

### 3) First set of rules of quantum mechanics.

Here we infer the <sup>first</sup> set of rules we have "arrived at" in the previous paragraph. In this chapter we keep the discussion a bit informal and will revisit this subject in next chapter.

- a) A quantum system (isolated from the rest of the world) can be described by a state vector  $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$  living in a Hilbert space  $\mathcal{H}$ . A Hilbert space is vector space endowed with a scalar product (for finite dimensional spaces this is OK, for inf-dim one requires also that the space is complete).

example: photon polarization is described by vectors in  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

$$\text{Here } \mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^2 = \{(\alpha, \beta) \mid |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1\}.$$

$$|\Psi\rangle = \alpha |x\rangle + \beta |y\rangle \text{ in Dirac notation}$$

$$\text{where } |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1; \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}.$$

- linear polarization  $|\delta\rangle = \cos\delta |x\rangle + \sin\delta |y\rangle$

- circular polarizations  $\cos\delta |x\rangle + i \sin\delta |y\rangle$

- elliptic pol  $\cos\delta |x\rangle + e^{i\delta} \sin\delta |y\rangle; \delta \neq 0$

b) State vectors  $| \psi \rangle$  evolve with time. The time evolution is a unitary map :

$$U(t) : \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$$

$$| \psi \rangle \mapsto U(t) | \psi \rangle = \text{state at time } t .$$

We have  $U(t=0) = I$  ;  $U(t) U(t') = U(t+t')$ .

Usually one computes  $U(t)$  from Schrödinger's equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} U(t) = H(t) U(t)$$

where  $H(t)$  is the Hamiltonian. In this course we do not need to know what are the Hamiltonians; we will directly consider appropriate unitary evolutions.]

example : photon state evolves as  $e^{i(Ez - \omega t)} | \psi \rangle$  for a monochromatic photon of frequency  $\omega$ . Here  $\omega = ck$  ( $c$  = speed of light).

c) Measurement postulate: first encounter.

Let  $|1\rangle$  be the state of the system and suppose we perform a measurement at time  $t$ . The probability that we observe the state  $|4\rangle$  just after the measurement ( $t + \Delta t$ ) is

$$|\langle 4 | 1 \rangle|^2.$$

One says that the state has been "reduced" from  $|1\rangle$  to  $|4\rangle$  by the measurement process. Another terminology for "state" is "wavefunction" and for "state reduction" is "collapse of wavefunction".

example: Suppose a photon is prepared in state  $|0\rangle$ .

Do a measurement with an analyser and a detector.

$$\text{Prob to obs pol } \alpha = |\langle \alpha | 0 \rangle|^2.$$

Remarks: • States are defined up to a global phase  $e^{i\lambda}$  because  $e^{i\lambda}$  cancels out in all probability calculations. So states are really rays of the Hilbert space.

- States change in two very different (as far as we know) ways:
  - unitary evolution
  - measurement process (state reduction).

#### 4) Notion of Quantum Bit. (Qubit or qbit.).

We saw that the photon polarization lives in the space  $\mathbb{C}^2$ .

There are two orthonormal basis vectors that we can choose at will. For example  $\{|x\rangle, |y\rangle\}$  or  $\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x\rangle + |y\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x\rangle - |y\rangle)\right\}$ .

In general quantum systems whose state vector lives in  $\mathbb{C}^2$  are called two-level systems. Remarkably many such systems exist in nature. For example :

- \* photon polarization :  $\alpha|x\rangle + \beta|y\rangle$
- \* electron spin, ion spin, atom spin for some ions and atoms. basis denoted  $\{|↑\rangle, |↓\rangle\}$ . general state  $\alpha|↑\rangle + \beta|↓\rangle$ .
- \* Benzene molecule (and many others) can be in states :



where  $=$  are chemical bonds involving a pair of electrons  
 $=$  " " " two pairs of electrons.

These molecules can be in "resonating states" ;

$$\alpha | \begin{smallmatrix} = \\ \diagup \\ \diagdown \end{smallmatrix} \rangle + \beta | \begin{smallmatrix} - \\ \diagdown \\ \diagup \end{smallmatrix} \rangle$$

- \* A quantum bit is such a two level system or rather the abstraction of it. A quantum bit is described by a state vector of  $\mathbb{C}^2$ . The canonical basis is denoted by

$$|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

A general state is

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle, \quad |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1.$$

- \* The difference with a classical bit which takes values  $\{0, 1\}$  is that a quantum bit can exist in a "general superposition" of  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ .
- \* If we try to access the information in  $|\psi\rangle$  we have to make a measurement. Once we make an appropriate measurement the state will collapse in state  $|0\rangle$  with prob  $|\alpha|^2$  and in state  $|1\rangle$  with prob  $|\beta|^2$ . However we do not have access to  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  if we have only one such state because once the measurement has been performed the state vector is  $|0\rangle$  or  $|1\rangle$ .
- \* The difference with classical bits as we will see lies in the power that the superposition principle gives to manipulation of states.

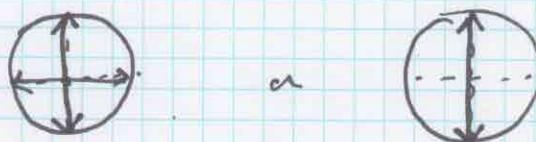
\* Note that we cannot say that  $|14\rangle = \alpha|10\rangle + \beta|11\rangle$  is in state  $|10\rangle$  with prob  $|\alpha|^2$  and state  $|11\rangle$  with prob  $|\beta|^2$ . State  $|14\rangle$  is just in state  $|14\rangle$ . Indeed we can write for example  $|14\rangle$  in another basis:

$$|14\rangle = \frac{(\alpha + \beta)}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|10\rangle + |11\rangle) + \frac{(\alpha - \beta)}{\sqrt{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|10\rangle - |11\rangle).$$

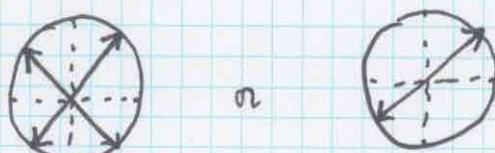
There exists an appropriate measurement which collapse  $|14\rangle$  to

$$\left. \begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|10\rangle + |11\rangle) \text{ with prob } \frac{|\alpha + \beta|^2}{2} \\ & \text{and } \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|10\rangle - |11\rangle) \text{ with prob } \frac{|\alpha - \beta|^2}{2}. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

\* With photons measurement in the  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$  basis corresponds to pass photons through the analyser in the  $\{|x\rangle, |y\rangle\}$  basis



whereas measurement in the  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|10\rangle + |11\rangle), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|10\rangle - |11\rangle))$  basis corresponds to pass photons through the analyser in the  $\{|\alpha=45^\circ\rangle, |\alpha=135^\circ\rangle\}$  basis

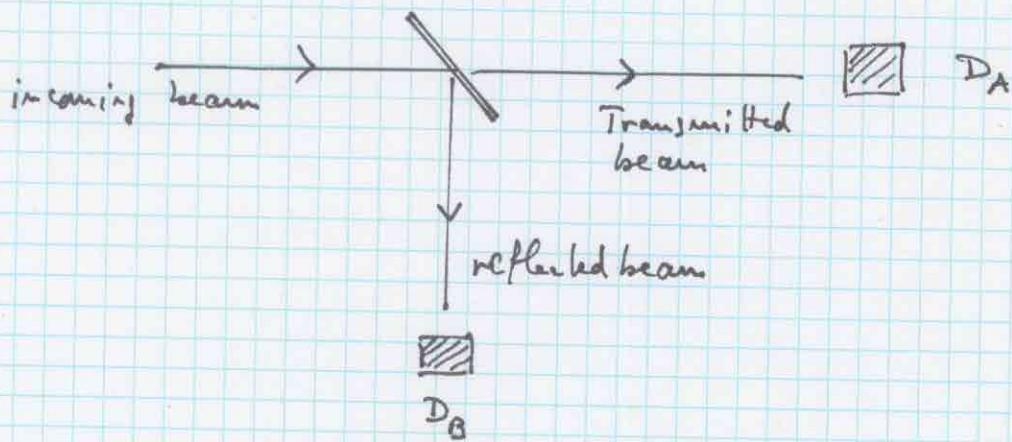


## 5) A flavor of two quantum applications .

### a) Random Number Generator .

With qM one can generate binary sequences that are intrinsically random. Here is one way to do this (in principle):

Send a beam on a semi-transparent mirror which has the effect to split the beam of light in two equal intensity beams : the transmitted and reflected beams .



We model this situation with a two dimensional Hilbert space for the photon's momentum : horizontal  $|H\rangle$  and vertical  $|V\rangle$ .

- The initial state is  $|H\rangle$ .

- After the beam splitter it is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|H\rangle + |V\rangle)$ .

- If  $D_A$  clicks we collect a 1. If  $D_B$  clicks we collect a 0.

Sending photons one by one results in a sequence of 0 and 1 : 010100110101

- According to quantum mechanics this sequence is perfectly random

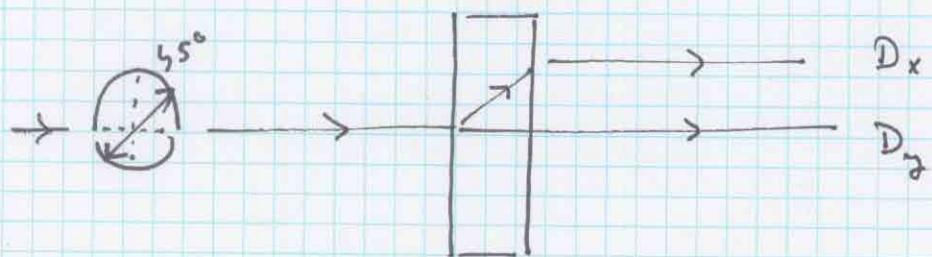
$$\text{Prob}(1) = \left| \langle H | \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1H) + 1V \rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2} (\langle H|H \rangle + \langle H|V \rangle)^2 \\ = \frac{1}{2} .$$

$$\text{Prob}(0) = \left| \langle V | \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1H) + 1V \rangle \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2} .$$

- One could arrive at the same conclusion by preparing a  $45^\circ$  polarized photons

$$|45^\circ\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x\rangle + |y\rangle)$$

and send them one by one through a PBS



We record 1 if  $D_y$  clicks and 0 if  $D_x$  clicks.

Remarks: Such principles have been put to work in labs and there is an existing technology. For example Id Quantique - Grenoble.

## b) Quantum Parallelism.

We briefly illustrate the notion of quantum parallelism, a notion to which we will come back in part III. One can manipulate qubits just as one can manipulate classical bits.

- For example the classical NOT gate takes a bit and negates it :

$$b \rightarrow \boxed{\text{NOT}} \rightarrow \bar{b} \quad \text{or} \quad \bar{b} = b \oplus 1.$$

$b = 0 \text{ or } 1$                                      $\bar{b} = 1 \text{ or } 0.$

Quantum mechanically the input is a quantum bit

$$|4\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$$

and the output is

$$|4'\rangle = \alpha |1\rangle + \beta |0\rangle$$

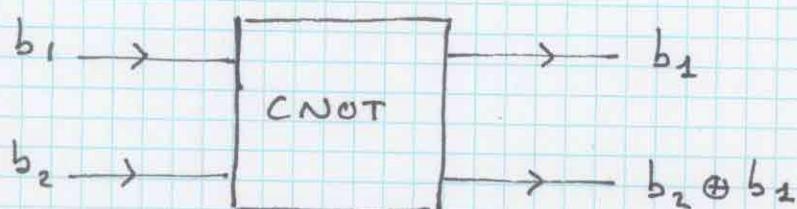
The swap of 0 and 1 is a unitary operation; the quantum NOT gate. Indeed set  $\text{NOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ . We see that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

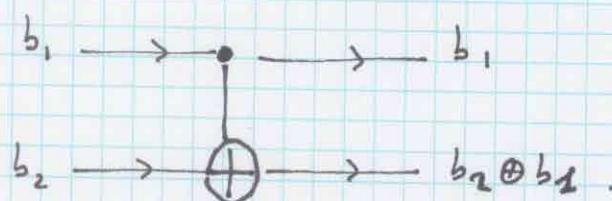
so by linearity  $\text{NOT } |4\rangle = |4'\rangle$ .  $\text{NOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  is a unitary matrix so in principle a device can be constructed

that unitarily evolves  $|1\rangle$  to  $|1'\rangle$  (with time).

- Another important classical gate is the CNOT "control not". There we have two bits, the first one being called the control bit. If the control bit  $b_1 = 1$ , the second bit  $b_2$  is negated while if the control bit  $b_1 = 0$ , the second bit is unchanged:



sometimes also drawn as



The quantum version is the following operation  
input:

$$|1\rangle = \sum_{b_1, b_2} d_{b_1 b_2} |b_1, b_2\rangle = d_{00} |0,0\rangle + d_{01} |0,1\rangle + d_{10} |1,0\rangle + d_{11} |1,1\rangle$$

output

$$|1'\rangle = \sum_{b_1, b_2} d_{b_1 b_2} |b_1, b_2 \oplus b_1\rangle = d_{00} |0,0\rangle + d_{01} |0,1\rangle + d_{10} |1,1\rangle + d_{11} |1,0\rangle$$

Note that here the quantum states live in  $\mathcal{H} = \mathbb{C}^4 \cong \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2$ .

It is possible to check that CNOT is a unitary operation or matrix. The easiest way is to note that it is linear and preserves the norm. Thus a physical device can (in principle) be constructed that performs the operation!

$$\text{CNOT} \left( \sum_{b_1, b_2} \lambda_{b_1, b_2} |b_1, b_2\rangle \right) = \sum_{b_1, b_2} \lambda_{b_1, b_2} |b_1, b_2 \oplus b_1\rangle.$$

- \* Here our physical device performs four operations in the second sum in parallel. This is called "quantum parallelism" and is exploited in quantum computation (part III).
- \* Note however that the accessible information does not correspond to all four results  $|b_1, b_2 \oplus b_1\rangle$  because a measurement in the  $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$  basis will reduce the state to one of these. Despite this it is sometimes possible to access some global information about the function we compute. (see exercises).