

Linalg

Matrix Multiplication:

(a b)(e f) = (ae+bg af+bh)

Adjoint (Hermitian Conjugate): A† = A* (transpose the matrix and take the complex conjugate of each element)

Complex Conjugate: Flip the sign of the imaginary part of a complex number

Trace Sum the diagonal elements of a square matrix

Multi-bit Dirac Notation |A> |B> = |AB> The

dual of this is <BA|

Properties <A| <A| = I

Probability and Bayes’ Rule

Bayes’ theorem formula:

P(A|B) = P(B|A)P(A) / P(B)

Examples of calculating conditional probabilities (medical tests, particle detectors)

Poisson distribution:

P(n) = (λ^n e^-λ) / n!

Classical Information Theory

Shannon Entropy/Information

H = -k Σ_i p(ai) log p(ai) By convention, we use k = 1 and log is base 2.

Properties of entropy

Entropy must be non-negative, and is maximized for a uniform distribution.

Thermodynamics

Gibbs Entropy: S = -k Σ p_i log p_i

Communication Theory

Number of Typical Messages W ≈ 2^NH(p) where H(p) is the entropy of the message and N is the number of bits in the message.



factor for different values of p. As p approaches 0.5 from either side, we can compress the message less and less, since there is more entropy we need to encode.

Shannon’s Noiseless Coding Theorem:

For a given message, we only need NH(p) bits to encode it (definition of H(p) above)

Example: Let us have an alphabet A, B, C, D with probabilities of 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/8 respectively. Entropy is H = -(1/2 log 1/2 + 1/4 log 1/4 + ...) = 7/4 bits Therefore, a message N characters long can be encoded in 7/4 · N bits.

Shannon’s Noisy Coding Theorem:

On average, we need at least N0 / (1-H(q)) bits to

encode one of 2^N0 equally probable messages (N0 is the original message length) where H(q) = -[q log q + (1 - q) log(1 - q)] is the entropy associated with single bit error q.

Efficient Coding: Plot N/N0 - 1 vs q to see when overhead becomes too “large”

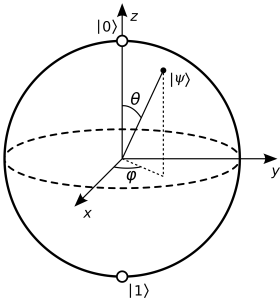
Huffman Coding

- 1. Sort the probabilities
- 2. Combine the two lowest probabilities into a tree, storing characters as branches and the sum of their probabilities as the root
- 3. Repeat until all probabilities are combined, and we reach a probability of 1
- 4. Set 0/1 to left/right (either pairing), and traverse the tree to find the encoding

Dirac Notation

<Ψ| ↔ |ψ>†

| Ket | Matrix |
|----------------|-------------|
| 0> or H> | [1 0] |
| 1> or V> | [0 1] |
| Diagonal Up | 1/√2 [1 1] |
| Diagonal Down | 1/√2 [1 -1] |
| Left Circular | 1/√2 [1 i] |
| Right Circular | 1/√2 [1 -i] |



|Ψ> = cos(θ/2) |0> + e^iφ sin(θ/2) |1> +x = 1/√2 (|0> + |1>) +y = 1/√2 (|0> + i |1>) -x = 1/√2 (|0> - |1>) -y = 1/√2 (|0> - i |1>)

Change of basis Let θ be a rotation of basis vectors, counterclockwise.

|x> = cos θ |x’> - sin θ |y’> and |y> = sin θ |x’> + cos θ |y’>

where |x’> and |y’> are the new basis vectors.

Outer Product Given that |ψ> =

|ψ> <φ| = [ψ1 φ1 ψ1 φ2 ψ2 φ1 ψ2 φ2]

Quantum State Tomography

- Set a set of observables to uniquely determine a state. For a single qubit, we can use the Pauli operators.
- Prepare many copies of the state
- Measure the observables and use probability and regression to reconstruct the state

Operators

Operators produce another ket

Mean value of an observable Measuring an observable V̂ = Σ_i v_i |v_i> <v_i| in the state |Ψ>

Obtains result v_i with probability

p(v_i) = |<v_i|Ψ>|^2

Repeating measurement many times obtains expectation value

<V> = Σ_i P_i v_i = Σ_i |<v_i|Ψ>|^2 v_i

<V>_Ψ = <Ψ|V̂|Ψ>

Uncertainty

Variance is ΔV^2 = <Ψ|(V̂ - <Ψ|V̂|Ψ>)^2|Ψ> ΔV^2 = <Ψ|V̂^2|Ψ> - <Ψ|V̂|Ψ>^2 = <V̂^2> - <V̂>^2

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

ΔxΔp ≥ 1/2 |<Ψ|[Â, B̂]|Ψ>| (e.g. for [x̂, p̂] = iħ we find ΔxΔp ≥ ħ/2)

Pauli Operators

σ_x = (0 1; 1 0) = |0> <1| + |1> <0|

Eigenvectors: (1; 0), (0; 1)

σ_y = (0 -i; i 0) = i(|1> <0| - |0> <1|)

Eigenvectors: 1/√2 (1; i), 1/√2 (1; -i)

σ_z = (1 0; 0 -1) = |0> <0| - |1> <1|

Eigenvectors: 1/√2 (1; 1), 1/√2 (1; -1)

î = (1 0; 0 1) = |0> <0| + |1> <1|

Eigenvectors: (0; 1), (1; 0)

(All have respective eigenvalues of +1 and -1)

Commutatun Relations

[σ_x, σ_y] = 2iσ_z {σ_x, σ_y} = 0

[σ_y, σ_z] = 2iσ_x {σ_y, σ_z} = 0

[σ_z, σ_x] = 2iσ_y {σ_z, σ_x} = 0

[σ_a, σ_b] = 2iε_abc σ_c

For direction n̂, n̂ · σ̂ = n_x σ_x + n_y σ_y + n_z σ_z

For any operator,

Ĥ = (a id c -id; c id b) = (a+b)/2 î + (a-b)/2 σ_z + cσ_x + dσ_y

Common Gates

Hadamard gate:

Ĥ = 1/√2 (1 1; 1 -1) = 1/√2 (σ_z + σ_x) Rotation

operator: R̂(n̂, θ) = e^-iθn̂·Ĵ Where Ĵ is the angular momentum operator, and n̂ = (sin θ cos φ, sin θ sin φ, cos θ) is a unit vector. For spin-1/2, Ĵ = 1/2 σ̂

Tensor Products

Given that |ψ> = (a; b) and |φ> = (c; d)

|ψ> ⊗ |φ> = (a(c); a(d); b(c); b(d)) = (ac; ad; bc; bd)

For operators,

Â ⊗ B̂ = (a b; c d) ⊗ (α β; γ δ) = (a(α β; γ δ) b(α β; γ δ); c(α β; γ δ) d(α β; γ δ)) = (aα aβ bα bβ; aγ aδ bγ bδ; cα cβ dα dβ; cγ cδ dγ dδ)

Properties

Not commutative. Distributive:

|ψ> ⊗ (|φ> + |ϕ>) = |ψ> ⊗ |φ> + |ψ> ⊗ |ϕ> Â ⊗ (B̂ + Ĉ) = Â ⊗ B̂ + Â ⊗ Ĉ

Operators can act on one photon and not the other: Eg, let

σ_A^x = (0 0 1 0; 0 0 0 1; 1 0 0 0; 0 1 0 0)

thus,

σ_A^x |HH> = σ_A^x ⊗ I(|H>_A ⊗ |H>_B) = (σ_A^x |H>_A) ⊗ (I|H>_B) = |V>_A ⊗ |H>_B = |VH>

or

(0 0 1 0; 1 0 0 0; 0 0 0 1; 0 1 0 0) (1; 0; 0; 0) = (0; 0; 1; 0)

Classical Cryptography

Criterion for Perfect Secrecy Let {p_i} be the set of possible plaintexts, and {c_j} be the set of possible ciphertexts. P(p_i|C_j) = P(p_i)∀i, j (discovering a ciphertext provides no information about the plaintext)

Quantum Cryptography

Based on no-cloning theorem (cannot copy an unknown quantum state)

BB84 (Quantum Key Distribution)

1. Alice sends a random sequence of bits, randomly encoded in either H/V or +45/-45 basis, to Bob
2. Bob measures each qubit in a random basis
3. Alice and Bob compare bases used
4. Alice and Bob discard qubits measured in different bases
5. Alice and Bob compare a subset of their qubits to check for eavesdropping
6. Alice and Bob use the remaining qubits as a shared key
7. Alice and Bob use the shared key to encrypt and decrypt messages

Errors in the key indicate eavesdropping (probability that Eve does not cause an error is (3/4)^N, where N is the number of qubits tested)

B92 Protocol

Non-orthogonal bases, eg |0>, |1> and |0’>, |1’> Alice prepares states in |0>, |1’>, associating them with 0 and 1, and sends them to Bob. Bob measures in the two basis randomly. If he receives a |0>, he discards it, as it could have been prepared as |0> or |1’>, but if he receives a |1’>, he knows it was prepared as |1’>. Same for |0’>, |1’> Advantages: Only needs 2 states and 2 basis, unconditionally secure in a lossless channel, does not make use of entanglement.

Entanglement

Bell states

|Ψ^+> = 1/√2 (|HV> + |VH>)

|Ψ^-> = 1/√2 (|HV> - |VH>)

|Φ^+> = 1/√2 (|HH> + |VV>)

|Φ^-> = 1/√2 (|HH> - |VV>)

Ψ^- is isotropic (it remains the same no matter which axes we choose to measure it along) By decomposing it into θ basis, we can show that Ψ^- = 1/√2 (|HV> - |VH>) = 1/√2 (|θ, θ + π/2> - |θ + π/2, θ>)

Examples of entangled states (|ψ^->)

EPR Pair: |ψ^-> = 1/√2 (|01> - |10>)

GHZ State: |ψ^-> = 1/√2 (|000> - |111>)

W State: |ψ^-> = 1/√3 (|001> + |010> + |100>)

Density matrix formalism

Density Operator: Represents a mixture of states ρ̂ = Σ_n p_n |φ_n> <φ_n|

Expectation Value: <A> = Tr(ρ̂Â)

Purity: Tr(ρ̂^2) = Σ_m ρ_m^2 is the purity of a state Essentially how separable / correlated the two states are.

Reduced density matrices

For a two-bit state that can be factored,

|ψ_AB> = |ψ_A> ⊗ |ψ_B>

We can use the reduced density matrix to describe the state of one of the qubits. Tr_B ρ_AB ≡ |ψ_A> <ψ_A| Tr |ψ_B> <ψ_B| = |ψ_A> <ψ_A| = ρ_A

Von Neumann entropy

S_A = -Tr(ρ_A log ρ_A) = -Σ_i p_i^A ln p_i^A = -Σ_i |a_i|^2 ln |a_i|^2 ≠ 0 and S_A ≡ S_B (Characterizes how strongly A and B are entangled)

Local Measurements:

Generalized Born Rule: We can extend the Born rule to density matrices:

p(a) = Tr(ρ̂Π̂_a)

Where Π̂_a is the projector onto the eigenspace of Â with eigenvalue a, e.g. Π̂_a = Σ_i |a_i> <a_i|

Bell’s Inequalities

Local Realism

Local realism is the idea that the properties of a system are determined by the properties of the system’s parts. AKA, no spooky action at a distance.

Bell’s Inequality: For any local hidden variable theory, the following inequality holds:

|< M_A M_B - M_A N_B + N_A M_B + N_A N_B >| ≤ 2

Where M_A, M_B, N_A, N_B are the results of measurements on two entangled particles. CHSH Game: We can construct a game to test Bell’s inequality. Alice and Bob each have a bit, and they can choose to measure it in one of two bases. They win if the XOR of their bits is 0. Using deterministic strategies, the maximum win rate is 75%. However, using entangled particles, we can achieve a win rate of 85%, violating Bell’s inequality.