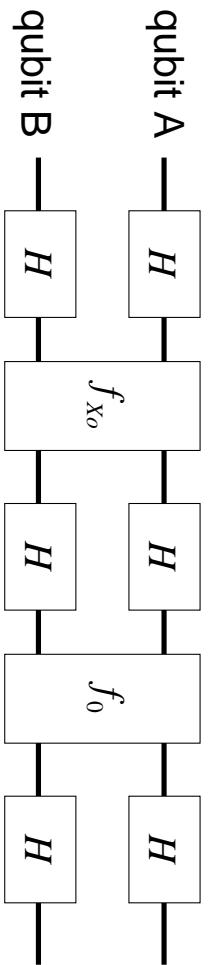
where  $N = 2^n = 4$  so

$$N_{\text{queries}} = 1$$

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**quantum circuit for two-qubit Grover's search**

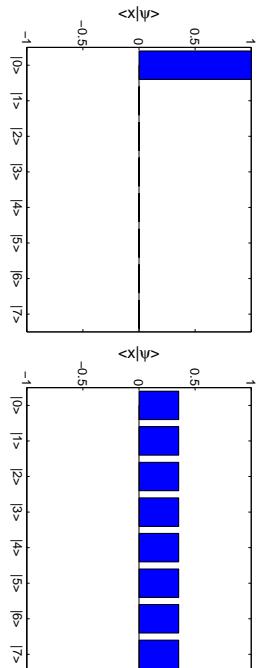
step II    III.1    III.2    III.3    III.4



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**three-qubit Grover's search of  $|x_0\rangle = |2\rangle$** 

- initialization  
Hadamard gate



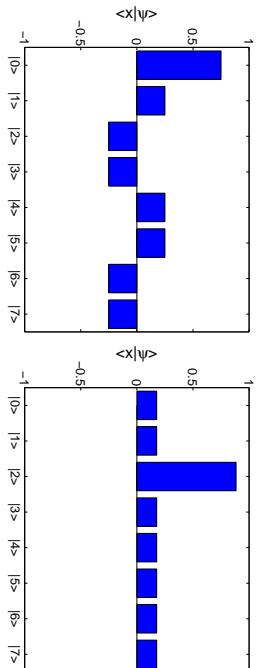
I.1 oracle phase flip of  $|x_0\rangle$

I.2 Hadamard gate

**three-qubit Grover's search of  $|x_0\rangle = |2\rangle$** 

I.3 phase flip of all  $|x\rangle$  except  $|0\rangle$

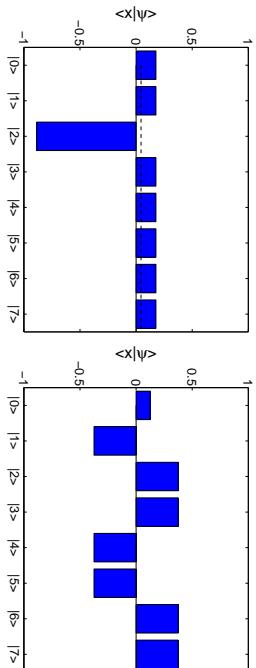
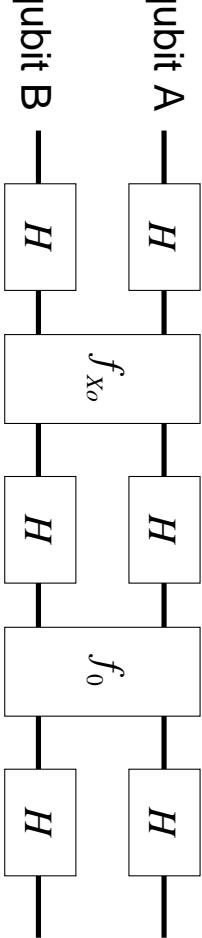
I.4 Hadamard gate - end of 1st cycle



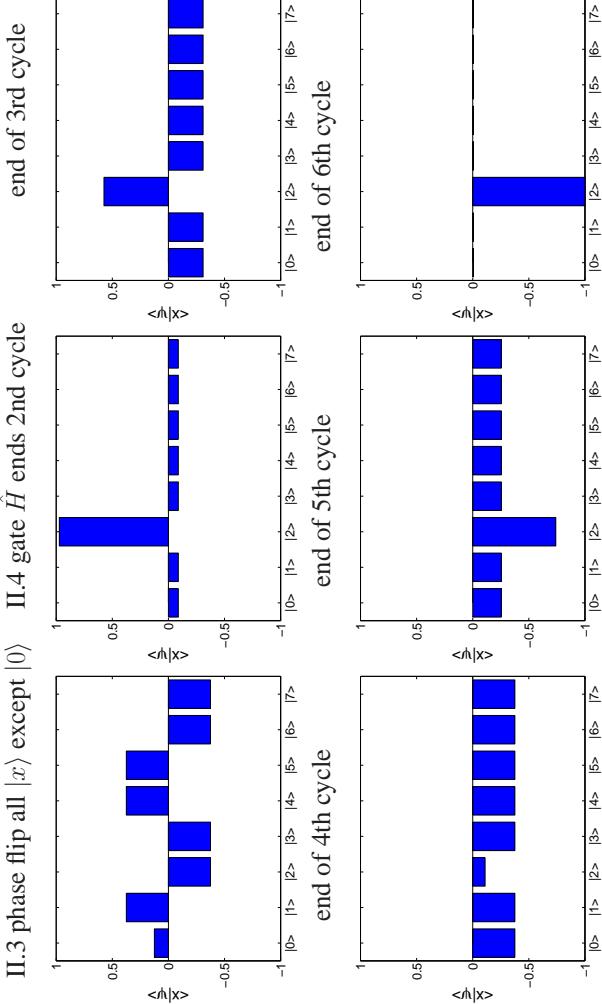
II.1 oracle phase flip of  $|x_0\rangle$

II.2 Hadamard gate

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### three-qubit Grover's search of $|x_0\rangle = |2\rangle$



The most popular cryptosystems and their cryptoanalysis

### 1. DES (Data Encryption Standard) $\leftrightarrow$ Grover's algorithm

- symmetric
- applied for encryption and decryption
- American and international cryptographic standard
- used by US army

### 2. RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman) $\leftrightarrow$ Shor's algorithm

- asymmetric
- applied for encryption/decryption and digital signatures

### 3. DSA (Digital Signature Algorithm) $\leftrightarrow$ Shor's algorithm

- asymmetric
- applied for digital signatures
- it is the Digital Signature Standard (DSS) of US Federal Government

## Grover's algorithm and cryptography

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numerical data for three-qubit Grover's search of  $|x_0\rangle = |5\rangle$

state

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi^{(k)}\rangle &= c_0^{(k)}|000\rangle + c_1^{(k)}|001\rangle + c_2^{(k)}|010\rangle + c_3^{(k)}|011\rangle \\ &+ c_4^{(k)}|100\rangle + c_5^{(k)}|101\rangle + c_6^{(k)}|110\rangle + c_7^{(k)}|111\rangle \end{aligned}$$

after the  $k$ th Grover we get:

| $ \psi^{(k)}\rangle = [$ | $c\_0$ | $c\_1$ | $c\_2$ | $c\_3$ | $c\_4$ | $c\_5$ | $c\_6$ | $c\_7$ |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| $ \psi^{(1)}\rangle = [$ | .18    | .18    | .18    | .18    | .18    | .18    | .18    | .18    |
| $ \psi^{(2)}\rangle = [$ | -.09   | -.09   | -.09   | -.09   | -.09   | .97    | -.09   | -.09   |
| $ \psi^{(3)}\rangle = [$ | -.31   | -.31   | -.31   | -.31   | -.31   | .57    | -.31   | -.31   |
| $ \psi^{(4)}\rangle = [$ | -.38   | -.38   | -.38   | -.38   | -.38   | -.11   | -.38   | -.38   |
| $ \psi^{(5)}\rangle = [$ | -.25   | -.25   | -.25   | -.25   | -.25   | -.74   | -.25   | -.25   |
| $ \psi^{(6)}\rangle = [$ | -.01   | -.01   | -.01   | -.01   | -.01   | -.100  | -.01   | -.01   |

after the 6th iteration we get

$$c_5^{(6)} = \langle 110|\psi^{(6)}\rangle = .9989 \dots \approx 1$$

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## Grover's algorithm and cryptography

### Attack on DES

requires basically to search among  $N = 2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$  possible keys.

**What is the time required to find the correct DES key?**

assuming that 1 mln keys per second can be checked than

- classical computer needs 1,000 years
- quantum computer needs about 4 minutes

*Mathematica:*  $\text{Sqrt}[2^{56}]/10.^6/60 \hookrightarrow 4.47 \text{ min}$

**How many oracle queries are required to search an  $N$ -element database?**

| $\mathcal{O}(N)$        | classical search algorithms |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N})$ | Grover's algorithm          |

## quantum entanglement and database size

**Q:** Is entanglement useful for Grover's algorithm at all?

**A:** Yes. Lack of entanglement limits the database size, which scales linearly with the beam diameter  $D$  (or  $D^2$  for a 2D version)

Shor's algorithm is exponentially faster than classical ones, so it is possible to find also a search algorithm that fast?

**Optimality theorem:**

The search problem cannot be solved in less than  $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N})$  iterations.

⇒ **Grover's algorithm is optimal!**

**But can we find an algorithm that would run, say, twice faster?**

Possibly yes, but it is not the issue of the optimality theorem.

This limitation exists for any database containing classical information.

**Q:** Anyway, it seems that entanglement is not necessary for quadratic speed-up.

But do we need it for exponential speed-up?

**A:** Most probably, yes.

## quantum entanglement and quantum speed-up

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**How to implement Grover's algorithm classically?**  
via classical optical interference

**Q:** Quantum entanglement is a key resource for QIP. But do we need it for quantum speed-up in e.g. Grover's algorithm?

**A:** "Entanglement is neither necessary for Grover's algorithm itself, nor for its efficiency." [Bhattacharya et al., 2002]

- quantum probability amplitudes

↪ a transverse laser beam profile

= a complex electric field amplitude  $E(x)$

- quantum states, which label items of the database

↪ continuous coordinate  $x$

**Q:** Really?

**A:** Inversion about the average amplitude is a classical process.

**Q:** Can Grover's algorithm be implemented classically?

**A:** Grover's algorithm has already been experimentally implemented using classical Fourier optics.

• sought item  $x_0$

↪ narrow area around the "item position"  $x_0$

**Grover's search is quadratically faster than classical search**

**Note:** It speeds up any kind of database search. However the maximum advantage is gained in unsorted databases.

- quantum Hadamard transform

→ classical **Fourier transform** implemented by lenses  
*specifically:* spherical, achromatic doublet lenses

with focal lengths  $f_1 = 40$  cm,  $f_2 = 60$  cm

- oracle  $\hat{U}_f(x_0)$ , which marks the item  $x_0$   
 by phase flipping all  $|x\rangle$  except  $|x_0\rangle$
- phase plate (called the **oracle plate**)

which imprints a **phase profile**  $\Phi_{x_0}(x)$  on the beam

$$E(x) \rightarrow E(x) \exp[i\Phi_{x_0}(x)]$$

$$\Phi_{x_0}(x) = \phi \text{ if } x \text{ is in a narrow area around } x_0$$

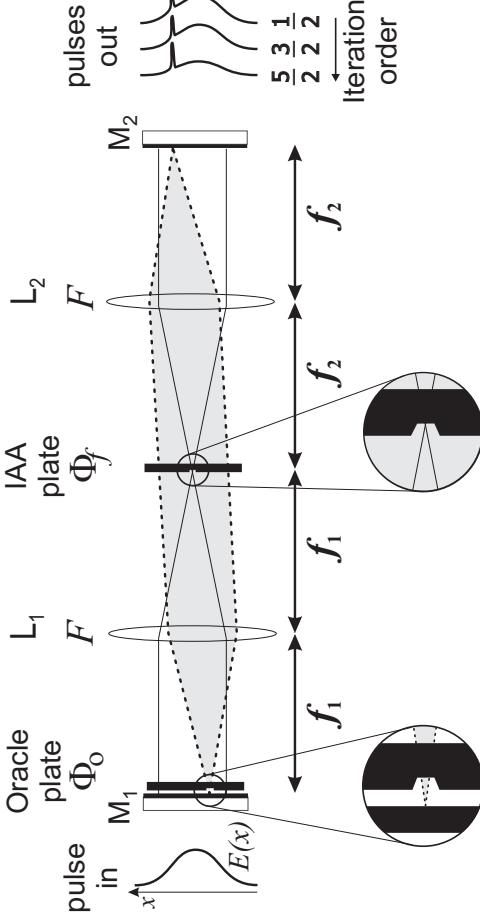
$$\Phi_{x_0}(x) = 0 \text{ elsewhere.}$$

IAA – inversion about the average amplitude,  $M_{1,2}$  – mirrors,  $f_{1,2}$  – focal lengths  
 $F$  – Fourier transform (instead of Hadamard transform) via lenses  $L_{1,2}$

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 $F$  – Fourier transform (instead of Hadamard transform) via lenses  $L_{1,2}$

## classical implementation of Grover's search

Amsterdam's experiment of Bhattacharya et al. (2002)



IAA – inversion about the average amplitude,  $M_{1,2}$  – mirrors,  $f_{1,2}$  – focal lengths  
 $F$  – Fourier transform (instead of Hadamard transform) via lenses  $L_{1,2}$

- each Grover's iteration

→ a **roundtrip** of a pulse between the cavity mirrors

*specifically:* T=13.5ns

- gate  $\hat{U}_f(0)$  which marks  $|0\rangle$  by phase flipping all  $|x\rangle$  except  $|0\rangle$
- phase plate (called the **IAA plate**) like the oracle plate which imprints **phase profile** in the Fourier plane (IAA = inversion about the average amplitude)

$$E(x) \rightarrow E(x) \exp[i\Phi_0(x')]$$

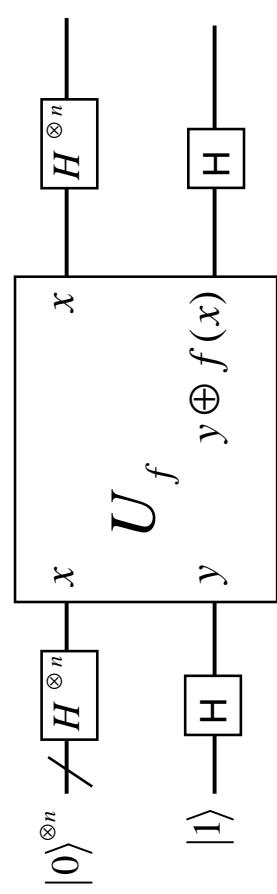
$$\Phi_0(x') = \phi \text{ if } x' \text{ is in a narrow area around } 0 \\ \Phi_0(x') = 0 \text{ elsewhere.}$$

- readout

→ after each roundtrip, a moving **photodiode** records light transmitted through one of the mirrors with transmission of 2%

**quantum DJ algorithm**  
**is a common quantum subroutine**

- used in:
- Simon algorithm
  - Grover algorithm
  - Bernstein-Vazirani algorithm
  - and others



## Simon's problem (1994)

it is an oracle problem closely related to Shor's algorithm

GIVEN:

- apply  $n$  Hadamard gates to the  $n$  qubits

$$f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n - \text{a 2-to-1 function such that}$$

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y} : f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{y}) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{r},$$

$\mathbf{r}$  – a fixed  $n$ -bit string called the **function's period**

TASK:

find period  $\mathbf{r}$ .

**How many oracle queries are required to find period  $\mathbf{r}$ ?**

|                    |             |
|--------------------|-------------|
| exponential number | classically |
| polynomial number  | quantumly   |

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### Simon's algorithm - step by step

- initial state

$$|\psi_0\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n} |0\rangle^{\otimes n} \equiv |0\rangle|0\rangle$$

- apply  $n$  Hadamard gates to the first  $n$  qubits:

$$|\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} |\mathbf{x}\rangle|0\rangle.$$

where  $|\mathbf{x}\rangle \equiv |x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\rangle$

**example**

$$ord(8, 21) = ?$$

$$8^1 \mod 21 = 8$$

$$8^2 \mod 21 = 64 \mod 21 = 64 - 3 \cdot 21 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow ord(8, 21) = 2$$

- measure the last  $n$  qubits and obtain a certain  $f(\mathbf{x}') \in \{0,1\}^n$ , which yields the ( $n$ -qubit) state:

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|\mathbf{x}'\rangle + |\mathbf{x}' \oplus \mathbf{r}\rangle).$$

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \{0,1\}^n} [(-1)^{\mathbf{x}' \cdot \mathbf{y}} + (-1)^{(\mathbf{x}' \oplus \mathbf{r}) \cdot \mathbf{y}}] |\mathbf{y}\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n-1}}} \sum_{\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{y}=0} (-1)^{\mathbf{x}' \cdot \mathbf{y}} |\mathbf{y}\rangle.$$

- measure  $|\psi_4\rangle$  to get  $\mathbf{y}$  such that  $\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ .
- repeat the above steps a polynomial number of times to get, with high probability,

$n$  linearly-independent values  $\mathbf{y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$  such that  $\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}$ , which determines  $\mathbf{r}$ .

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### multiplicative order of an integer

$$k = ord(x, n) \equiv ord(x)$$

multiplicative order of  $x$  is the smallest integer  $k$  for which

$$1 = x^k \mod n$$

*Mathematica:* MultiplicativeOrder[x,n]

- apply quantum oracle:

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} |\mathbf{x}\rangle |f(\mathbf{x})\rangle.$$

- apply quantum oracle:

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \{0,1\}^n} |\mathbf{x}\rangle |f(\mathbf{x})\rangle.$$

- measure the last  $n$  qubits and obtain a certain  $f(\mathbf{x}') \in \{0,1\}^n$ ,

which yields the ( $n$ -qubit) state:

## another example

$$\begin{aligned}
 2^1 \mod 21 &= 2 \\
 2^2 \mod 21 &= 4 \\
 2^3 \mod 21 &= 8 \\
 2^4 \mod 21 &= 16 \\
 2^5 \mod 21 &= 32 \mod 21 = 11 \\
 2^6 \mod 21 &= 22 \mod 21 = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

### orders of all elements modulo 21

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccccc}
 x & = & 1 & 2 & 4 & 5 & 8 & 10 & 11 & 13 & 16 & 17 & 19 & 20 \\
 \text{ord}(x, 21) & = & 1 & 6 & 3 & 6 & 2 & 6 & 6 & 2 & 3 & 6 & 6 & 2
 \end{array}$$

### complexity of algorithms for order calculation

- exponential time using known classical algorithms
- polynomial time using quantum phase estimation  
(a part of Shor's algorithm)

### Example: CF for 3.245

|    |             |         |                    |
|----|-------------|---------|--------------------|
| 3  | 3.245 - 3   | = 0.245 | 1 / 0.245 = 4.082  |
| 4  | 4.082 - 4   | = 0.082 | 1 / 0.082 = 12.250 |
| 12 | 12.250 - 12 | = 0.250 | 1 / 0.250 = 4.000  |
| 4  | 4.000 - 4   | = 0.000 |                    |

$$3.245 = 3 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{1}{12 + \frac{1}{4}}}$$

*Mathematica:* ContinuedFraction[3245/1000]  $\hookrightarrow \{3, 4, 12, 4\}$

### A convergent of CF

The  $n$ th convergent, denoted by  $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ ,

is a truncated CF  $x = \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, \dots, a_N\}$ .

### Useful criterion for Shor's algorithm

$$\left| \frac{p}{q} - x \right| < \frac{1}{2q^2} \Rightarrow \frac{p}{q} \text{ is a convergent of CF and } \text{GCD}(p, q) = 1$$

### Continued fractions (CF)

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\dots + \frac{1}{a_N}}}} \equiv \{a_0, a_1, a_2, K, a_N\}$$

### How to calculate CF for number $r$ ?

1. split  $r$  into integer part  $\lceil r \rceil$  and fractional part  $f = r - \lceil r \rceil$
2. stop if  $f = 0$
3. calculate  $1/f$  and return to step 1.

**Note:** The procedure will halt iff  $r$  is rational.

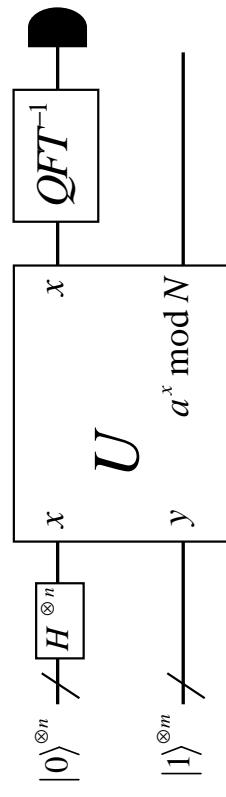
### Example: CF for r=11/9

$$\frac{11}{9} = 1 + \frac{2}{9} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{9}{2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{4 + \frac{1}{2}} \equiv \{1, 4, 2\}$$

*Mathematica:* ContinuedFraction[11/9]  $\hookrightarrow \{1, 4, 2\}$

Basic steps of Shor's algorithm:

1. Hadamard transform
2. Modular exponentiation
3. Quantum Fourier transform
4. Measurement



## Shor's algorithm to factorize an integer $N$

- If  $N$  is even then return factor  $f = 2$ .

2. Test classically whether  $N \neq a^b$ .

- Choose randomly an integer  $a$  ( $1 < a < N$ ) and apply the Euclidean algorithm to check whether

$$a \text{ and } N \text{ are coprime, i.e. } \text{GCD}(a, N) = 1$$

If not then choose another  $a$ .

- Prepare two registers:

register #2 has  $n_2 = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil$  qubits

(this is the number of qubits to store  $N$ );

register #1 has  $n_1 = 2n_2$  qubits

(in optimized versions of the algorithm,  $n_1$  can be smaller).

Otherwise repeat the algorithm.

- Initialize both registers:

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n_1} |1\rangle^{\otimes n_2}$$

- Apply Hadamard gates to register # 1:

i.e. create an equally-weighted superposition

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \hat{H}^{\otimes n_1} |\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_1}} \sum_{x=0}^{N_1-1} |x, 15\rangle$$

where  $N_1 = 2^{n_1}$ .

- Apply modular exponential gate to register # 2:

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \hat{U}_{\text{mod.exp}} |\psi_2\rangle$$

$$a^{R_1} \bmod 15$$

|       |                       |                       |                       |         |                             |
|-------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------|-----------------------------|
| $R_1$ | $ 0\rangle$           | $ 1\rangle$           | $ 2\rangle$           | $\dots$ | $ N_1 - 1\rangle$           |
| $R_2$ | $ a^0 \bmod N\rangle$ | $ a^1 \bmod N\rangle$ | $ a^2 \bmod N\rangle$ | $\dots$ | $ a^{N_1-1} \bmod N\rangle$ |

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## How to factorize $N=15$ ?

1. choose  $x$  such that

$$1 < x < N-1, \text{ GCD}(x, N)=1$$

2. find multiplicative order  $r=\text{ord}(x)$ :

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 11^1 & 11^2 & 11^3 & 11^4 & 11^5 & 11^6 \\ 11 & 12 & 13 & 14 & 15 & 16 \\ 11 & 1 & 11 & 1 & 11 & 1 \end{array} \pmod{N} \text{ so } r=2$$

3. find  $y: y^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$   
since  $x^r \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  then  $y \equiv x^{r/2} \equiv 11$

4. calculate  $\text{GCD}(y+1, N)=\text{GCD}(12, 15)=3$

$$\text{GCD}(y-1, N)=\text{GCD}(10, 15)=5$$

so  $15=3*5$

8. Measure register #2 to get some state  $|x'\rangle$ :

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \mathcal{N} \langle x' | \psi_3 \rangle$$

where  $\mathcal{N}$  is an (unimportant) renormalization constant.

9. Apply QFT $^\dagger$  on the register # 1:

$$|\psi_5\rangle = QFT^\dagger |\psi_4\rangle$$

and measure it.

**Example 1: Factorize**  $N = 15$ 

1.  $N$  is odd  $\Rightarrow$  OK  
 2.  $N \neq a^b$   $\Rightarrow$  OK

3. let's, e.g., choose  $a = 7$  (unlucky choice) and apply

Euclidean algorithm to check whether  $a$  and  $N$  are coprime:

$$\text{GCD}(7, 15) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{OK}$$

4. find the required dimension of registers (number qubits):

$$\text{register \# 2: } n_2 = \lceil \log_2 N \rceil = \lceil 3.906 \rceil = 4$$

$$\text{register \# 1: } n_1 = 2n_2 = 8$$

5. initialize both registers:

$$|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle^{\otimes n_1} |1\rangle^{\otimes n_2} = |0000000\rangle |1111\rangle \equiv |\mathbf{0}\rangle |15\rangle$$

*Mathematica:*  $2^{\wedge\wedge} 1111 \hookrightarrow 15$

449                          *Mathematica:* PowerMod[a^x, 15]

|    |                   |               |               |                |               |               |               |                |               |               |                |                |     |
|----|-------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|-----|
| so | $R_1   0 \rangle$ | $  1 \rangle$ | $  2 \rangle$ | $  3 \rangle$  | $  4 \rangle$ | $  5 \rangle$ | $  6 \rangle$ | $  7 \rangle$  | $  8 \rangle$ | $  9 \rangle$ | $  10 \rangle$ | $  11 \rangle$ | ... |
|    | $R_2   1 \rangle$ | $  7 \rangle$ | $  4 \rangle$ | $  13 \rangle$ | $  1 \rangle$ | $  7 \rangle$ | $  4 \rangle$ | $  13 \rangle$ | $  1 \rangle$ | $  7 \rangle$ | $  4 \rangle$  | $  13 \rangle$ | ... |

8. measure register #2:

for example, we get the state  $|13\rangle$ :

|       |  |  |  |                |  |  |  |                |  |  |                |     |
|-------|--|--|--|----------------|--|--|--|----------------|--|--|----------------|-----|
| $R_1$ |  |  |  | $  3 \rangle$  |  |  |  | $  7 \rangle$  |  |  | $  11 \rangle$ | ... |
| $R_2$ |  |  |  | $  13 \rangle$ |  |  |  | $  13 \rangle$ |  |  | $  13 \rangle$ | ... |

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \mathcal{N} \langle 13 | \psi_3 \rangle = \mathcal{N} (|3\rangle_1 + |7\rangle_1 + |11\rangle_1 + \dots)$$

where  $\mathcal{N}$  is a renormalization constant

9. apply QFT $^\dagger$  on the register # 1:

$$|\psi_5\rangle = QFT^\dagger |\psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{2} (|0\rangle_1 - |64\rangle_1 + |128\rangle_1 - |192\rangle_1)$$

*Mathematica:*  $2^{\wedge\wedge} 1111 \hookrightarrow 15$

450                          *Mathematica:* Ceiling[Log[2, 15]]  $\hookrightarrow 4$

452                          *Mathematica:* PowerMod[a^x, 15]

10. apply the classical continued fraction method

(which reduces to a trivial case now) to find the period  $r$

$$\frac{64}{256} = \frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow r = 4$$

$$|\psi_2\rangle = \hat{H}^{\otimes n_1} |\psi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_1}} \sum_{x=0}^{N_1-1} |y, 15\rangle$$

$$\text{where } N_1 = 2^{n_1} = 256$$

$$\text{GCD}(13^{r/2} + 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(13^2 + 1, 15)$$

$$= \text{GCD}(169 + 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(17 \times 2 \times 5, 3 \times 5) = 5$$

$$\text{GCD}(13^{r/2} - 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(168, 15) = 3$$

these are the sought factors :)

|       |                         |                         |                         |         |                             |
|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|
| $R_1$ | $  0 \rangle$           | $  1 \rangle$           | $  2 \rangle$           | $\dots$ | $  255 \rangle$             |
| $R_2$ | $  7^0 \bmod N \rangle$ | $  7^1 \bmod N \rangle$ | $  7^2 \bmod N \rangle$ | $\dots$ | $  7^{255} \bmod N \rangle$ |

$$aR_1 \bmod 15 \quad 12. \text{ final test } 3 \times 5 = 15 \Rightarrow \text{OK}$$

## lucky, unlucky and bad choices of $a$ modulo $N=15$

condition:  $\text{GCD}(a,N)=1$

| $a$ | $a^2$ | $a^3$ | $a^4$ | $\dots$ | $a^{14} \pmod{N}$ |
|-----|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------------------|
| 2   | 4     | 8     | 1     | 2       | 4 unlucky         |
| 3   | 9     | 12    | 6     | 3       | 9 wrong           |
| 4   | 1     | 4     | 1     | 4       | 1 lucky           |
| 5   | 10    | 5     | 10    | 5       | 10 wrong          |
| 6   | 6     | 6     | 6     | 6       | 6 wrong           |
| 7   | 4     | 13    | 1     | 7       | 4 unlucky         |
| 8   | 4     | 2     | 1     | 8       | 4 ...             |
| 9   | 6     | 9     | 6     | 9       | 6                 |
| 10  | 10    | 10    | 10    | 10      | 10                |
| 11  | 1     | 11    | 1     | 11      | 1                 |
| 12  | 9     | 3     | 6     | 12      | 9                 |
| 13  | 4     | 7     | 1     | 13      | 4                 |
| 14  | 1     | 14    | 1     | 14      | 1                 |

|                      |               |                        |               |                |               |                      |
|----------------------|---------------|------------------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------------|
| a=2, 7, 8, 13        | $\Rightarrow$ | long period            | $\Rightarrow$ | unlucky choice | $\Rightarrow$ | harder factorization |
| a=4, 11, 14          | $\Rightarrow$ | short period           | $\Rightarrow$ | lucky choice   | $\Rightarrow$ | easier factorization |
| a=3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12 | $\Rightarrow$ | GCD( $x, N$ ) $\neq 1$ | $\Rightarrow$ | bad choice     | $\Rightarrow$ | excluded             |

8. measure register #2:  
for example, we get state  $|11\rangle$ :

|       |             |              |             |              |             |              |             |
|-------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|
| $R_1$ | $ 1\rangle$ | $ 3\rangle$  | $ 5\rangle$ | $ 6\rangle$  | $ 7\rangle$ | $ 8\rangle$  | $\dots$     |
| $R_2$ | $ 1\rangle$ | $ 11\rangle$ | $ 1\rangle$ | $ 11\rangle$ | $ 1\rangle$ | $ 11\rangle$ | $ 1\rangle$ |

$$|\psi_4\rangle = \mathcal{N}_2 |11\rangle |\psi_3\rangle = \mathcal{N}(|1\rangle_1 + |3\rangle_1 + |5\rangle_1 + \dots)$$

where  $\mathcal{N}$  is a renormalization constant

9. apply QFT $^\dagger$  on the register # 1:

$$|\psi_5\rangle = QFT^\dagger |\psi_4\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_1 + |128\rangle_1)$$

10. apply the classical continued fraction method

to find period  $r$

$$\frac{128}{256} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow r = 2$$

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11.  $r$  is even and  $\frac{r}{2} \neq -1 \pmod{N} \Rightarrow$

$$\text{GCD}(11^{r/2} + 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(11 + 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(3 \times 4, 3 \times 5) = 3$$

$$\text{GCD}(11^{r/2} - 1, 15) = \text{GCD}(10, 15) = 5$$

which are the sought factors.

### 4–6. ditto

7. apply modular exponential gate to register # 2:

$$|\psi_3\rangle = \hat{U}_{\text{mod.exp}} |\psi_2\rangle$$

$$a^{R_1} \pmod{15}$$

**Shor's algorithm resembles Simon's algorithm.**

To find period  $r$ , one usually has to apply the complete classical continued fraction method.

### Note 1:

SO

Actually, Shor has found his algorithm by generalizing Simon's algorithm, i.e. by replacing Simon's Hadamard transforms (Fourier transform over  $Z_N^r$ ) by Fourier transform over  $Z_N$ .

**Example:** Find period r from  $\frac{65}{256}$

*Mathematica:*

```

 $x = \frac{65}{256};$
criterion[a_, b_, x_] := Abs[$\frac{a}{b} - x$] < $\frac{1}{2b^2}$;
ContinuedFraction[x] // InputForm
{0, 3, 1, 15, 4}

{0, 3, 1, 15, 4} == 0 + $\frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{15 + 4}}} = \frac{65}{256}$

FromContinuedFraction[{0, 3, 1, 15, 4}]
 $\frac{65}{256}$

```

## 2nd convergent of the continued fraction

$$\begin{aligned}
\{0, 3, 1\} &\equiv 0 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1}} = \frac{1}{4} \equiv \frac{a}{b} \\
\Rightarrow \left| \frac{a}{b} - x \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{4} - \frac{65}{256} \right| = \frac{1}{256} < \frac{1}{2b^2} = \frac{1}{32} \quad \text{TRUE}
\end{aligned}$$

```
FromContinuedFraction[{0, 3, 1}]
```

$$\frac{1}{4}$$

```
criterion[1, 4, x]
```

True

```
FromContinuedFraction[{0, 3, 1, 3}]
```

$$\frac{65}{256}$$

## 1st convergent of the continued fraction

$$\begin{aligned}
\{0, 3\} &\equiv 0 + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \equiv \frac{a}{b} \\
\Rightarrow \left| \frac{a}{b} - x \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{3} - \frac{65}{256} \right| = 0.079 \dots \not< \frac{1}{2b^2} = \frac{1}{18} = 0.055 \dots
\end{aligned}$$

```
FromContinuedFraction[{0, 3}]
```

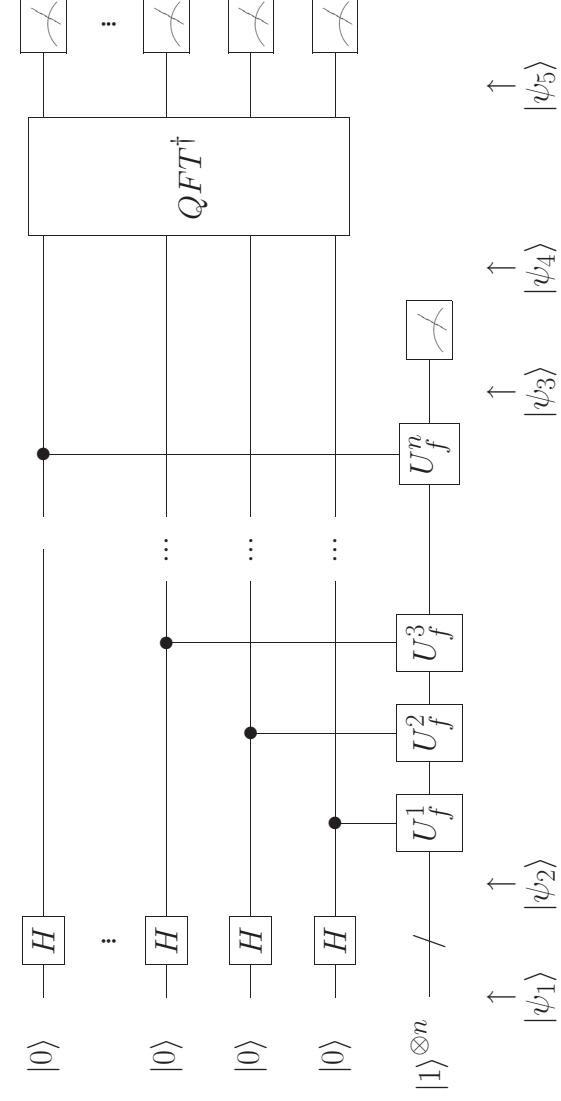
$$\frac{1}{3}$$

```
criterion[1, 3, x]
```

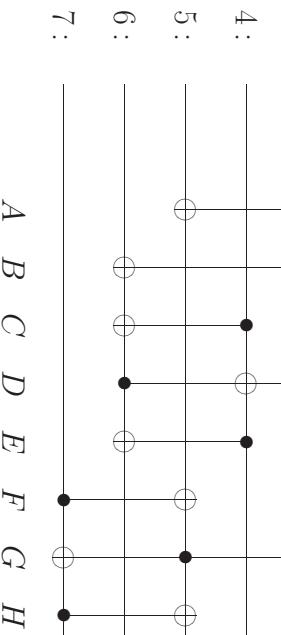
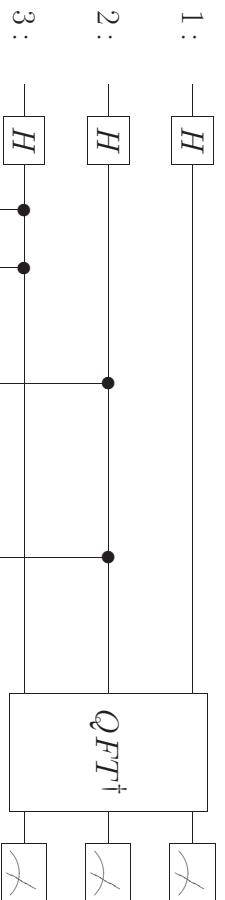
False

$\Rightarrow \text{PERIOD } r \neq 3$

## Quantum circuit for Shor's factorization algorithm



## Quantum Fourier transform and its inverse for 3 qubits



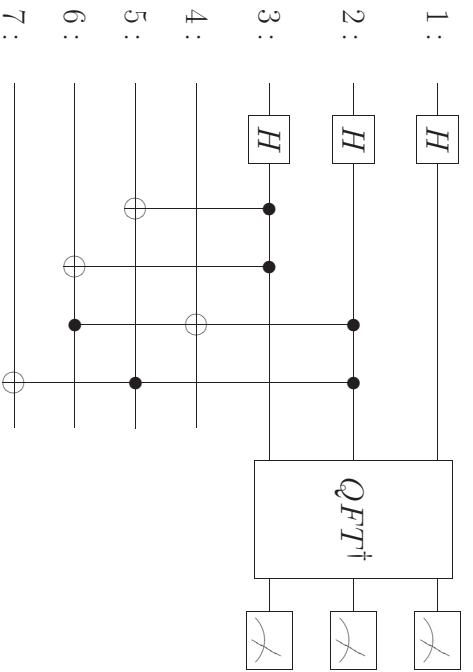
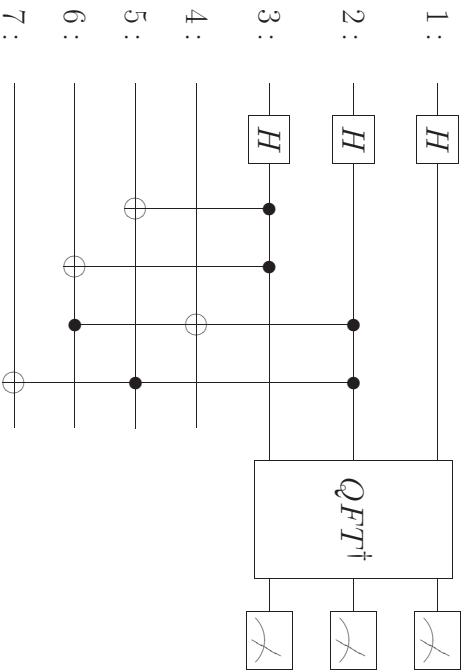
where the rotations are  $R_2 = R(90^\circ)$ ,  $R_3 = R(45^\circ)$

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## Outline

### optimized version of the 7-qubit circuit for Shor's factorization of $N = 15$

(gates C, E, F, H are removed)



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1. Generalized projective measurements
2. Positive operator valued measure (POVM)
3. Kraus representation
4. Damping channels for a single qubit
5. Imperfect photocount detectors
6. Bell-state and GHZ-state analyzers
7. Fidelity and other measures of quality of the state generation
8. Entanglement measures

**von Neumann-type projective measurement  
is represented by complete, orthonormal set of states  $|\mu\rangle$**

$$P_\mu = \text{Tr}\{|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|\rho_{\text{sys}}\}$$

where

$P_\mu$  – probability that the system is in state  $|\mu\rangle$

= probability of the measurement outcome  $\mu$

$|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|$  – measurement operator or projection operator  
also called the **projection valued (PV) measure**

- measurement operators, corresponding to nonorthogonal states, do not commute and are therefore not simultaneously observable

## Generalized projective measurement

- Let's prepare an **auxiliary quantum system (ancilla)** in a known state  $\hat{\rho}_{\text{aux}}$

The **combined, uncorrelated state** of the original quantum system and the ancilla is

$$(\rho_{\text{sys}} \otimes \rho_{\text{aux}})_{m,M,n,N} = (\rho_{\text{sys}})_{mn}(\rho_{\text{aux}})_{MN}$$

A maximal test is then performed in the combined Hilbert space  $\mathcal{K}$ .

Different outcomes correspond to orthogonal and complete projectors  $|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|$

- **probability of outcome  $\mu$ :**

$$P_\mu = \text{Tr}[(|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|(\rho_{\text{sys}} \otimes \rho_{\text{aux}}))] = \sum_{m,n,M,N} (|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|)_{m,M,n,N} (\rho_{\text{sys}})_{mn} (\rho_{\text{aux}})_{MN}$$

which be rewritten as

$$P_\mu = \text{Tr}(A_\mu \rho_{\text{sys}})$$

where

$$(A_\mu)_{mn} = \sum_{M,N} (|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|)_{m,M,n,N} (\rho_{\text{aux}})_{MN}$$

**positive operator valued measures (POVM)**

= set of  $A_\mu$ 's

which are positive Hermitian operators acting on original Hilbert space

$$\sum_\mu A_\mu = 1$$

- probability that a quantum system is in a particular state is given by the expectation value of the POVM operator corresponding to that state

$$P_\mu = \text{Tr}(A_\mu \rho_{\text{sys}})$$

## Advantages of POVM over PV measures

- the number of **available outcomes** may differ from the number of available preparations (of a given state) and the dimension of the Hilbert space.
- POVM allow the possibility of measurement outcomes associated with **nonorthogonal states**.
- POVM allow extraction of **more mutual information** that can the usual von Neumann-type projective measurement

## How to distinguish conclusively between two non-orthogonal states?

(at least sometimes)

### Cryptographic example of POVM

non-orthogonal linear polarization states  $|u\rangle$  and  $|v\rangle$

$$\langle u|v\rangle = \cos\theta$$

- where  $\theta$  the angle between polarization vectors

**Can you distinguish whether qubit is in state  $|u\rangle$  or  $|v\rangle$ ?**

**general state**

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|u\rangle + \beta|v\rangle$$

## POVM operators

are not projective measurements

$$A_u = \frac{1 - |u\rangle\langle u|}{1 + \langle u|v\rangle}, \quad A_v = \frac{1 - |v\rangle\langle v|}{1 + \langle u|v\rangle}$$

$$A_? = 1 - A_u - A_v \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{inconclusive measurement}$$

## probabilities of measurements

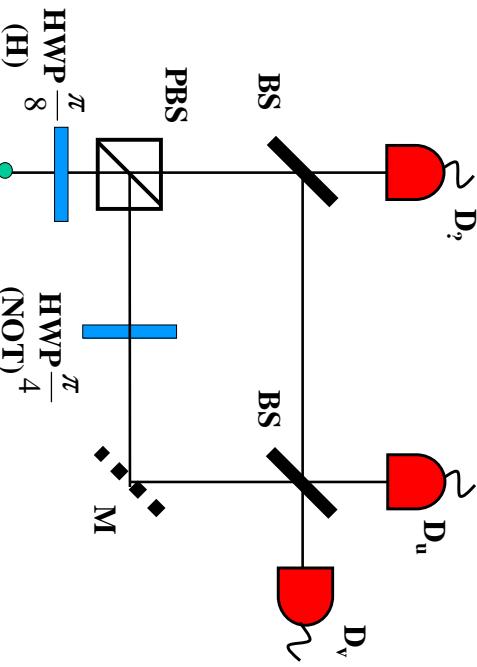
$$P_i = \langle \psi | A_i | \psi \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow P_u = |\alpha|^2(1 - \cos \theta), \quad P_v = |\beta|^2(1 - \cos \theta), \quad P_? = |\alpha + \beta|^2 \cos \theta$$

### special input states

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle = |u\rangle &\Rightarrow P_v = 0 \Rightarrow \text{detector } D_v \text{ will not click} \\ |\psi\rangle = |v\rangle &\Rightarrow P_u = 0 \Rightarrow \text{detector } D_u \text{ will not click} \end{aligned}$$

## an optical implementation of POVM



## optical implementation of POVM

## Kraus representation = operator sum representation

an elegant representation to describe open system dynamics

### basic idea

- The final state of an open system cannot be described by a unitary transformation of the initial state.
- So let's analyze evolution of **both the system and environment**:

$$\rho(0) = \rho_S(0) \otimes \rho_E(0) \longrightarrow \rho_{SE}(t) = U(t)\rho_S(0) \otimes \rho_E(0)U^\dagger(t)$$

- **reduced density matrix**

$$\rho_S^c(t) = \text{Tr}_E \{\rho_{SE}(t)\} = \sum_{\{k_i\}} \langle \{k_i\} | \rho_{SE}(t) | \{k_i\} \rangle$$

where  $|\{k_i\}\rangle \equiv |k_1 \dots k_i \dots\rangle = \Pi_i \otimes |k_i\rangle$   
is an orthonormal basis of the environment Hilbert space

One can extend the Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$  of states, in which the  $A_\mu$  are defined, in such a way that there exists, in the extended space  $\mathcal{K}$ , a set of orthogonal and complete projectors  $|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|$  such that  $A_\mu$  is the result of projecting  $|\mu\rangle\langle\mu|$  from  $\mathcal{K}$  into  $\mathcal{H}$ .

### physical implication

There always exists an experimentally realizable procedure generating any desired POVM represented by given matrices  $A_\mu$

### most general measurement operator

It is also generally thought that a POVM belongs to the most general test to which a quantum system may be subjected.

### analogy

a pure state of the bipartite system AB may behave like  
a mixed states when we observe subsystem A alone,  
similarly

an orthonormal measurement of the system AB may be  
a nonorthonormal POVM on A alone

- alternatively, the evolution can be given in the so-called **Kraus representation**

## POVM from Kraus representation

POVM modifies a density matrix as follows

$$\rho_S(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k(t) \rho_S(0) A_k^\dagger(t)$$

in terms of **Kraus operators**

$$A_k(t) = \sum_{\{k_i\}}' \langle \{k_i\} | U(t) | \{0\} \rangle$$

where  $\sum'$  stands for summation under the condition  $\sum_i k_i = k$

### • completeness relation

$$\sum_k A_k^\dagger(t) A_k(t) = I$$

### • drawback

it seems extremely difficult to use K.r. if the environment is at  $T > 0$

$$\rho_s \rightarrow \sum_{\mu} \sqrt{F_{\mu}} \rho_s \sqrt{F_{\mu}}$$

where

$$F_{\mu} = A_{\mu}^\dagger A_{\mu}$$

and  $A_{\mu}$  are **Kraus operators**

## three types of errors

### 1. bit flip error

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\rightarrow |1\rangle, & |1\rangle &\rightarrow |0\rangle \\ |\psi\rangle &\rightarrow \hat{\sigma}_x |\psi\rangle \end{aligned}$$

### 2. phase flip error

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\rightarrow |0\rangle, & |1\rangle &\rightarrow -|1\rangle \\ |\psi\rangle &\rightarrow \hat{\sigma}_z |\psi\rangle \end{aligned}$$

### 3. both errors

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &\rightarrow i|1\rangle, & |1\rangle &\rightarrow -i|0\rangle \\ |\psi\rangle &\rightarrow \hat{\sigma}_y |\psi\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where the  $\sigma_k$  are the **Pauli operators**

$$\hat{\sigma}_x \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_y \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \hat{\sigma}_z \equiv \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

so

$$A_0 = \sqrt{1-p}, \quad A_1 = A_2 = A_3 = \frac{p}{3}$$

## Kraus operators

$$A_{\mu} = {}_E \langle \mu | U_{SE} | 0 \rangle_E$$

$$U_{SE} : |\psi\rangle_S \otimes |0\rangle_E \rightarrow \sqrt{1-p} |\psi\rangle_S \otimes |0\rangle_E + \sqrt{\frac{p}{3}} [|\sigma_x|\psi\rangle_S \otimes |1\rangle_E + \sigma_y |\psi\rangle_S \otimes |2\rangle_E + \sigma_z |\psi\rangle_S \otimes |3\rangle_E]$$

## damping channels for a single qubit

### 1. amplitude-damping channel

$$|0\rangle_S |0\rangle_E \rightarrow |0\rangle_S |0\rangle_E$$

$$|1\rangle_S |0\rangle_E \rightarrow \sqrt{1-p} |1\rangle_S |0\rangle_E + \sqrt{p} |0\rangle_S |1\rangle_E$$

### 2. phase-damping channel

$$|0\rangle_S |0\rangle_E \rightarrow \sqrt{1-p} |0\rangle_S |0\rangle_E + \sqrt{p} |0\rangle_S |1\rangle_E$$

$$|1\rangle_S |0\rangle_E \rightarrow \sqrt{1-p} |1\rangle_S |0\rangle_E + \sqrt{p} |1\rangle_S |2\rangle_E$$

- it is a „caricature” model of decoherence in real systems
- no bit flip in system!

### 3. depolarizing channel

$$|\psi\rangle_S |0\rangle_E \rightarrow \sqrt{1-p} |\psi\rangle_S |0\rangle_E + \sqrt{\frac{p}{3}} [\sigma_x |\psi\rangle_S |1\rangle_E + \sigma_y |\psi\rangle_S |2\rangle_E + \sigma_z |\psi\rangle_S |3\rangle_E]$$

## POVM for photocount detectors (I)

### • Perfectly-Resolving Photon Counter

$$\hat{\Pi}_N = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^N e^{-\nu} \frac{\nu^{(N-n)}}{(N-n)!} \eta^n (1-\eta)^{m-n} C_n^m |m\rangle\langle m|$$

$\eta$  – inefficiency  
 $\nu$  – dark count rate

### • Conventional Photon Counter (CPC)

$$\hat{\Pi}_0^c = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} e^{-\nu} (1-\eta)^m |m\rangle\langle m| \quad (\text{No clicks})$$

$$\hat{\Pi}_1^c = 1 - \hat{\Pi}_0^c \quad (\text{Click})$$

• Dark count rate  $\sim 100 - 1000 \text{ s}^{-1}$

## conditional measurements using imperfect photocounters

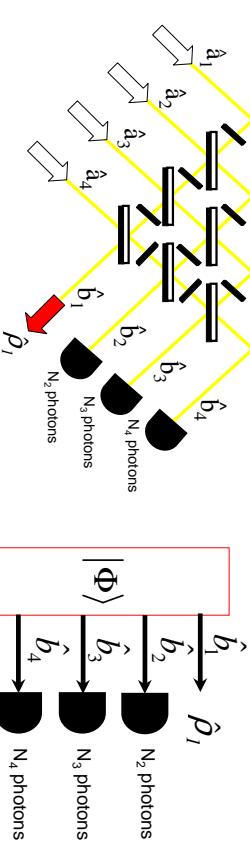
478

## POVM for photocount detectors (II)

### • single-photon counter

$$\hat{\Pi}_0^v = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} e^{-\nu} (1-\eta)^m |m\rangle\langle m| \quad (\text{no clicks})$$

$$\hat{\Pi}_1^v = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^1 \frac{1}{(1-n)!} e^{-\nu} \nu^{(1-n)} \eta^n (1-\eta)^{m-n} C_n^m |m\rangle\langle m| \quad (\text{1 click})$$



$$\hat{\rho}_1 = \mathcal{N} \text{Tr}_{(b_2, b_3, b_4)} \left( \hat{\Pi}_{N_2}^{(b_2)} \hat{\Pi}_{N_3}^{(b_3)} \hat{\Pi}_{N_4}^{(b_4)} |\Phi\rangle\langle\Phi| \right)$$

|                           |                                                                    |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $\hat{\Pi}_{N_k}^{(b_k)}$ | POVM for the $k$ th imperfect photocounter detecting $N_k$ photons |
| $ \Phi\rangle$            | four-mode state before the measurements                            |
| $\hat{\rho}_1$            | single-mode state after the measurements                           |

renormalization constant

$$\hat{\Pi}_2^v = 1 - \hat{\Pi}_0^v - \hat{\Pi}_1^v \quad (\text{2 clicks})$$

• high dark count rate  $\sim 10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$

## Photocounters (photon count detectors)

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## Bell-state analyzer (1)

- Si APD = Si avalanche photodiode (working in Geiger mode)

$\eta \sim 70 - 80\%$   
 $F_{\text{noise}} \geq 2 \Rightarrow$  relatively high noise  $\Rightarrow$  useless for QC

- PMT = photomultiplier tube

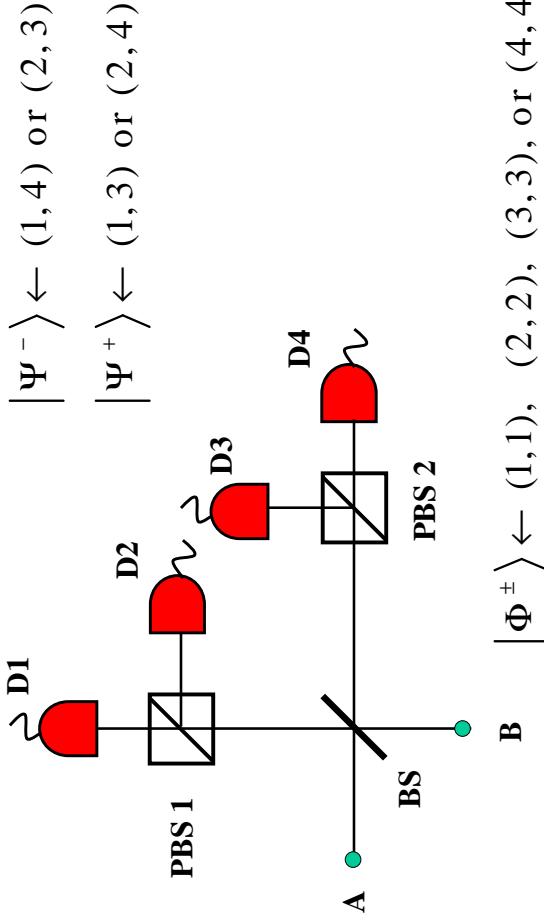
$\eta < 25\%$  for detection of single photon  
 $\eta \sim 6\%$  for detection of two photons

- SSPM = solid state photomultiplier

$\eta \sim 70 - 80\%$   
 $F_{\text{noise}} = 1 \Rightarrow$  basically noise free

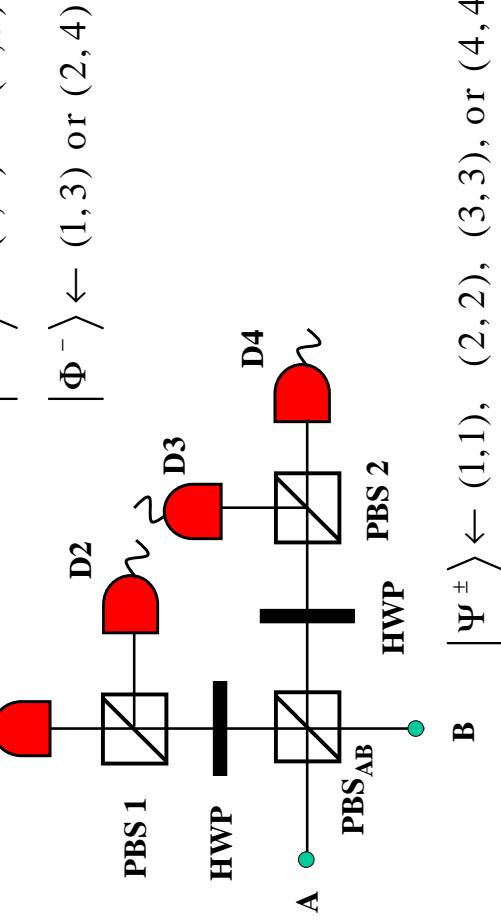
- VLPC = visible light photon counters

with noise free avalanche photomultiplication  
 $\eta \sim 88\%$  for detection of single photon  
 $\eta \sim 47\%$  for detection of two photons  
 $\tau \sim 2ns \Rightarrow$  small resolution time (for detection of two photons)

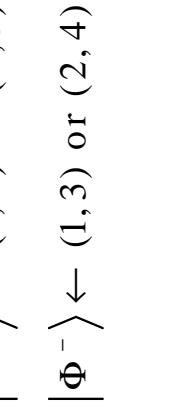
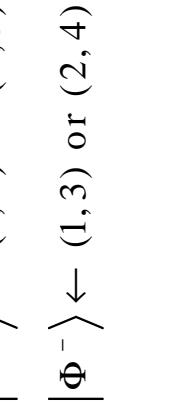
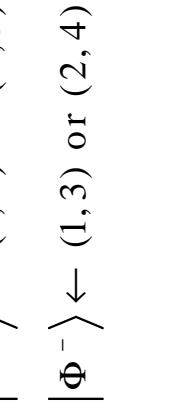
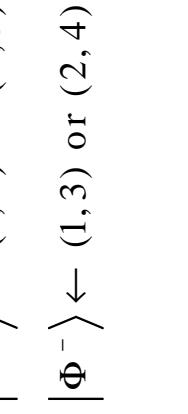
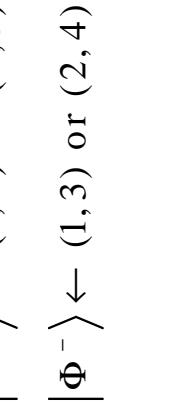
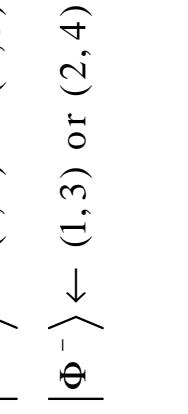
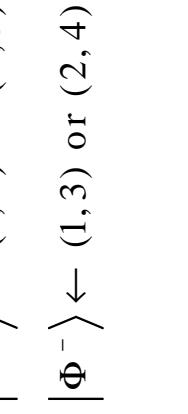
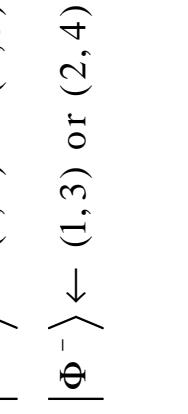
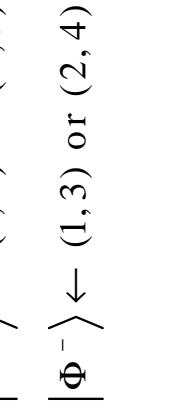
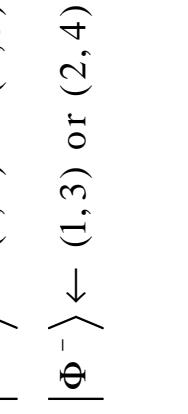
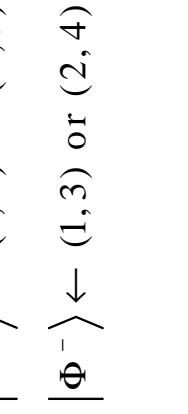
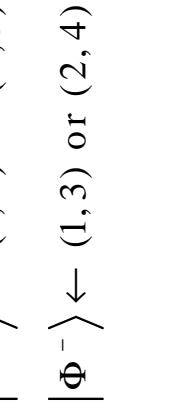
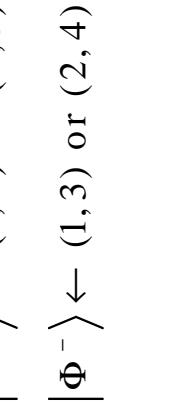
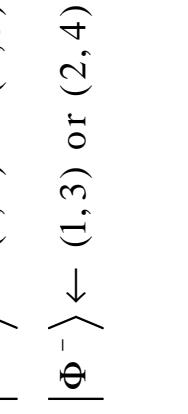
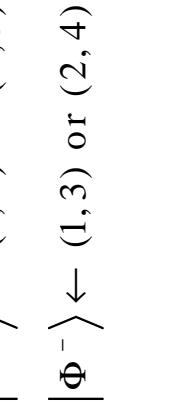
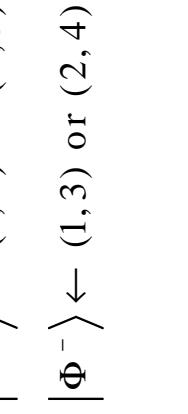
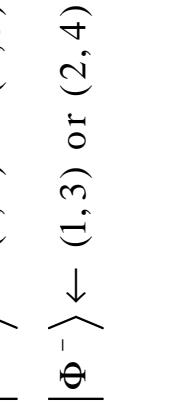
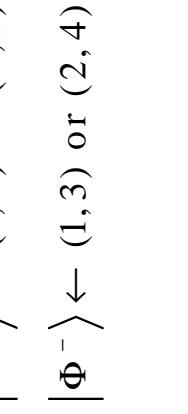
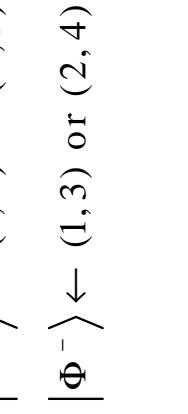
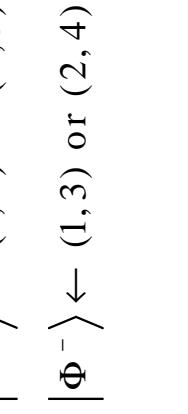
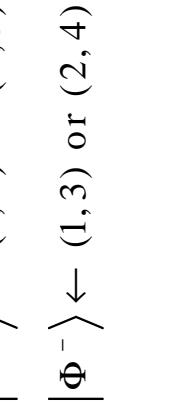
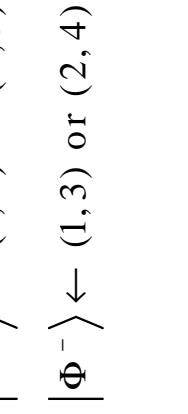
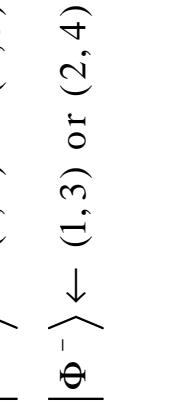
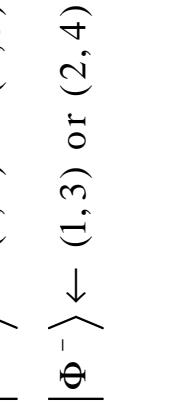
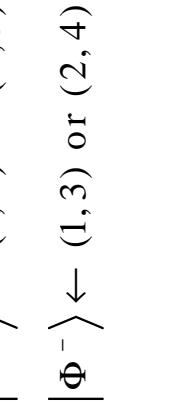
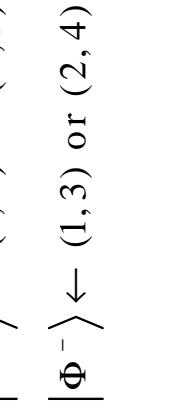
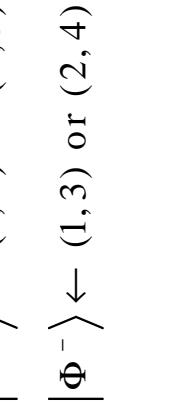
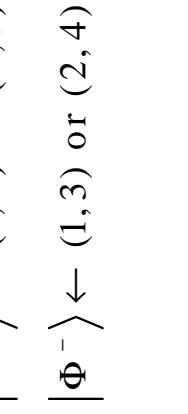
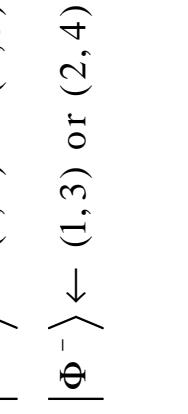
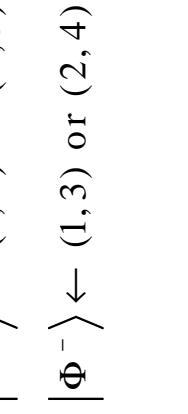
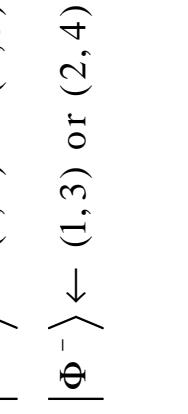
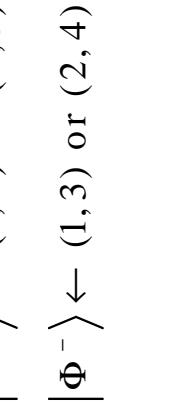
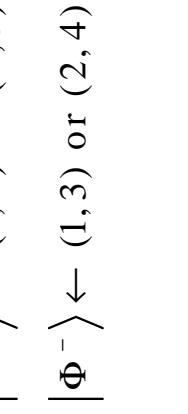
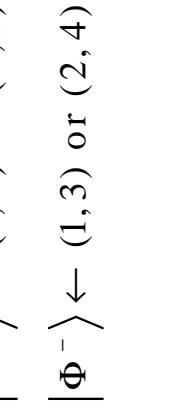
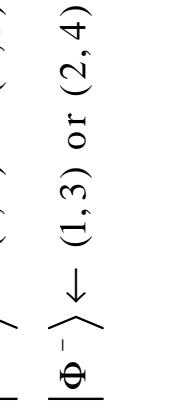
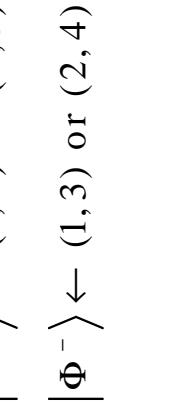
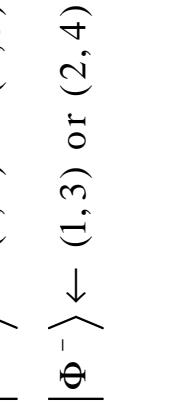
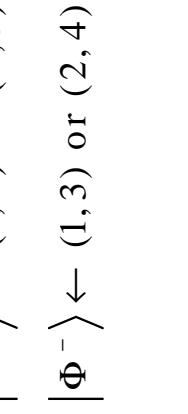
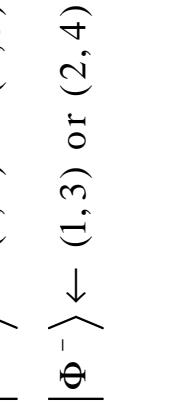
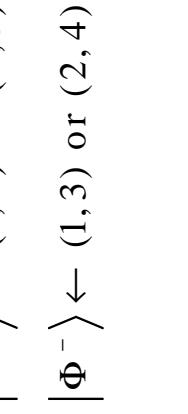
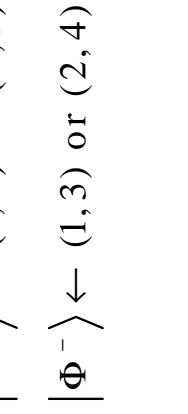
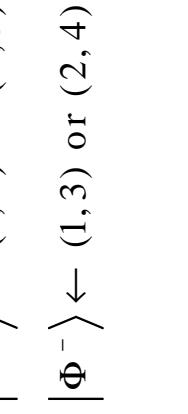
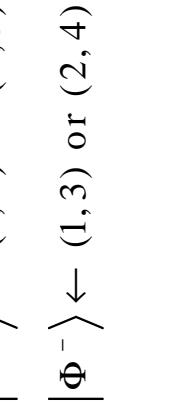
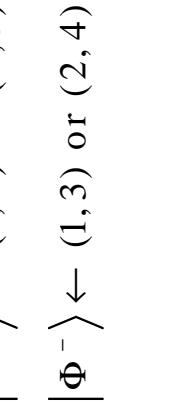
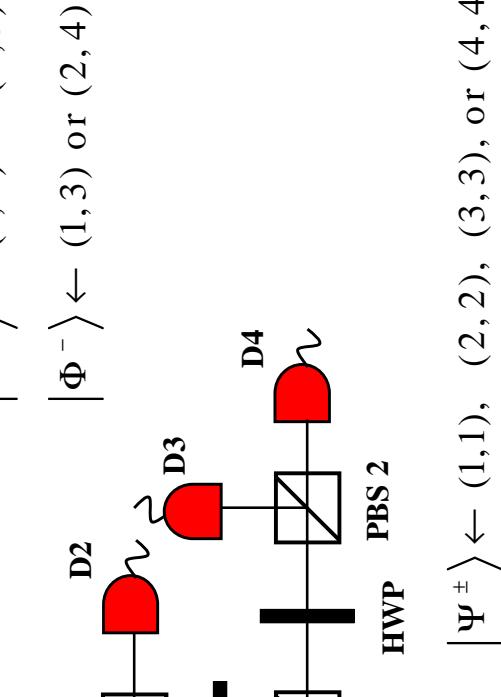


## 482 Bell-state and GHZ-state analyzers

- How to discriminate between the optical Bell states?



## Bell-state analyzer (2)



## What Bell states can uniquely be distinguished in the (Pan-Zeilinger) analyzer?

notation: particles A,B; modes 1,2

### 1. general input state

$$|\psi_{in}\rangle = \alpha|H_A\rangle|H_B\rangle + \beta|H_A\rangle|V_B\rangle + \gamma|V_A\rangle|H_B\rangle + \delta|V_A\rangle|V_B\rangle$$

### 2. state after PBS<sub>AB</sub>

if horizontal (vertical) polarization component is transmitted (reflected) then

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|H_{A2}\rangle|H_{B1}\rangle + \beta|H_{A2}\rangle|V_{B2}\rangle + \gamma|V_{A1}\rangle|H_{B1}\rangle + \delta|V_{A1}\rangle|V_{B2}\rangle$$

### 3. indistinguishability of photons

implies that we can omit subscripts A, B:

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \alpha|H_1\rangle|H_2\rangle + \beta|H_1\rangle|V_2\rangle + \gamma|V_1\rangle|H_1\rangle + \delta|V_1\rangle|V_2\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha + \delta)|\Phi_{two}^+\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha - \delta)|\Phi_{two}^-\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\beta + \gamma)|\Psi_{one}^+\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\beta - \gamma)|\Psi_{one}^-\rangle \end{aligned}$$

where

$$|\Phi_{two}^\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_1\rangle|H_2\rangle \pm |V_1\rangle|V_2\rangle), \quad |\Psi_{one}^\pm\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_1\rangle|V_1\rangle \pm |V_2\rangle|H_2\rangle)$$

## 4. state after quarter-wave plates and detection

- **quarter-wave plates** change polarizations as follows

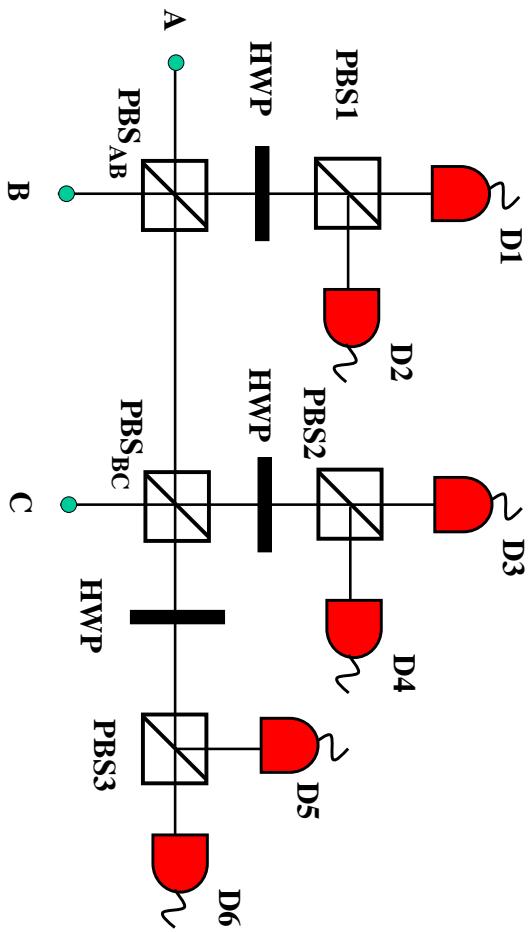
$$|H_i\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_i\rangle + |V_i\rangle), \quad |V_i\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_i\rangle - |V_i\rangle)$$

- **notation:**  $D_1 \equiv D_{H1}, \quad D_2 \equiv D_{V1}, \quad D_3 \equiv D_{V2}, \quad D_4 \equiv D_{H2}$
- **case 1:**  $|\Phi_{two}^+\rangle \rightarrow |\Phi_{two}^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_1\rangle|H_2\rangle + |V_1\rangle|V_2\rangle)$   
then photons are detected in D1 and D4 or D2 and D3
- **case 2:**  $|\Phi_{two}^-\rangle \rightarrow |\Psi_{two}^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_1\rangle|V_2\rangle + |V_1\rangle|H_2\rangle)$   
then photons are detected in D1 and D3 or D2 and D4
- **cases 3,4:**  $|\Psi_{two}^-\rangle \rightarrow |\Psi_{two}^-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H_1\rangle|H_2\rangle - |V_1\rangle|V_2\rangle)$   
then both photons are detected in either D1, or D2, or D3, or D4

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## polarization GHZ states

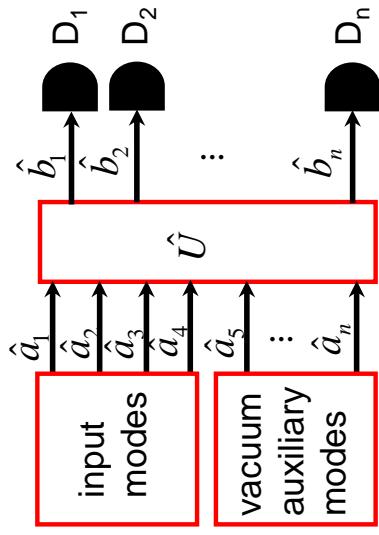
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## GHZ-state analyzer

- the Pan-Zeilinger analyzer discriminates between only two ( $\Phi^\pm$ ) among  $2^N$  GHZ states

## Not complete linear Bell-state analyzer



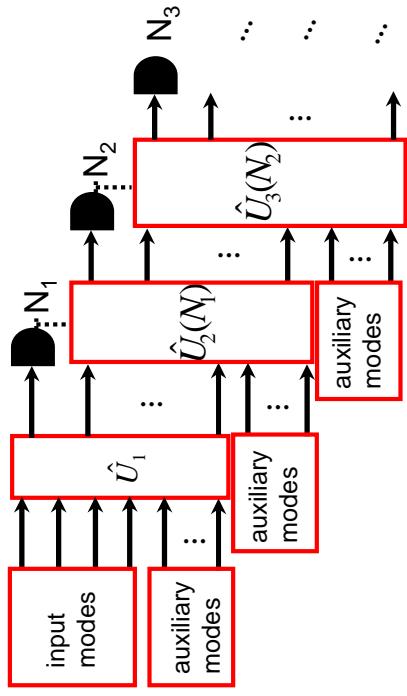
probability to discriminate unambiguously between all the Bell states is

$$P_{\text{success}} \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

[Calsamiglia i Lütkenhaus, 2000]

## Complete linear Bell-state analyzer

- based on conditional measurements



$$P_{\text{success}} = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + f(N_{\text{ph}}, N_{\text{cm}})} \rightarrow 1$$

where  $N_{\text{cm}}$  – number of conditional measurements  
 $N_{\text{ph}}$  – number of entangled photons in auxiliary modes

## Do they exist perfect Bell-state linear analyzers?

### No-go theorem:

There is no perfect Bell state linear analyzer on two qubits in polarization entanglement without conditional measurements.

### Calsamiglia-Lütkenhaus theorem:

Within this subclass it is not possible to discriminate unambiguously four equiprobable Bell states with a probability higher than 50%.

### Why no-go?

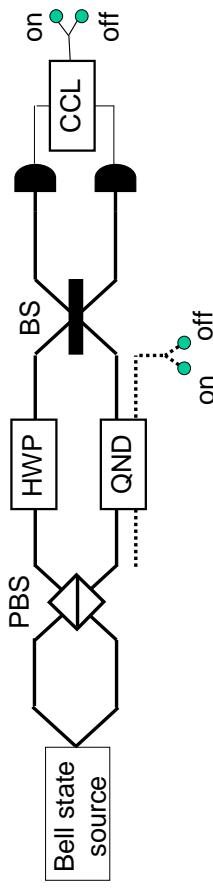
Linear optical elements can provide any arbitrary unitary mapping only over creation operators, not over a general input state.

## Complete nonlinear Bell-state analyzer

[Paris et al. (2000)]

based on

### nonlinear Mach-Zehnder interferometer



**Key:** QND – quantum non-demolition detector,  
 CCL – classical coincidence & logic,  
 HWP – half-wave plate,  
 (P)BS – (polarization) beam splitter.

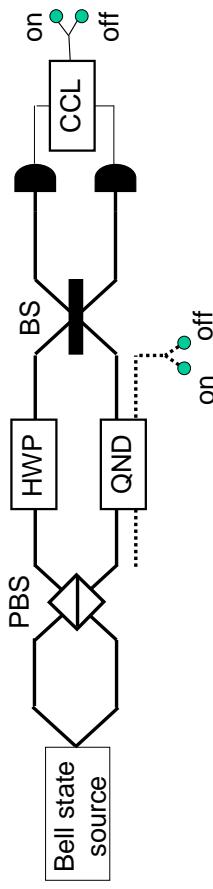
| Bell state       | QND | CCL |
|------------------|-----|-----|
| $ \Psi^+\rangle$ | off | off |
| $ \Psi^-\rangle$ | off | on  |
| $ \Phi^+\rangle$ | on  | off |
| $ \Phi^-\rangle$ | on  | on  |

## Complete nonlinear Bell-state analyzer

[Paris et al. (2000)]

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### nonlinear Mach-Zehnder interferometer



**Key:** QND – quantum non-demolition detector,  
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| Bell state       | QND | CCL |
|------------------|-----|-----|
| $ \Psi^+\rangle$ | off | off |
| $ \Psi^-\rangle$ | off | on  |
| $ \Phi^+\rangle$ | on  | off |
| $ \Phi^-\rangle$ | on  | on  |

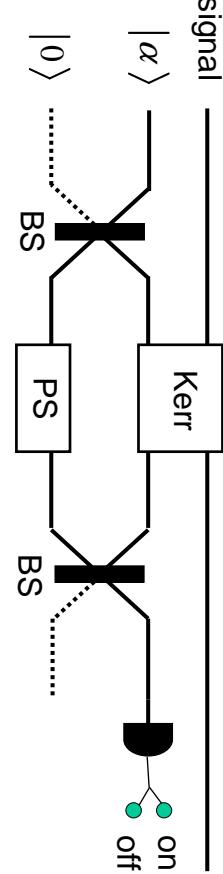
## Measures of quality of the state generation

### 1. Fidelity

= Uhlmann's transition probability for mixed states

$$F(\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}}, \hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}) = \left\{ \text{Tr} \left[ \sqrt{\sqrt{\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}} \hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}} \sqrt{\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}}} \right] \right\}^2$$

$\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}}$  – density matrix for the experimentally generated state  
 $\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}$  – theoretically predicted density matrix



**Key:** Kerr nonlinear medium described by 3rd order susceptibility  $\chi^{(3)}$

$|\alpha\rangle$  – strong coherent field

PS – phase shifter

**QND measurement does not destroy coherence of the signal state, but only adds extra phase, which can easily be corrected.**

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### Kerr effect and QND

### 2. Bures distance

a measure of discrepancy between  $\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}}$  and  $\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}$ :

$$D_B(\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}} || \hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}) = 2 - 2\sqrt{F(\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}}, \hat{\rho}_{\text{th}})}$$

- it satisfies the usual metric properties including symmetry

$$D_B(\hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}} || \hat{\rho}_{\text{th}}) = D_B(\hat{\rho}_{\text{th}} || \hat{\rho}_{\text{exp}})$$

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### 3. Quantum relative entropy = Kullback-Leibler ‘distance’

$$S(\sigma || \rho) = \text{Tr} (\sigma \lg \sigma - \sigma \lg \rho)$$

it is not a true metric since

$$S(\sigma || \rho) \neq S(\rho || \sigma)$$

### 4. MaxLik parameters

- used by us in the tomographic reconstruction of physical density matrices

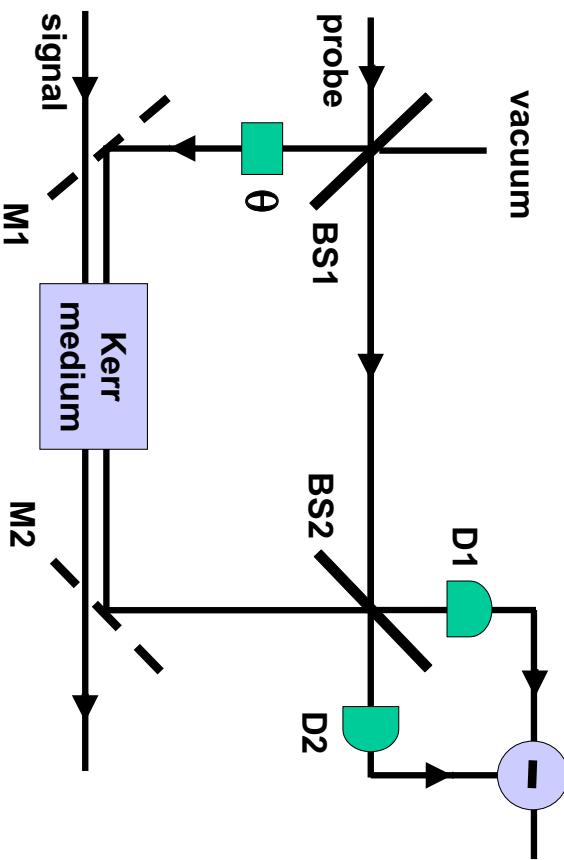
### 5. Relative entropy of entanglement

minimum of the quantum relative entropy

over set  $\mathcal{D}$  of all separable states  $\rho$ :

$$E(\sigma) = \min_{\rho \in \mathcal{D}} S(\sigma || \rho) = S(\sigma || \bar{\rho})$$

$\bar{\rho}$  is the separable state closest to  $\sigma$ .



## Criteria for a good entanglement measure

$\rho$  – the density matrix of a given state

- C1.  $E(\rho) \geq 0$
- $E(\rho) = 0$  for an **unentangled state**
- $E(\rho) = 1$  for a **Bell state**

C2. **local unitary transformations**  $U_A \otimes U_B$  do not change  $E(\rho)$

C3. **LOCC** operations cannot increase  $E(\rho)$

C4. Entanglement is **convex** under discarding information:

$$\sum_i p_i E(\rho_i) \geq E\left(\sum_i p_i \rho_i\right)$$

i.e., mixing cannot increase  $E(\rho)$

C5.\*  $E(\rho)$  should reduce to the entropy of entanglement for a **pure state**

## Entanglement of formation

[Bennett, DiVincenzo, Smolin, and Wootters, PRA'96]

It is the minimized average entanglement of any ensemble of pure states  $|\psi_i\rangle$  realizing  $\rho = \sum_i p_i |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$ :

$$E_F(\rho) = \min_{p_i, \psi_i} \sum_i p_i E(|\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|)$$

### Special case

For two qubits [Wootters, PRL'98]

$$E_F(\rho) = H\left(\frac{1}{2}[1 + \sqrt{1 - C^2(\rho)}]\right)$$

in terms of the **concurrence**

$$C(\rho) = \max\{0, \sqrt{\lambda_1} - \sqrt{\lambda_2} - \sqrt{\lambda_3} - \sqrt{\lambda_4}\}$$

where  $\lambda_i$ 's are in nonincreasing order the eigenvalues of

$$\rho(\sigma_y \otimes \sigma_y)\rho^*(\sigma_y \otimes \sigma_y)$$

“ $C(\rho)$  is a measure of the entanglement of formation in its own right.” [Wootters]

## Measures of entanglement

- entanglement of formation  $E_F$
- entanglement cost  $E_C = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E_F(\rho^{\otimes n})}{n}$
- relative entropy of entanglement  $E_R$
- entanglement of distillation  $E_D$
- ...

for **pure states**

$$E_F = E_C = E_R = E_D$$

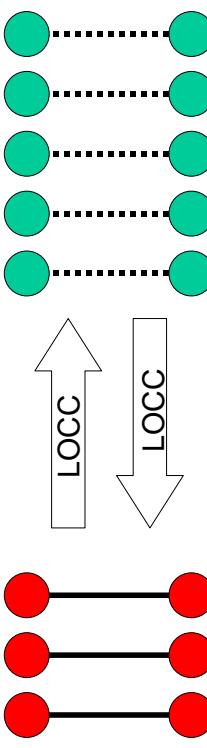
for **mixed states**

$$E_F \geq E_C \geq E_R \geq E_D$$

### entanglement of formation and distillation

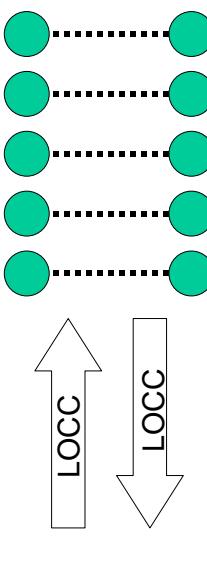
asymptotic conversion ratios for

#### formation



maximally entangled pairs  
partially entangled pairs

#### distillation



partially entangled pairs  
maximally entangled pairs

## Negativity

[Życzkowski et al. PRA'98, Eisert, Plenio JMO'99, Vidal, Werner, PRA'02]

**a quantitative version of the Peres-Horodecki entanglement criterion [Peres, PRL'96, Horodecki et al., PLA'96]**

$$N(\rho) = \max\{0, -2 \min_i \mu_i\}$$

$$N(\rho) = \max\{0, -2 \sum \mu_i\}$$

where  $\mu_i$  eigenvalues of the partial transpose of  $\rho$

## Logarithmic negativity

$$E_N(\rho) = \log_2[N(\rho) + 1]$$

**a measure of the PPT entanglement cost**

[Audenaert et al. PRL'03, Ishizaka PRA'04]

$E_N$  gives upper bounds on the teleportation capacity and the entanglement of distillation  $E_D$  [Vidal, Werner PRA'02]

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## geometric measure of entanglement

$$S(\sigma \parallel \rho_{sep}^*)$$



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## Bell-inequality violation

For two qubits the Bell inequality due to Clauser, Horne, Shimony and Holt (CHSH) [PRL'69]:

$$|\text{Tr}(\rho \mathcal{B}_{\text{CHSH}})| \leq 2$$

where Bell operator is

$$\mathcal{B}_{\text{CHSH}} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \otimes (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b}') \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \mathbf{a}' \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \otimes (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{b}') \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma}$$

and arbitrary  $\rho$  in Hilbert-Schmidt basis is

$$\rho = \frac{1}{4} \left( I \otimes I + \mathbf{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} \otimes I + I \otimes \mathbf{s} \cdot \boldsymbol{\sigma} + \sum_{n,m=1}^3 t_{nm} \sigma_n \otimes \sigma_m \right)$$

$$\text{with } t_{nm} = \text{Tr}(\rho \sigma_n \otimes \sigma_m)$$

**Horodecki et al. [PLA'95] showed that**

$$\max \mathcal{B}_{\text{CHSH}} \quad \text{Tr}(\rho \mathcal{B}_{\text{CHSH}}) = 2 \sqrt{M(\rho)}$$

$$\text{where } M(\rho) = \max_{j < k} \{u_j + u_k\};$$

$$u_j \text{ are eigenvalues of } U_\rho = T_\rho^T T_\rho; T_\rho = [t_{nm}]_{3 \times 3}$$

## Relative entropy of entanglement (REE)

[Vedral, Plenio, Jacobs, Knight, PRA'97]

$$E(\sigma) = \inf_{\rho \in \mathcal{D}} S(\sigma \parallel \rho) = S(\sigma \parallel \rho^*)$$

$\rho^*$  – the closest separable state to  $\sigma$

**quantum relative entropy**

$$S(\sigma \parallel \rho) = \text{Tr}(\sigma \log \sigma - \sigma \log \rho)$$

**NOTE:**

- $S(\sigma \parallel \rho)$  is a “distance” between  $\sigma$  and  $\rho$
- but it is not a true metric:
  - it is neither symmetric nor satisfies the triangle inequality
  - it is not a unique measure of the distance:
    - see also Bures measure with the Uhlmann transition probability (or fidelity)
  $S'(\sigma \parallel \rho) = 2 - 2\sqrt{F(\sigma, \rho)}$  with  $F(\sigma, \rho) = [\text{Tr}(\sqrt{\rho}\sigma\sqrt{\rho})^{1/2}]^2$

## Degree of the Bell-inequality violation (BIV)

**Horodecki theorem:** the Bell inequality is violated iff  $M(\rho) > 1$

- useful parameter

$$B(\rho) \equiv \sqrt{\max\{0, M(\rho) - 1\}}$$

then

$$B(\rho) = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{the maximal violation of Bell inequality}$$

$$B(\rho) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{state } \rho \text{ admits local hidden variable model}$$

### Entanglement measures for two-qubit pure states

$$|\Psi\rangle = c_{00}|00\rangle + c_{01}|01\rangle + c_{10}|10\rangle + c_{11}|11\rangle$$

$$C(\Psi) = N(\Psi) = B(\Psi) = 2|c_{00}c_{11} - c_{01}c_{10}|$$

## CONJECTURE

Entanglement measures should impose the same ordering of states

$$\boxed{E'(\rho_1) < E'(\rho_2) \Leftrightarrow E''(\rho_1) < E''(\rho_2)}$$

### QUESTIONS:

Can this condition be violated?

Yes.

Eisert and Plenio [J. Mod. Opt. 1999] - numerical example  
Is it a necessary condition for consistency of entanglement measures?

Strange, but no.

### Two-qubit Werner states

#### 1. Definition

Mixture of the maximally entangled state (singlet)  $|\Psi^-\rangle$  and the (separable) maximally mixed state [Werner, PRA'89]:

$$\rho_W = p|\Psi^-\rangle\langle\Psi^-| + \frac{1-p}{4}I \otimes I \quad \text{for} \quad 0 \leq p \leq 1$$

#### 2. Degree of Bell-inequality violation

$$B(\rho_W) = \max\{0, 2p^2 - 1\}^{1/2}$$

thus the Werner state violates the Bell inequality  
iff  $1/\sqrt{2} < p \leq 1$

#### 3. Concurrence & negativity

$$C(\rho_W) = N(\rho_W) = \max\left\{0, \frac{1}{2}(3p - 1)\right\}$$

states are entangled iff  $1/3 < p \leq 1$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Entanglement without Bell inequality violation for  $p \in \left(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$

### Eisert-Plenio conclusion from Monte Carlo simulations:

ordering of states can depend on the applied measures of entanglement

### Virmani-Plenio theorem:

all good asymptotic entanglement measures, which reduce to the entropy of entanglement for pure states, are either equivalent or do not impose the same state ordering

### Why is it so?

It is implied by the requirements of equivalence and continuity of the measures on pure states

### Is it physically reasonable?

Yes, as these incomparable states cannot be transformed to each other with unit efficiency by LOCC.

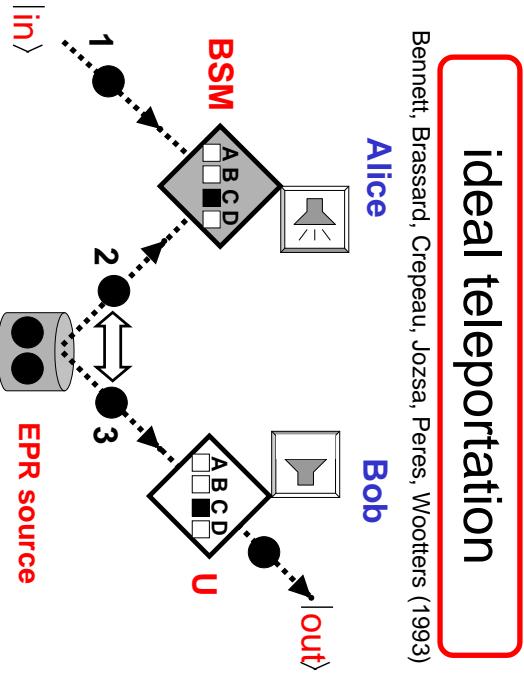
### Can we avoid the state-ordering ambiguity?

No, if we want to define entanglement measures for examining the problems of how to prepare and use the entanglement.

# Questions

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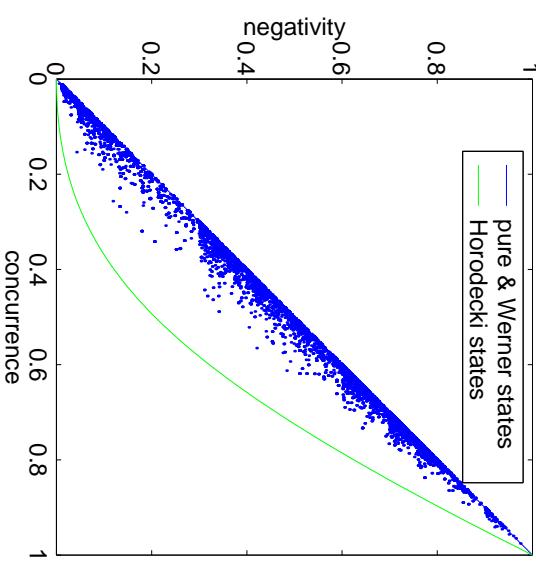
1. Can we find analytical examples of two-qubit states for which entanglement measures impose different orderings ?
2. Are there mixed states more entangled than pure states ???
3. Can we find a physical process manifesting the different orderings ?



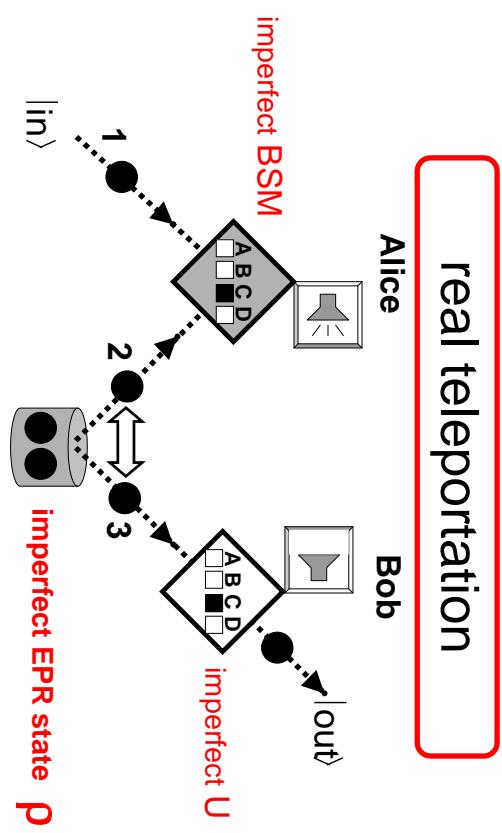
**teleportation fidelity**  $F = \langle in | \rho_{out} | in \rangle = 1$

Upper & lower bounds for negativity vs concurrence

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$$E(\rho') > E(\rho'') \Rightarrow F(\rho') > F(\rho'')$$

?

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Numerical simulations of  $5 \times 10^4$  states.

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## Upper & lower bounds for negativity vs concurrence

[Verstraete et al. JPA'01]

$$C(\rho) \geq N(\rho) \geq \sqrt{[1 - C(\rho)]^2 + C^2(\rho)} + C(\rho) - 1 \equiv f_C(\rho)$$

Structure of the extremal states:

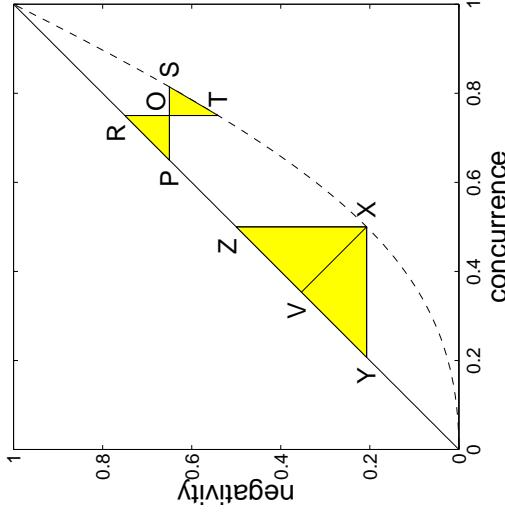
1.  $N(\rho) = C(\rho) \iff$   
the eigenvector corresponds to  
the negative eigenvalue of  $\rho^{TA}$  is a Bell state

$\Rightarrow$  states have the maximum negativity for a given concurrence

2.  $N(\rho) = f_C(\rho) \iff$

two eigenvalues are vanishing and  
the other two correspond to eigenvectors, which are  
a Bell state and separable state orthogonal to it

$\Rightarrow$  states have the minimum negativity for a given concurrence



Two states, when one corresponds to a point  $O$  (or  $X$ ) and the other to any other point in yellow regions, exhibit different state orderings for  $N$  and  $C$ .

### • Examples of the minimum-negativity states

1. Horodecki state  $\rho_H(p) = p|\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_-| + (1-p)|00\rangle\langle 00|$
2. Horodecki-like state  $\rho'_H(p) = p|\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_-| + (1-p)|\psi'\rangle\langle\psi'|$   
where  $|\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{2}(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{concurrence } C(\rho_H) = p$$

$$\text{negativity } N(\rho_H) = \sqrt{(1-p)^2 + p^2} - (1-p)$$

### • Examples of the maximum-negativity states

1. pure states

#### 2. Bell diagonal states

- 2(a) Werner state  $\rho_W(p) = p|\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_-| + \frac{1-p}{4}I \otimes I$   
 $\Rightarrow N(\rho_W) = C(\rho_W) = \max\{0, \frac{3p-1}{2}\}$

### Explicit examples of states extremely violating the ordering condition

Let us choose the Horodecki state:

$$\rho_X = \rho_H(1/2)$$

and the Werner states:

$$\rho_Y = \rho_W(\sqrt{2}/3),$$

$$\rho_Z = \rho_W(2/3),$$

$$\rho_V = \rho_W(1/3 + \sqrt{2}/6)$$

- or pure state  $|\Psi(p)\rangle = \sqrt{p}|01\rangle + \sqrt{1-p}|10\rangle$ :
- $\rho_Y = |\Psi(p)\rangle\langle\Psi(p)|$  for  $p = 1/2 \pm \sqrt{1+2\sqrt{2}}/4,$
  - $\rho_Z$  for  $p = 1/2 \pm \sqrt{3}/4,$
  - $\rho_V$  for  $p = 1/2 \pm \sqrt{14}/8$

## REE vs concurrence and negativity

**REE for Bell diagonal (including Werner) states**

$$E_W(C) = E_W(N) = \frac{1}{2}[(1+C)\log(1+C) + (1-C)\log(1-C)]$$

**REE for pure states**

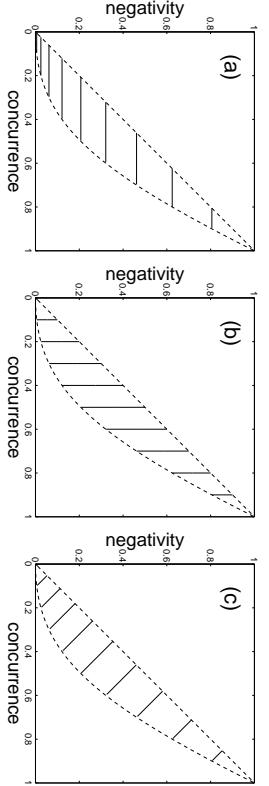
$$E_P(C) = E_P(N) = H\left(\frac{1}{2}[1 + \sqrt{1 - C^2}]\right)$$

**REE for Horodecki states**

$$\sigma_H = C|\psi_-\rangle\langle\psi_-| + (1-C)|00\rangle\langle 00|$$

$$E_H(C) = (C - 2)\log(1 - C/2) + (1 - C)\log(1 - C)$$

$$E_H(C = \sqrt{2N(1+N)} - 1)$$



## States specifically violating the ordering condition

### Numerics for two-qubit REE:

[Vedral and Plenio, PRA'1998]

#### Caratheodory's theorem:

Any state in  $\mathcal{D}$  can be decomposed into a sum of at most  $(\dim(H_A) \times \dim(H_B))^2$  products of pure states.

Thus, any disentangled 2 qubit state can be given by

- **Three classes of states:**
- 1. states with the same negativity  $N_0$ :

$$\rho' = \bar{\rho}(p, q') \text{ for } q' = \frac{N_0[N_0+2(1-p)]-p^2}{2p(1-p)}$$

- 2. states with the same concurrence  $C_0$ :

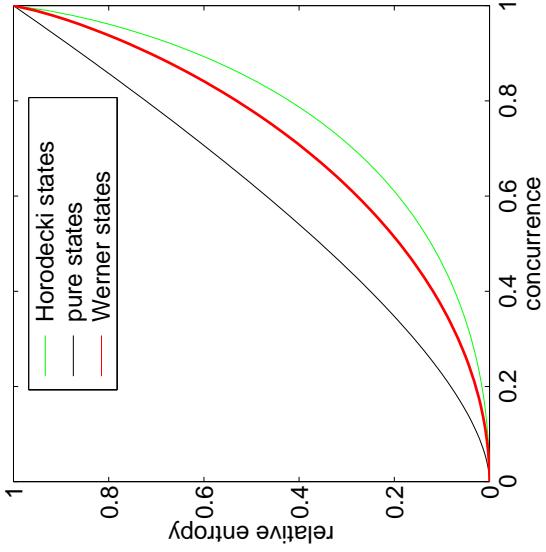
$$\rho'' = \bar{\rho}(C_0, q)$$

- 3. states giving exactly opposite predictions:

$$\rho''' = \bar{\rho}(p, q''') \text{ for } q''' = 1 + \frac{[N(\rho) + C(\rho) + 1 - 2\rho]^2 - 1}{2p(1-p)}$$

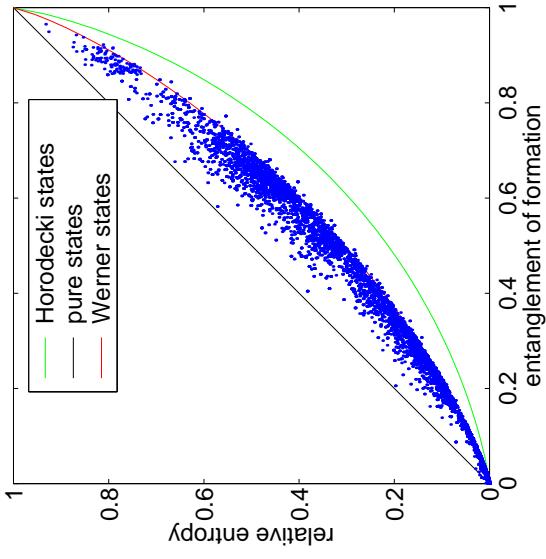
$S(\sigma||\rho)$  is a convex function  
 $\mathcal{D}$  is a convex set (convex hull) of its pure states  
a convex function over a convex set can only have a global minimum

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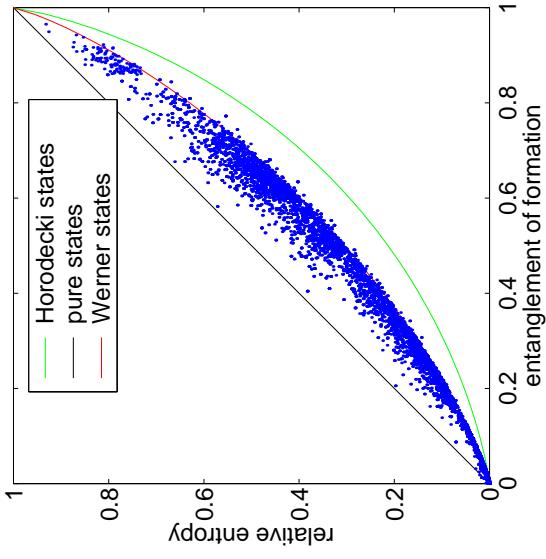
**Relative entropy vs concurrence:**  
 $E_{\text{pure}}(C) > E_W(C) > E_H(C)$  for  $C \in (0, 1)$

523



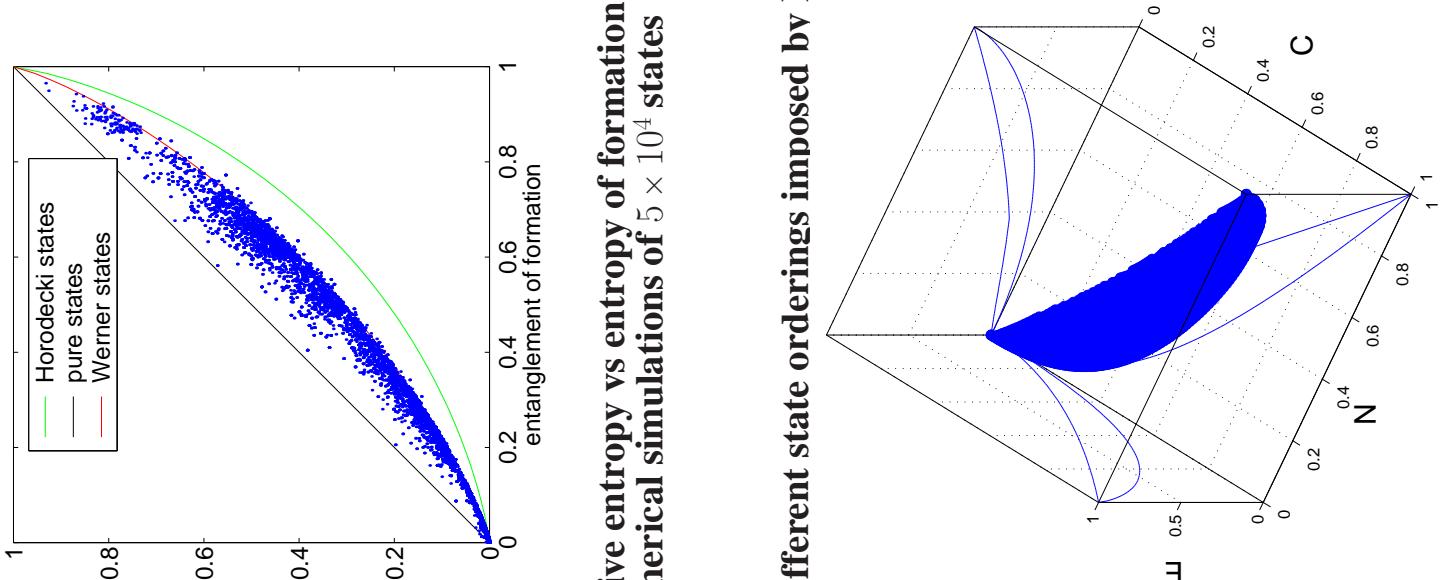
**Relative entropy vs entropy of formation:**  
Numerical simulations of  $5 \times 10^4$  states

522

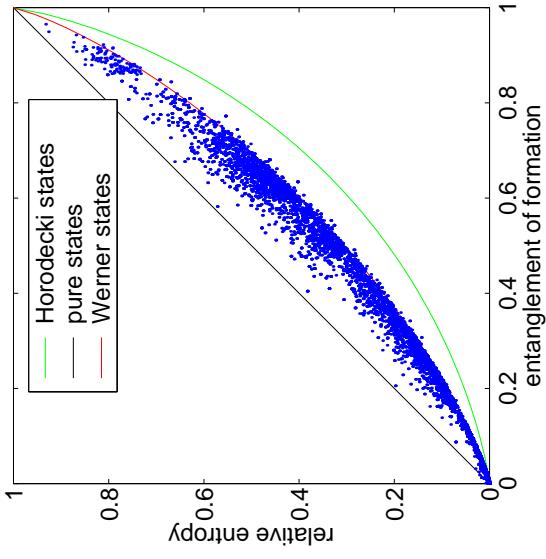


**Relative entropy vs concurrence:**  
 $E_{\text{pure}}(C) > E_W(C) > E_H(C)$  for  $C \in (0, 1)$

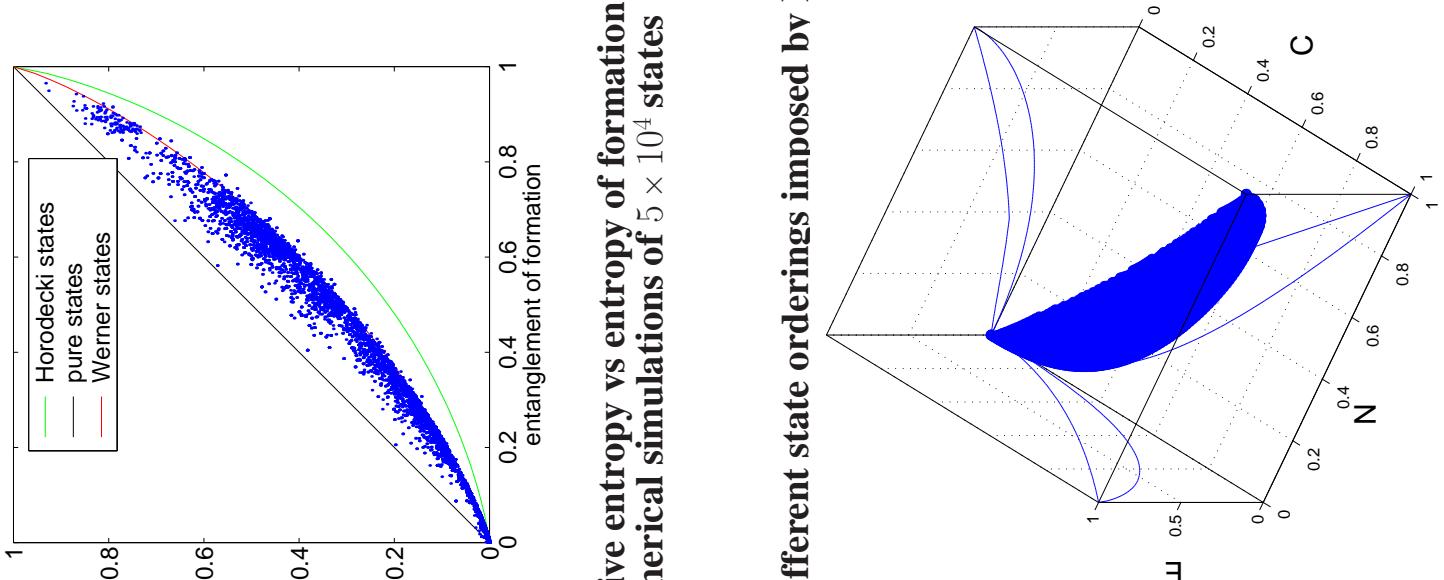
**How to find different state orderings imposed by E, C & N**



**Relative entropy vs concurrence:**  
Numerical simulations of  $5 \times 10^4$  states



**Relative entropy vs entropy of formation:**  
Numerical simulations of  $5 \times 10^4$  states



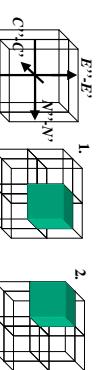


Table 1: All cases of different state orderings by E, C & N.

| Class | Concurrents                | Negativities               | REEs                       |
|-------|----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1     | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 2     | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') > N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 3     | $C(\sigma') > C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 4     | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') > E(\sigma'')$ |
| 5     | $C(\sigma') = C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') = N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') = E(\sigma'')$ |
| 6     | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') = N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 7     | $C(\sigma') = C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 8     | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') = E(\sigma'')$ |
| 9     | $C(\sigma') = C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') = N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 10    | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') = N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') = E(\sigma'')$ |
| 11    | $C(\sigma') = C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') < N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') = E(\sigma'')$ |
| 12    | $C(\sigma') > C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') = N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 13    | $C(\sigma') = C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') > N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') < E(\sigma'')$ |
| 14    | $C(\sigma') < C(\sigma'')$ | $N(\sigma') > N(\sigma'')$ | $E(\sigma') = E(\sigma'')$ |

## Quantum information processing with quantum dots

1. based on electron spins of quantum dots using optical methods
2. based on nuclear spins of quantum dots using NMR methods

### What are the quantum dots?

Quantum dots (q-dots or artificial atoms) are small metal or semiconductor boxes that hold a well-defined number of electrons

#### useful property

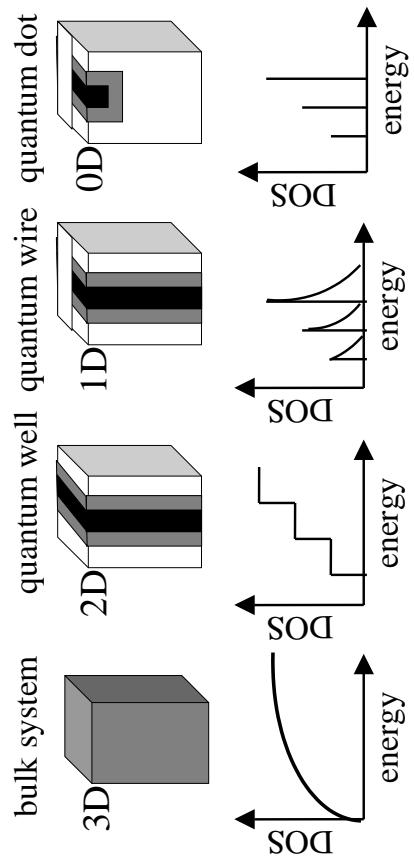
number of electrons in a q-dot can be adjusted by changing the dot electrostatic environment

#### parameters

number of electrons: from 0 to hundreds  
size of q-dots: from 30 nm to 1 micron

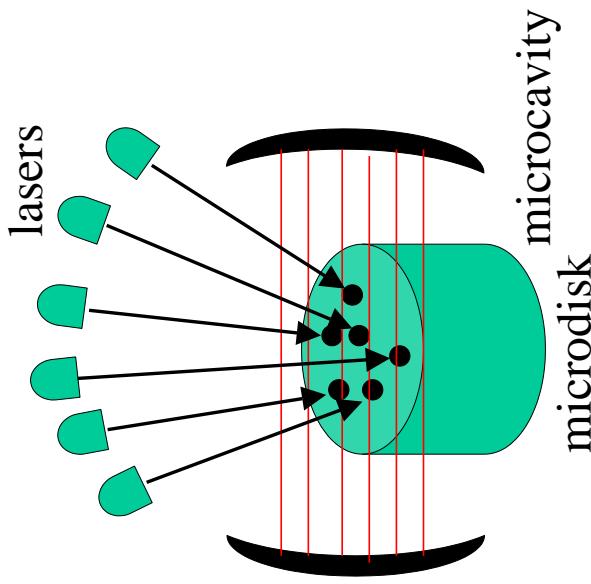
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### Energy spectra of q-dots vs other nano-structures

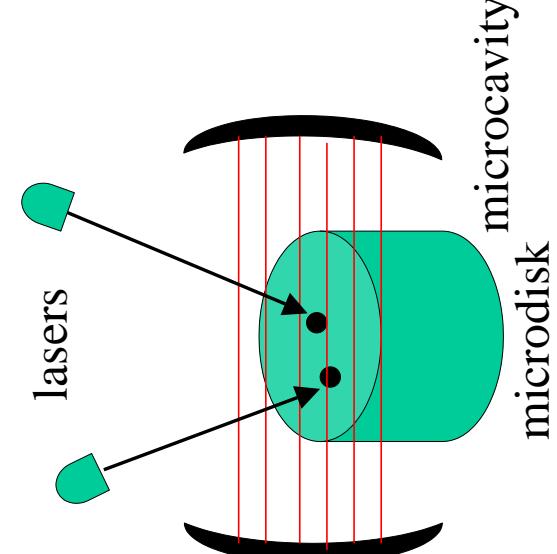


Scalable system of quantum dot interactions and cavity QED

531

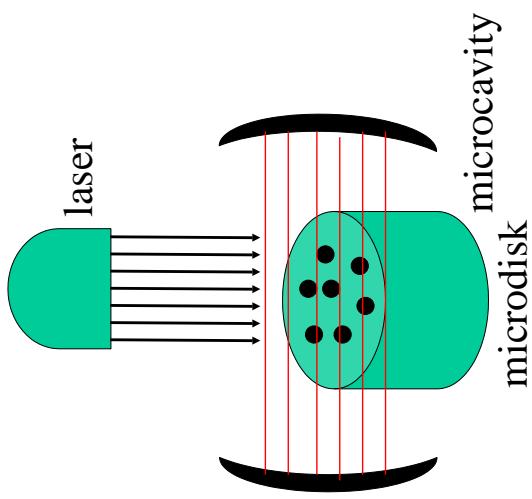


Quantum-information processing based on q-dots  
and cavity QED [Imamoğlu et al., PRL'99]



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### Identical quantum dots in microcavity

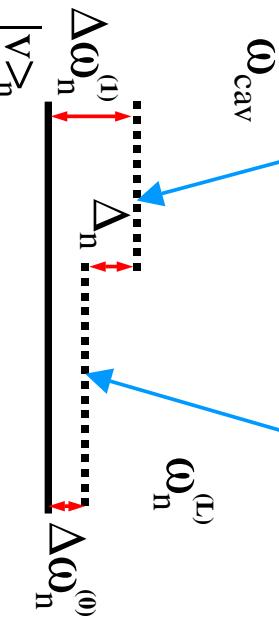


## Derivation of q-dot interaction Hamiltonian

### conduction band



**3-level Hamiltonian for**  $|g_n\rangle, |e_n\rangle, |v_n\rangle, a_n^{(L)}, a_{\text{cav}}$



**effective 2-level Hamiltonian for**  $|g_n\rangle, |e_n\rangle, a_n^{(L)}, a_{\text{cav}}$

**effective spin-spin interaction Hamiltonian for**  $|g_n\rangle, |e_n\rangle$

**valence band**

**Level structure of quantum dots in V configuration**

**equivalent-neighbor (SVW) Hamiltonian**

**Hamiltonian for  
 $N$  three-level q-dots interacting with  $N + 1$  fields**

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} &= \hat{H}_{QD} + \hat{H}_F + \hat{H}_{\text{int}}, \\ \hat{H}_{QD} &= \sum_n (\mathcal{E}_n^{(0)} \hat{\sigma}_n^{00} + \mathcal{E}_n^{(1)} \hat{\sigma}_n^{11} + \mathcal{E}_n^{(v)} \hat{\sigma}_n^{vv}), \\ \hat{H}_F &= \hbar \omega_{\text{cav}} \hat{a}_{\text{cav}}^\dagger \hat{a}_{\text{cav}} + \sum_n \hbar \omega_n^{(L)} (\hat{a}_n^{(L)})^\dagger \hat{a}_n^{(L)}, \\ \hat{H}_{\text{int}} &= \sum_n \hbar g_n^{v0} [\hat{a}_n^{(L)} \hat{\sigma}_n^{0v} + (\hat{a}_n^{(L)})^\dagger \hat{\sigma}_n^{v0}] \\ &\quad + \sum_n \hbar g_n^{vl} (\hat{a}_{\text{cav}} \hat{\sigma}_n^{1v} + \hat{a}_{\text{cav}}^\dagger \hat{\sigma}_n^{v1}), \end{aligned}$$

where the  $n$ th dot operator is  $\hat{\sigma}_n^{xy} = |x\rangle_{nm}\langle y|$

**Note:** Q-dots are coupled only indirectly via the cavity and laser fields

**Hamiltonian after adiabatic elimination**

$$\hat{H}_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sum_{n \neq m} \kappa_{nm}(t) [\hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^- e^{i(\Delta_n - \Delta_m)t} + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^+ e^{-i(\Delta_n - \Delta_m)t}]$$

where

$$\kappa_{nm}(t) = \frac{g_n(t) g_m(t)}{\Delta_n}$$

$$g_n(t) = g_n^{v0} g_n^{v1} |E_n^{(L)}(t)| \left( \frac{1}{\Delta \omega_n^{(1)}} + \frac{1}{\Delta \omega_n^{(0)}} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \omega_k^{(n)} &= \omega_k^{(n)} - \omega_{VB}^{(n)} - \omega_{\text{cav}} \quad (k = e, g) \\ \Delta_n &= \omega_e^{(n)} - \omega_g^{(n)} + \omega_L^{(n)} - \omega_{\text{cav}} = \Delta \omega_e^{(n)} - \Delta \omega_g^{(n)} \end{aligned}$$

**Adiabatic elimination requires**

1. coupling strength, cavity decay rate, and thermal fluctuations  
 $\ll \hbar \Delta_n, \hbar \Delta \omega_n^{(x)}, \mathcal{E}_n^{(1)} - \mathcal{E}_n^{(0)}$
2. valence-band levels  $|v\rangle_n$  are far off resonance.

## Models

**Frenkel-type model or Heisenberg model**

$$\hat{H}_{\text{int}} = \hbar \sum_{n \neq m} T_{nm} [\hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^- + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^+ + \gamma (\hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^+ + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^-)]$$

**Spin van der Waals (SVW) model**

Frenkel model for  $T_{nm} = \text{const}$

$$\hat{H}_{\text{int}} = \kappa \sum_{n \neq m} [\hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^- + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^+ + \gamma (\hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^+ + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^-)]$$

**Conservative SVW model (CE model)**

SVW model for  $\gamma = 0$

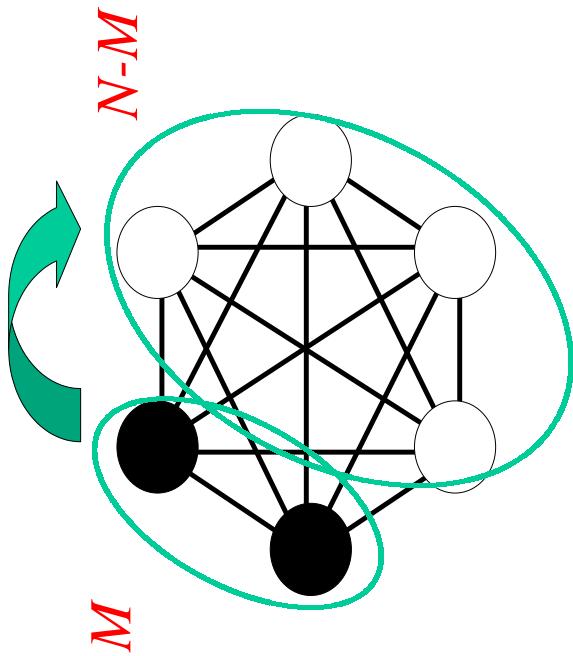
$$\hat{H}_{\text{int}} = \kappa \sum_{n \neq m} \hat{\sigma}_n^+ \hat{\sigma}_m^- + \hat{\sigma}_n^- \hat{\sigma}_m^+$$

**Non-conservative SVW model (NCE model)**

SVW model for  $\gamma = 1$

$$\hat{H}_{\text{int}} = 4\kappa \sum_{n \neq m} \hat{\sigma}_n^x \hat{\sigma}_m^x$$

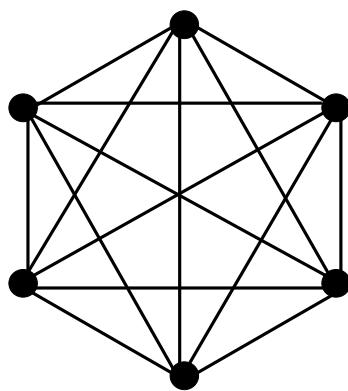
## Q-dot bipartite entanglement in SVW model



## Quantum Computing Based on Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR)

1. nuclear qubits and qudits
2. control of nuclear spins
3. pseudo-pure states
4. quantum gates
5. quantum algorithms
6. tomography of nuclear spins

## Entangled webs in spin van der Waals (SVW) model



**Tight bound for symmetric sharing of entanglement**

$$C_{ij} \leq 2/N$$

[Koashi,Bužek,Imoto, PRA'00]

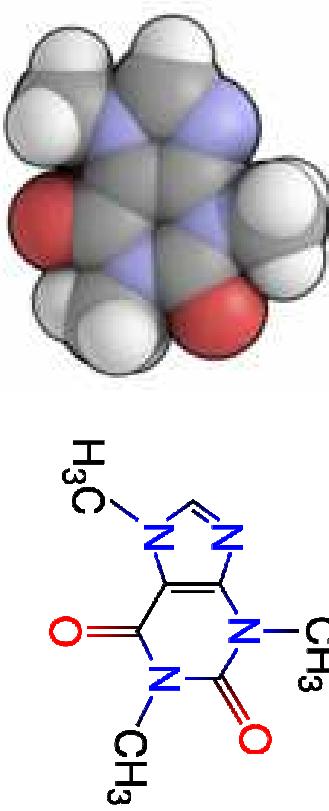
# Quantum computer in a cup of coffee?

NMR quantum computing in nanostructures 543

## caffeine molecule

- qubits encoded in nonequivalent C-nuclei

$C_8H_{10}N_4O_2$



CHEMICAL NAME:

3,7-Dihydro-1,3,7-trimethyl-1H-purine-2,6-dione

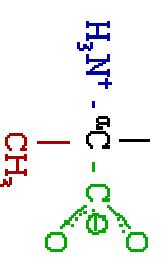


542

## energy levels of spin $I=3/2$

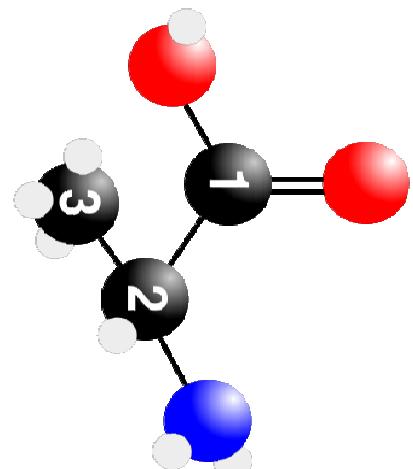
544

## three qubits encoded in $^{13}\text{C}$ -labeled alanine molecule



Alanine  
(Ala /  $\text{A}$ )

Zeeman interaction    quadrupole interaction    2nd order shifts  
(usually neglected)



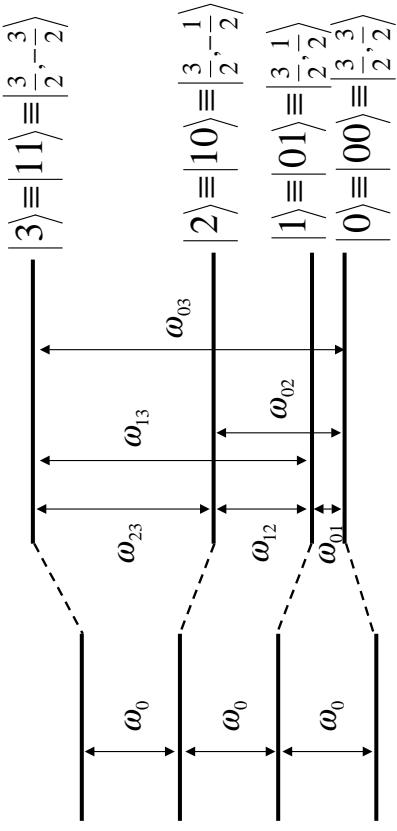
J-coupling Hamiltonian for carbon-13 nuclei

$$\hat{H}_{int} = \nu_1 \hat{\sigma}_z^{(1)} + \nu_2 \hat{\sigma}_z^{(2)} + \nu_3 \hat{\sigma}_z^{(3)} + \frac{1}{2}(J_{12} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(1)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(2)} + J_{23} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(2)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(3)} + J_{13} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(1)} \hat{\sigma}_z^{(3)})$$

## quartit is equivalent to 2 virtual qubits

# rotations via NMR techniques

### *Z*-rotation



corresponds to free evolution of a spin-1/2 system without r.f. fields

- **Hamiltonian**

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}}_0 = \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_0\hat{\sigma}_z$$

- **solution of Schrödinger equation**

$$|\psi(t_p)\rangle = \hat{R}_z(\omega_0 t_p) |\psi(0)\rangle$$

in terms of the propagator

$$\hat{R}_z(\omega_0 t_p) = \exp\left[\frac{1}{i\hbar}\hat{\mathcal{H}}_0 t_p\right] = \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\omega_0 t_p/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\omega_0 t_p/2} \end{bmatrix},$$

which is equal to  $\hat{Z}(\theta)$  for  $\theta = \omega_0 t_p$ .

quartit = ququart = 4-level qudit

### *X* - and *Y* -rotations

- **assumptions**

coil is along *x*-axis generating an r.f. pulse field

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{rf}}(t) = B_{\text{rf}} \cos(\omega_{\text{ref}} + \phi_p) \mathbf{e}_x$$

- $\phi_p$  is the phase of the pulse
- $B_{\text{rf}}$  is the amplitude of the oscillating r.f. field
- $\omega_{\text{ref}}$  is the spectrometer reference frequency

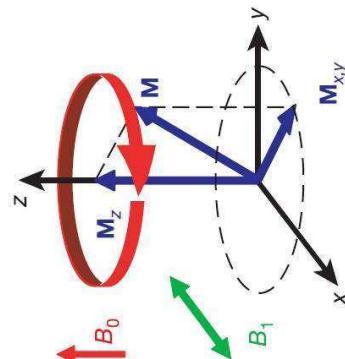
spin Hamiltonian during the r.f. pulse set on resonance

$$\omega_{\text{Larmor}} = \omega_{\text{ref}}$$

- **Hamiltonian** in the rotating frame

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}}'_{\text{rf,rot}} = \frac{\hbar\omega_{\text{init}}}{2} (\hat{\sigma}_x \cos \phi_p + \hat{\sigma}_y \sin \phi_p)$$

where  $\omega_{\text{init}} = \gamma B_{\text{rf}}$  is the nutation frequency



$M$  – magnetization vector of an ensemble of nuclear spins

$B_0$  – static magnetic field

$B_1$  – magnetic field component of the r.f. field

$M_{xy}$  – transverse component of  $M$  precessing in the x-y plane  
(Larmor precession)

$M_z$  – longitudinal component of  $M$  static along  $B_0$

## • solution of Schrödinger equation

for a pulse at resonant frequency  $\omega$  of duration  $t_p$ , which corresponds to the nutation angle  $\theta_p = \omega_{\text{nut}} t_p$ , and general phase  $\phi_p$  can be given as

$$|\psi(t_p)\rangle = \hat{\chi}(\phi_p, \theta_p)|\psi(0)\rangle$$

where the **propagator** is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\chi}(\phi_p, \theta_p) &= \exp \left[ \frac{1}{i\hbar} \hat{\mathcal{H}}'_{\text{rf}, \text{rot}} t_p \right] \\ &= \exp \left[ -\frac{i}{2} \theta_p (\hat{\sigma}_x \cos \phi_p + \hat{\sigma}_y \sin \phi_p) \right] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta_p}{2} & -i \exp(-i\phi_p) \sin \frac{\theta_p}{2} \\ -i \exp(i\phi_p) \sin \frac{\theta_p}{2} & \cos \frac{\theta_p}{2} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \hat{Z}(\phi_p) \hat{X}(\theta_p) \hat{Z}(-\phi_p)\end{aligned}$$

### • special cases

$$\hat{X}(\theta) = \hat{\chi}(0, \theta)$$

$$\hat{Y}(\theta) = \hat{\chi}(\pi/2, \theta)$$

## selective rotations in a quartit

550

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{X}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2}) &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{X}_{12}(\frac{\pi}{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \hat{X}_{02}(\frac{\pi}{2}) &= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{Y}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \\ \hat{X}_{01}(\pi) &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i & 0 & 0 \\ -i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{Y}_{01}(\pi) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \dots\end{aligned}$$

## Who has introduced NMR quantum computing?

the method has been developed independently by:

1. **Cory, Fahmy, Havel** in the article on "NMR spectroscopy: an experimentally accessible paradigm for quantum computing" (1996).
2. **Gershenfeld and Chuang** in "Bulk quantum computation" (1996).

## How to generate pseudo-pure states?

### pseudo-pure states (PPS) or effective pure states

can be obtained via

1. spatial averaging
2. temporal averaging
3. logical labeling

Here, we describe only a version of spatial averaging.

## How to obtain pseudo-pure states?

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### population of the spin energy level $|k\rangle$

$$N_k = A + (4 - k)\Delta$$

where

$$A = \frac{N}{4} - \frac{5N\hbar\omega_0}{8k_B T}, \quad \Delta = \frac{N\hbar\omega_0}{4k_B T},$$

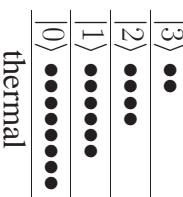
$N$  – total number of spins

$\omega_0$  – Larmor frequency

**Note:**  $A$  does not contribute to the observed NMR signal

**Assumption:** quadrupole interaction  $\ll$  Zeeman interaction

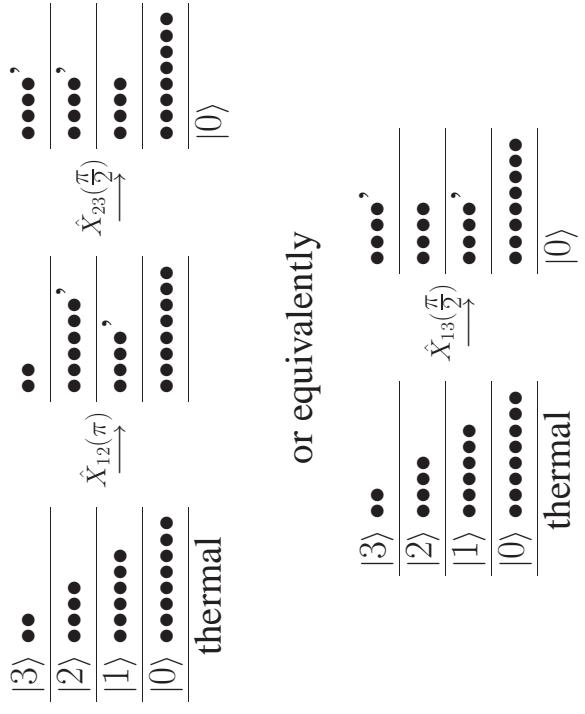
$\bullet\bullet \leftrightarrow \Delta$  – relative occupation of the corresponding quantum level



thermal

## How to obtain pseudo-pure state $|0\rangle$ in a quartit

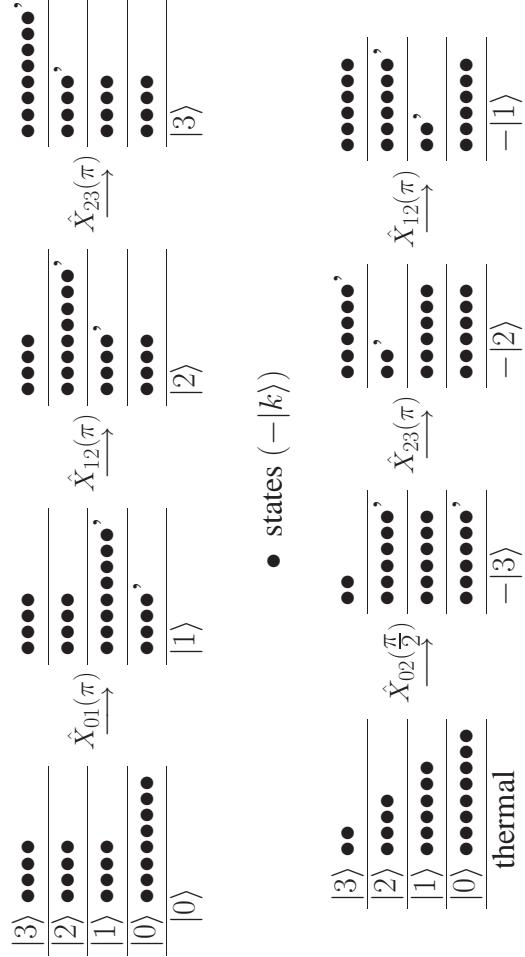
553 Interchanging pseudo-pure states in a quartit



**Note:** here  $|11\rangle$  – is the most populated state in equilibrium.  
Whether  $|11\rangle$  or  $|00\rangle$  is the most populated depends on our labeling and direction of external magnetic field.

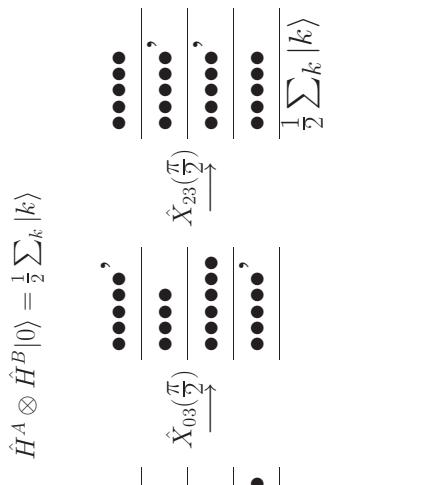
## How to obtain pseudo-pure states in a quartit

- states  $|k\rangle$  ( $k = 1, 2, 3$ ):



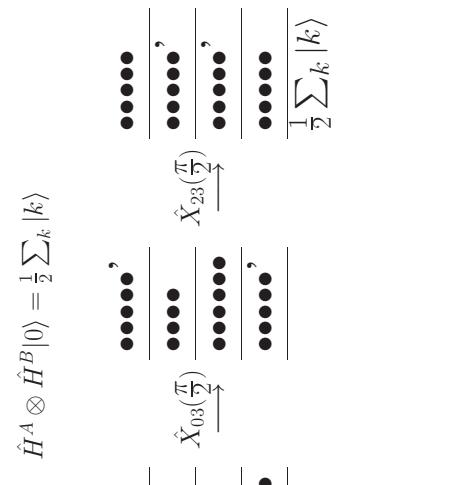
554 How to prepare equally-weighted superposition of pseudo-pure states in a quartit?

Apply gate equivalent to two-qubit Hadamard gate.



556 How to prepare equally-weighted superposition of pseudo-pure states in a quartit?

Apply gate equivalent to two-qubit Hadamard gate.



## experimental generation of pseudo-pure states in solid-state systems of $^{69}\text{Ga}$ nuclei



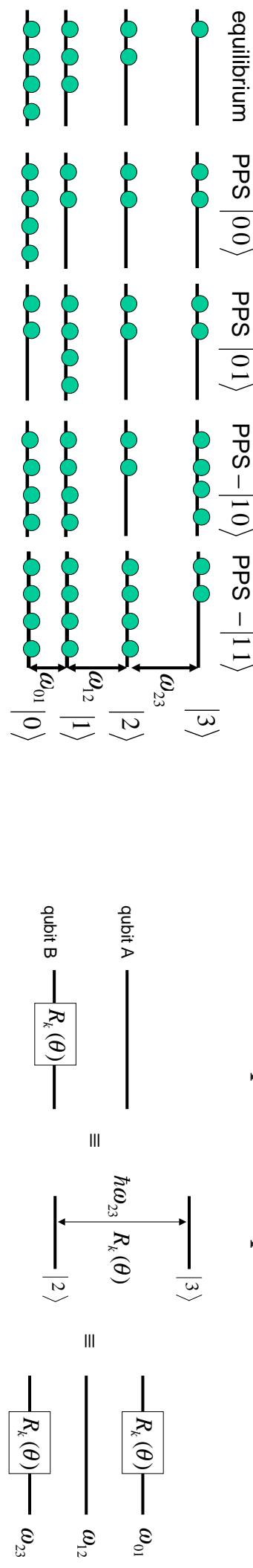
Key:  $\frac{\text{population}}{\text{energy level}}$ , PPS - pseudo-pure states, Eq - equilibrium [Mahesh *et al.* '03]

[Hirayama *et al.* '06]

## NMR spectra for a quartit

How to rotate “qubit” B in a quartit?

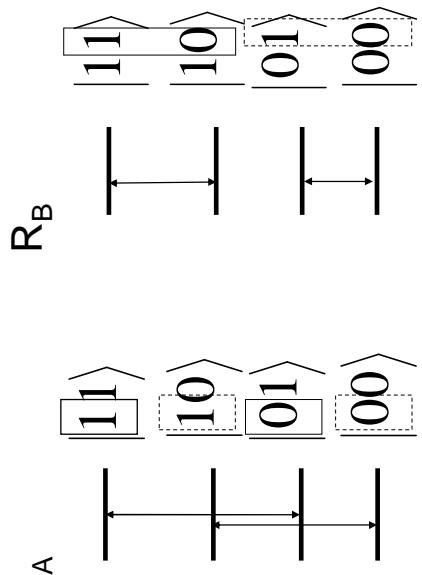
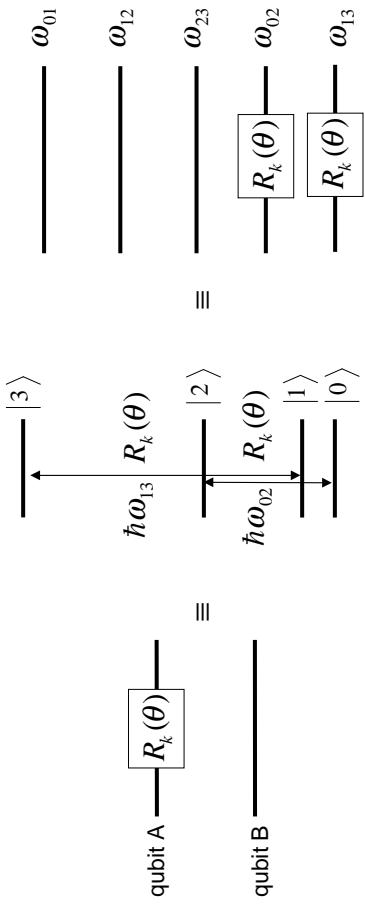
560



## How to rotate “qubit” A in a quartit?

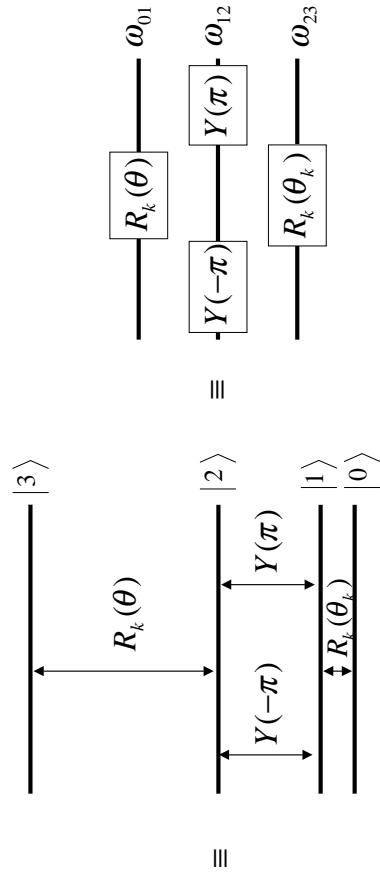
561

## rotations of virtual qubit in quartit

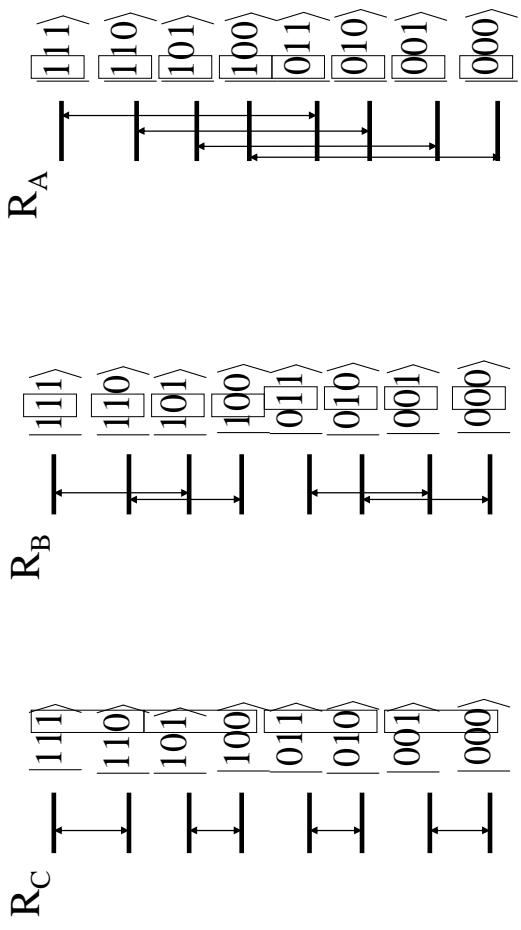


pulses are applied simultaneously

## Another method to rotate “qubit” A in a quartit



## rotations of a virtual qubit in 8D qudit



simultaneous application of pulses

## Hadamard gates via rotations

### NOT gates via rotations

- NOT gate for a qubit

$$\hat{U}_{\text{NOT}} = \hat{\sigma}_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = i\hat{X}(\pi)$$

- Hadamard gate for a qubit

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = i\hat{X}_{01}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2})\hat{Z}(\pi)$$

- NOT gate for qubit A in a quartit

$$\hat{U}_{\text{NOT}}^A = \hat{U}_{\text{NOT}} \otimes \hat{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{U}_{\text{NOT}}^A = i\hat{X}_{02}(\pi)\hat{X}_{13}(\pi)$$

- NOT gate for qubit B in a quartit

$$\hat{U}_{\text{NOT}}^B = \hat{I} \otimes \hat{U}_{\text{NOT}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \hat{U}_{\text{NOT}}^B = i\hat{X}_{01}(\pi)\hat{X}_{23}(\pi)$$

- Hadamard gate for qubit B in a quartit

$$\hat{H}^B = \hat{I} \otimes \hat{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = i\hat{X}_{01}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2})\hat{X}_{23}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\pi)$$

NMR spectra for classical gates in a spin-1/2 system

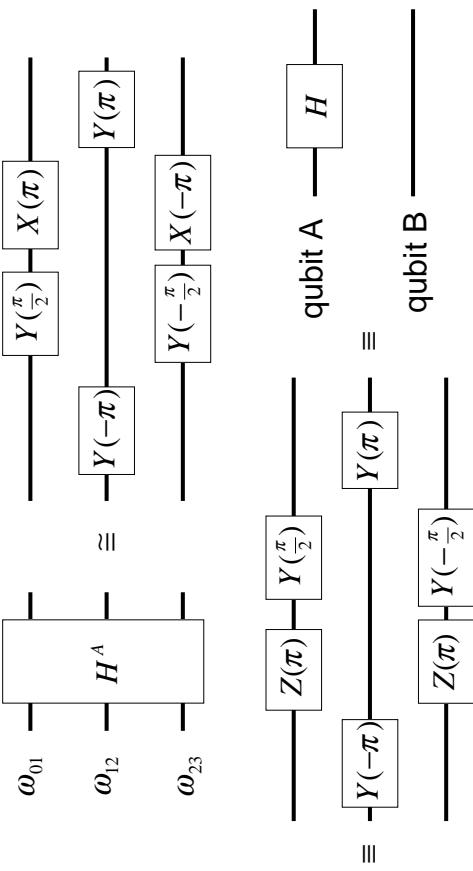
566  
Equivalent realizations of Hadamard gate  $H^B$  (up to factor  $i$ )



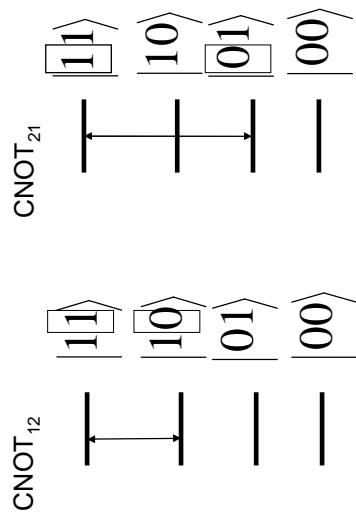
[Mahesh et al.,'03]

## Equivalent realizations of Hadamard gate $H^A$ (up to factor $i$ )

## CNOT gates of 2 virtual qubits



## CNOT gates of 2 virtual qubits #1



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## CNOT gates via rotations

$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}([1, 1, -1, 1]) \cdot \hat{Y}_{23}(\pi),$$

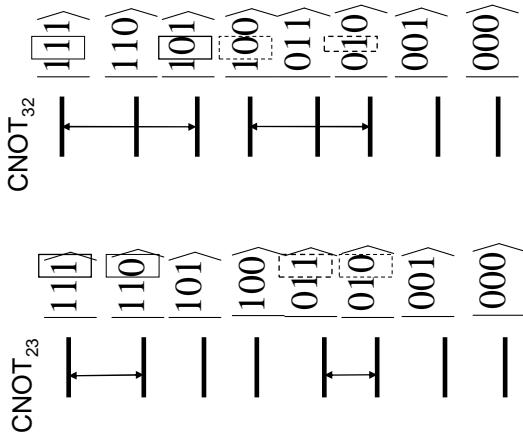
$$\hat{U}_{\text{CNOT2}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \text{diag}([1, 1, 1, -1]) \cdot Y_{12}(\pi) \hat{Y}_{23}(\pi) \hat{Y}_{12}(-\pi)$$

## truth tables

| CNOT1 |     | CNOT2 |     | SWAP |     |
|-------|-----|-------|-----|------|-----|
| in    | out | in    | out | in   | out |
| 00    | 00  | 00    | 00  | 00   | 00  |
| 01    | 01  | 01    | 11  | 01   | 10  |
| 10    | 11  | 11    | 10  | 10   | 01  |
| 11    | 10  | 11    | 01  | 11   | 01  |

pulses are applied simultaneously

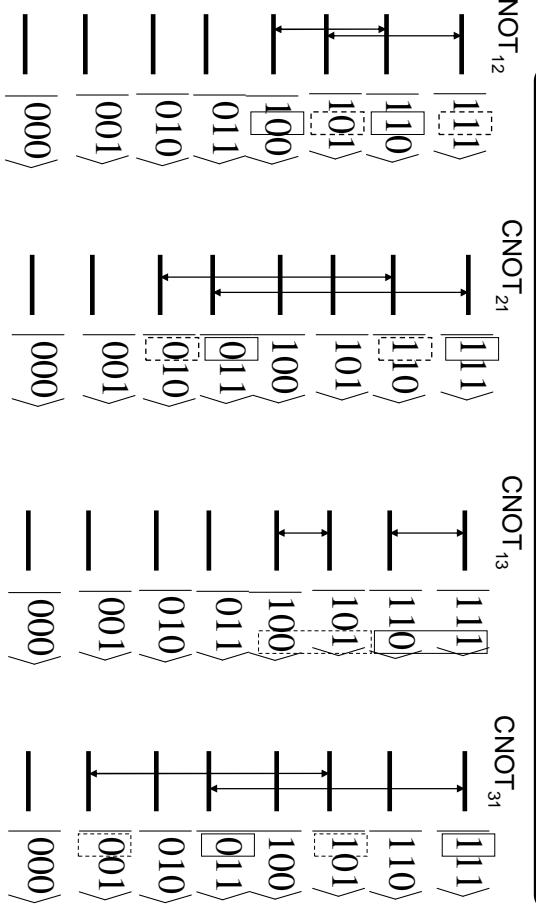
## CNOT gates of 3 virtual qubits #1



# CNOT gates of 3 virtual qubits #2

## NMR implementations of two-qubit algorithms

575



pulses are applied simultaneously

## SWAP gates via rotations

574

## What can be done with two-virtual qubits?

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### NMR implementations of two-qubit algorithms on spin-3/2 nuclei:

1. demonstration of classical gates

[Khitrin *et al.*'00, Sinha *et al.*'01, Kumar *et al.*'02]

2. demonstration of quantum gates

[Sarthour *et al.*'03, Kampermann *et al.*'02, Steffen'03,

3. generation of Bell states

[Sarthour *et al.*'03, Kampermann *et al.*'02]

4. quantum tomography

[Bonk *et al.*'04, Steffen'03, Kampermann *et al.*'05]

$$\hat{U}_{\text{SWAP}} = \hat{U}'_{\text{SWAP}} \cdot \text{diag}([1, 1, -1, 1]) = \text{diag}([1, -1, 1, 1]) \cdot \hat{U}'_{\text{SWAP}}$$

$$= \hat{U}''_{\text{SWAP}} \cdot \text{diag}([1, i, i, 1]) = \text{diag}([1, i, i, 1]) \cdot \hat{U}''_{\text{SWAP}}$$

## relation between them

## 5. Grover search algorithm

[Ermakov *et al.*'02, Steffen'03, Kampermann *et al.*'05]

### 6. Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm

[Das *et al.*'03, Kampermann *et al.*'05]

### 7. quantum Fourier transform

[Kampermann *et al.*'05]

### 8. \* quantum error detection

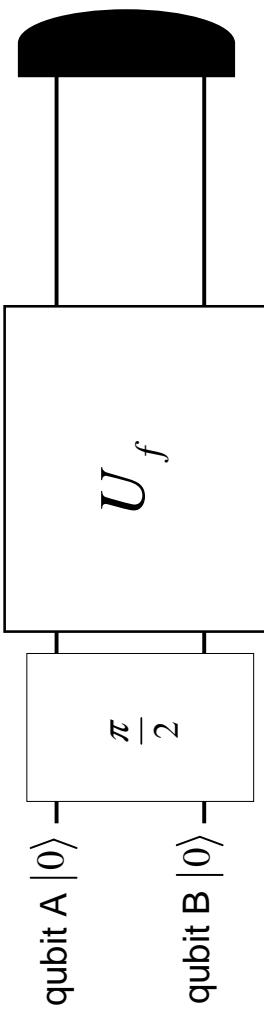
9. \* quantum simulations

10. \* dense coding

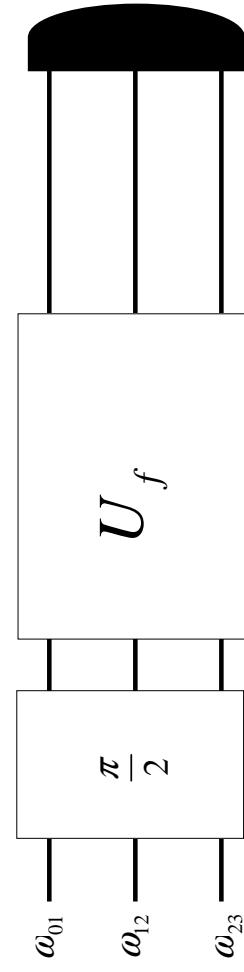
11. \* Hogg algorithm

12. \* quantum erasers  
(\*) - not implemented yet

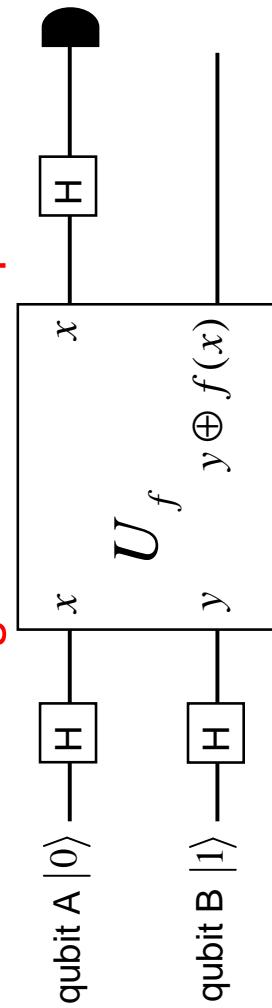
## experimental Deutsch's algorithm for two qubits



## experimental Deutsch's algorithm for a quartit



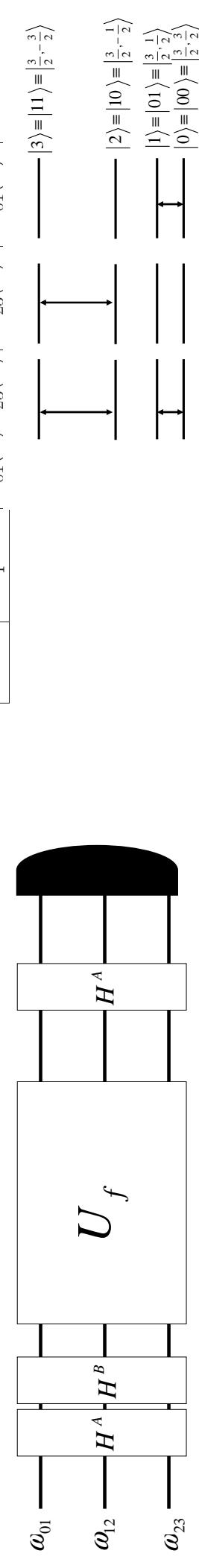
## Deutsch's algorithm for two qubits



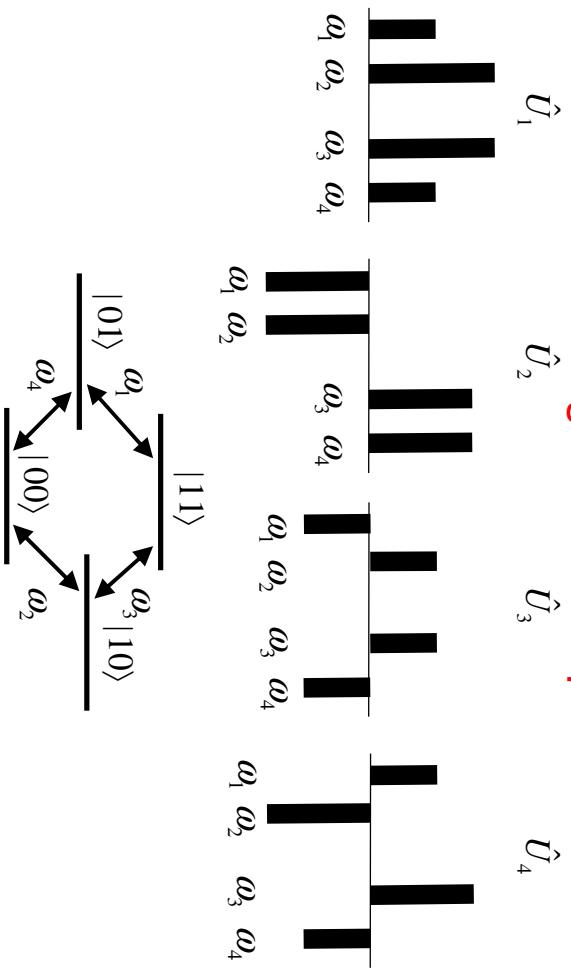
## NMR pulses for the oracle in Deutsch's algorithm

|       | Constant                                                                                         |                                                                                                  |                                                                                                  |                                                                                                  | Balanced            |                     |   |   |
|-------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---|---|
|       | $f_1$                                                                                            | $f_2$                                                                                            | $f_3$                                                                                            | $f_4$                                                                                            |                     |                     |   |   |
| 0     | 0                                                                                                | 0                                                                                                | 1                                                                                                | 0                                                                                                | 0                   | 0                   | 1 | 1 |
| 1     | 0                                                                                                | 0                                                                                                | 1                                                                                                | 1                                                                                                | 1                   | 0                   | 0 | 0 |
| $U_f$ | $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ | $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ | $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ | $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ | $\hat{X}_{23}(\pi)$ | $\hat{X}_{01}(\pi)$ |   |   |

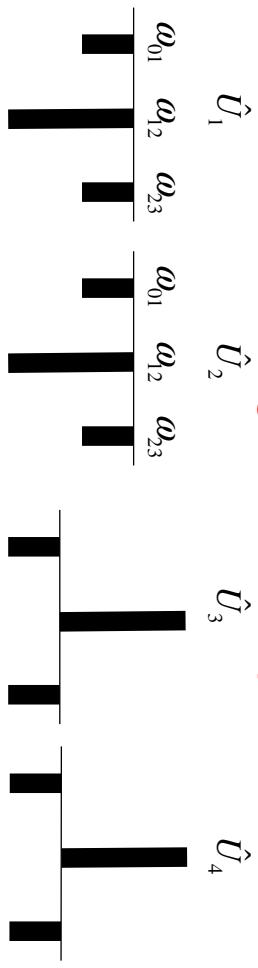
## Deutsch's algorithm for a quartit



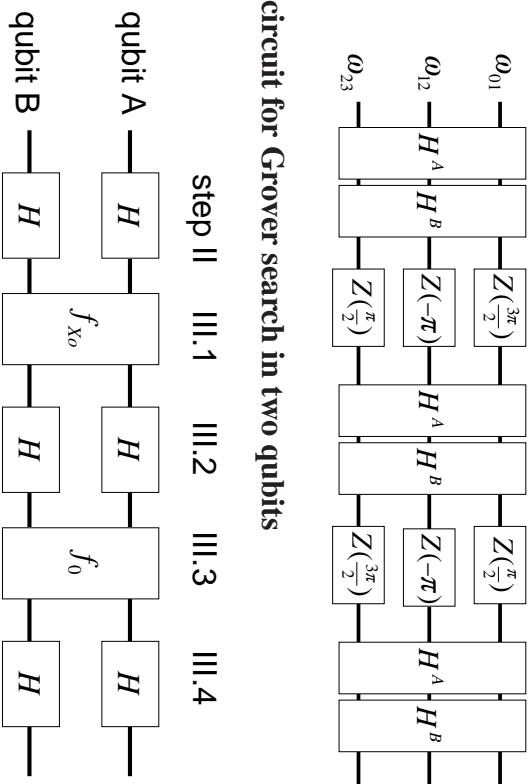
## exemplary NMR spectra for Deutsch algorithm in 2 qubits



## exemplary NMR spectra for Deutsch algorithm in a quartit



step II   III.1   III.2   III.3   III.4



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## NMR detections of magnetization of a spin-3/2

- $M_{xy}$ -detection of a two spin-1/2 system enables determination of the off-diagonal elements marked in boxes:

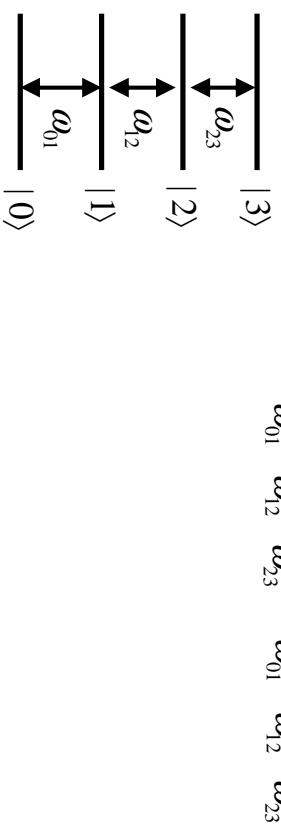
$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{00} & \boxed{\rho_{01}} & \boxed{\rho_{02}} & \rho_{03} \\ \boxed{\rho_{10}} & \rho_{11} & \rho_{12} & \boxed{\rho_{13}} \\ \boxed{\rho_{20}} & \rho_{21} & \rho_{22} & \boxed{\rho_{23}} \\ \rho_{30} & \boxed{\rho_{31}} & \boxed{\rho_{32}} & \rho_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $M_{xy}$ -detection of a spin-3/2 system gives the other off-diagonal elements:

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{00} & \boxed{\rho_{01}} & \rho_{02} & \rho_{03} \\ \boxed{\rho_{10}} & \rho_{11} & \boxed{\rho_{12}} & \rho_{13} \\ \rho_{20} & \boxed{\rho_{21}} & \rho_{22} & \boxed{\rho_{23}} \\ \rho_{30} & \rho_{31} & \boxed{\rho_{32}} & \rho_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $M_z$ -detection of a spin-3/2 system gives:

$$\hat{\rho} = \begin{bmatrix} \boxed{\rho_{00}} & \rho_{01} & \rho_{02} & \rho_{03} \\ \rho_{10} & \boxed{\rho_{11}} & \rho_{12} & \rho_{13} \\ \rho_{20} & \rho_{21} & \boxed{\rho_{22}} & \rho_{23} \\ \rho_{30} & \rho_{31} & \rho_{32} & \boxed{\rho_{33}} \end{bmatrix}$$



**NMR quantum state tomography** is a method for complete reconstruction of a given density matrix  $\hat{\rho}$  in a serious of NMR measurements.

- $M_{xy}$  and  $M_z$  detections give only some elements of  $\hat{\rho}$
  - The remaining matrix elements can be obtained by rotating the original density matrix  $\hat{\rho}$  through properly chosen rotational operations  $\hat{R}_k$ :

$$\hat{\rho}^{(k)} = \hat{R}_k \hat{\rho} \hat{R}_k^\dagger$$

## 1. Chuang's set of rotations for $M_{xy}$ tomography of 2 qubits

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}_1 &= \hat{I} \otimes \hat{I}, & \hat{R}_2 &= \hat{I} \otimes \hat{X}, \\ \hat{R}_4 &= \hat{X} \otimes \hat{I}, & \hat{R}_5 &= \hat{X} \otimes \hat{X}, \\ \hat{R}_7 &= \hat{Y} \otimes \hat{I}, & \hat{R}_8 &= \hat{Y} \otimes \hat{X},\end{aligned}$$

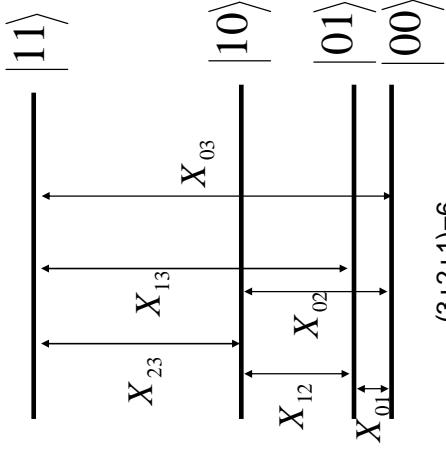
where  $\hat{X} \equiv \hat{X}(\frac{\pi}{2})$ ,  $\hat{Y} \equiv \hat{Y}(\frac{\pi}{2})$

## 2. other sets of rotations for tomography of $n$ -qubits

$$m=3 \Rightarrow \text{XXX IIII XXXVII XXXIV}$$

tomography of 4-level system

- ## Principle ideas



so 12 readouts (including Y-rotations)

588 a natural set of rotations for tomography of a quartit state

- single-photon transitions

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}_1 &= \hat{X}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2}), & \hat{R}_2 &= \hat{Y}_{01}(\frac{\pi}{2}) \\ \hat{R}_3 &= \hat{X}_{12}(\frac{\pi}{2}), & \hat{R}_4 &= \hat{Y}_{12}(\frac{\pi}{2}) \\ \hat{R}_5 &= \hat{X}_{23}(\frac{\pi}{2}), & \hat{R}_6 &= \hat{Y}_{23}(\frac{\pi}{2})\end{aligned}$$

- two-photon transitions

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{R}_7 &= \hat{X}_{02}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right), & \hat{R}_8 &= \hat{Y}_{02}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ \hat{R}_9 &= \hat{X}_{13}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right), & \hat{R}_{10} &= \hat{Y}_{13}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

- three-photon transitions

$$\hat{R}_{11} = \hat{X}_{03}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right), \quad \hat{R}_{12} = \hat{Y}_{03}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

## rotations in $M_z$ -based tomography

e.g.

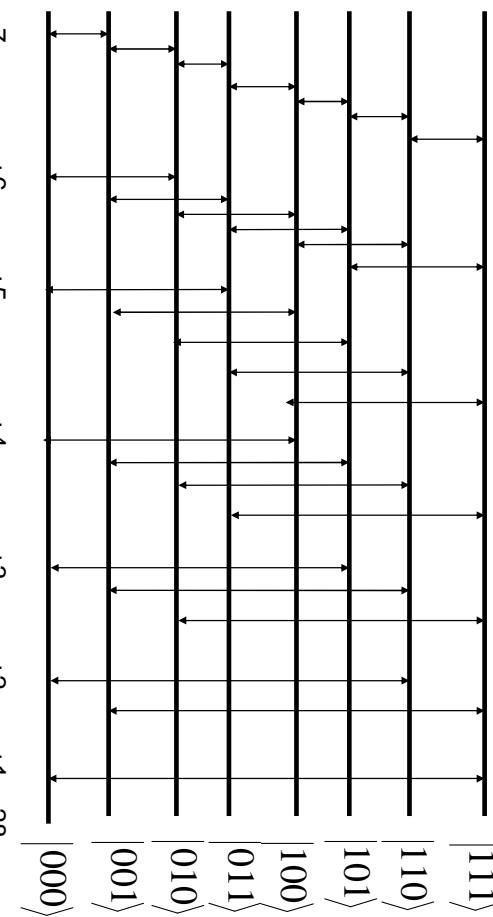
$$\hat{\rho} \text{ after } \hat{R}_1 = \hat{X}_{01}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$\hat{\rho}' = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{00} - \rho_{01} - \rho_{10} + \rho_{11}) & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{00} + \rho_{01} + \rho_{10} + \rho_{11}) & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \rho_{22} & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \rho_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\hat{\rho} \text{ after } \hat{R}_5 = \hat{X}_{23}\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$\hat{\rho}'' = \begin{bmatrix} \rho_{00} & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \rho_{11} & \dots & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{22} - \rho_{23} - \rho_{32} + \rho_{33}) & \dots \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{22} + \rho_{23} + \rho_{32} + \rho_{33}) \end{bmatrix}$$

so let us apply both rotation before read-outs



so 56 readouts (including X and Y-rotations)

590  
NMR implementations of 3-qubit algorithms on spin-1/2 nuclei  
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### tomography without three-photon rotations

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}_{03}(\theta) &= \hat{Y}_{13}(\pi)\hat{X}_{01}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{13}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{02}(\pi)\hat{X}_{23}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{02}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{01}(\pi)\hat{X}_{13}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{01}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{23}(\pi)\hat{X}_{02}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{01}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{23}(\pi)\hat{X}_{12}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\pi)\hat{Y}_{01}(-\pi) \\ &= \dots \end{aligned}$$

### tomography without two-photon rotations

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}_{13}(\theta) &= \hat{Y}_{23}(\pi)\hat{X}_{12}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{12}(\pi)\hat{X}_{23}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{12}(-\pi), \\ \hat{Y}_{13}(\theta) &= \hat{Y}_{23}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{12}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\pi), \\ &= \hat{Y}_{12}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{23}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{12}(-\pi), \\ \hat{X}_{02}(\theta) &= \hat{Y}_{12}(\pi)\hat{X}_{01}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{12}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{01}(\pi)\hat{X}_{12}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{01}(-\pi), \\ \hat{Y}_{02}(\theta) &= \hat{Y}_{12}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{01}(\theta)\hat{Y}_{12}(-\pi) \\ &= \hat{Y}_{01}(\pi)\hat{Y}_{12}(-\theta)\hat{Y}_{01}(-\pi). \end{aligned}$$

## tomography of 8-level system

10. quantum Fourier transform

[Weinstein *et al.*'01]

5. refined Deutsch-Jozsa algorithm for entangled qubits  
(a meaningful test of quantum parallelism)  
[Kim *et al.*'00]
6. Grover algorithm (with cancellation of systematic errors)  
[Vandersypen *et al.*'00]
7. quantum simulation  
[Tseng *et al.*'00]
8. Schulman-Vazirani algorithm (a cooling scheme)  
[Chang *et al.*'01]
9. noiseless subsystems  
[Viola *et al.*'01]

11. quantum erasers [Teklemarian *et al.*'01]
12. quantum chaotic map (baker's map) [Weinstein *et al.*'02]
13. phase estimation algorithm [Lee *et al.*'02]
14. Hogg algorithm [Peng *et al.*'02]
15. half-adder and subtractor operations [Murali *et al.*'02, Kumar *et al.*'02]
16. adiabatic quantum optimization algorithm [Steffen *et al.*'03]
17. quantum state and process tomography [Vandersypen *et al.*'04]
18. test of phase coherence in electromagnetically induced transparency (EIT) [Murali *et al.*'04]
19. phase estimation algorithm
20. Hogg algorithm
21. adiabatic quantum optimization algorithm

## NMR implementation of a seven-qubit algorithm

Shor's factorization algorithm [Vandersypen *et al.*'01]

**What can be done with three virtual qubits?**

**possible QIP applications of spin-7/2 nuclei**

- implemented (in liquid NMR systems)

1. quantum simulation [Khitrin *et al.*'01]
2. half-adder and subtractor operations [Murali *et al.*'02, Kumar *et al.*'02]
3. test of phase coherence in EIT [Murali *et al.*'04]

- **not implemented yet**

6. quantum tomography
7. generation of GHZ states
8. quantum error correction
9. quantum teleportation
10. logical labeling

## empirical Moore's law

Gordon E. Moore - a co-founder of Intel.

- **original Moore's law (1965)**

The number of transistors and resistors on a chip doubles every 18 months.

- **modified Moore's law (1975)**

The number doubles every 24 months.

1965 - approximately 60 devices on a chip.

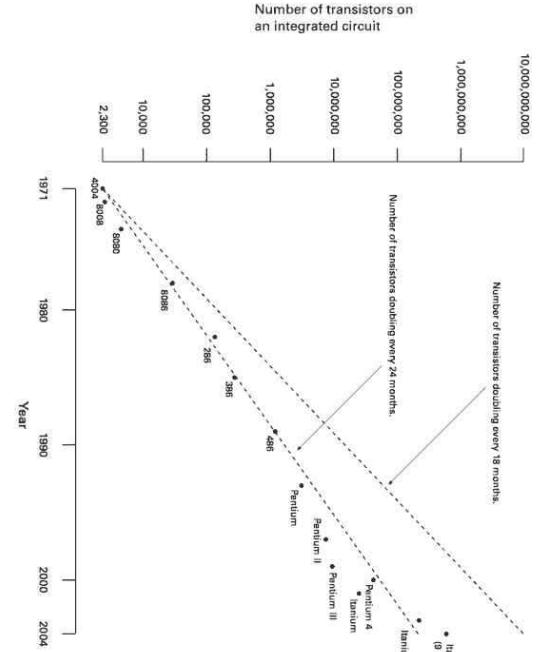
2007 - Dual-Core Intel Itanium 2 chip contains 1.7 billion transistors

- **the end of Moore's law?**

2018 - estimated year for reaching the fundamental limits

## Physical principles of quantum computing

1. Superposition
2. Interference
3. Entanglement
4. Non-cloning
5. Uncertainty



[source: Wikipedia]

## end of Moore's Law?

- how to provide energy to a chip?
- how to cool down a chip?

As power-driven heat can cause major malfunctions.

“Chip with 3nm-length gates would overheat itself.” [Gargini]

- when the gate length < 5 nm quantum effects become important

## gate lengths

37 nm in 2007  
~5 nm in 2015-2018

## quantum tunneling

source & drain are so close that the electrons will tunnel even if voltage is not applied to the gate

- ⇒ **Heisenberg uncertainty** becomes important
- ⇒ transistor becomes unreliable

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## advantages of QC

- superfast (Shor) and fast (Grover) **algorithms**
- understanding new aspects of **measurement theory**
- improvement of **precision spectroscopy**
- understanding **dissipation** in mesoscopic system
- partial control of **decoherence**
- quantum **state engineering**
- quantum **simulations**

## Quantum Computing is the frontier of

- Information Science
- Cryptography
- Quantum physics

including

- Quantum Optics
- Nanotechnology

"Quantum computers must be a component of any world view that seeks to be fundamental"  
David Deutsch

