Interaction and Concurrency

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- 1. Complex Numbers[1]
- 2. Complex Vector Spaces[1]
- 3. Quantum Computation Basics

Complex Numbers[1]

$$x^2 = -1$$

X is $\sqrt{-1}$ this number does not exist in the real numbers. So we will call it *imaginary* and denote it *i*. $i^2 = -1$ or $i = \sqrt{-1}$

Imaginary Numbers - Exercise 1

1. i²⁵

A complex number is an expression:

 $c = a + b \times i = a + bi$

where *a*, *b* are two real numbers. *a* is the real part of *c* and *b* is its imaginary part.

The set of all complex numbers is denoted \mathbb{C} .

c = a + bi

The conjute of c, is denoted \overline{c} :

 $\overline{c} = a - bi$

Modulus squared:

 $C \times \overline{C} = |C|^2$

$$c = a + bi$$

$$\rho = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \qquad a = \rho \cos(\theta)$$
$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(\frac{b}{a}) \qquad b = \rho \sin(\theta)$$

$$c = \rho(\cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)) = \rho e^{i\theta}$$

A complex number c is a magnitude |c| and a phase θ^1 .

¹More information about complex numbers and their properties in [1].

Gate S is a phase gate.

It does nothing to state $|0\rangle$. When the initial state is $|1\rangle$ the gate applies a rotation giving by the complex number *i*.

What is the phase of gate S?

Complex Vector Spaces[1]

Let
$$V = \begin{bmatrix} a+bi\\c+di \end{bmatrix}$$
, $W = \begin{bmatrix} e+fi\\g+hi \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\0 \end{bmatrix}$.

A complex vector space is a nonempty set \mathbb{V} , whose elements we shall call vectors, with three operations:

Addition
$$V + W = \begin{bmatrix} (a + bi) + (e + fi) \\ (c + di) + (g + hi) \end{bmatrix}$$
Negation $-V = \begin{bmatrix} -a - bi \\ -c - di \end{bmatrix}$ Scalar Multiplication $s \cdot V = \begin{bmatrix} s(a + bi) \\ s(c + di) \end{bmatrix}$

and a distinguished element called the zero vector $0 \in \mathbb{V}$ in the set.

These operations and zero must satisfy the following properties: for all *V*, *W*, $X \in \mathbb{V}$ and for all *c*, $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{C}$,

- 1. Commutative of addition: V + W = W + V
- 2. Associative of addition: (V + W) + X = V + (W + X)
- 3. Zero is an additive identity: $V + \mathbf{0} = V$
- 4. Every vector has an inverse: $V + (-V) = \mathbf{0} = (-V) + V$
- 5. Scalar multiplication has a unit: $1 \cdot V = V$
- 6. Scalar multiplication respects complex multiplication: $c_1 \cdot (c_2 \cdot V) = (c_1 \times c_2) \cdot V$
- 7. Scalar multiplication distributes over addition: $c \cdot (V + W) = c \cdot V + c \cdot W$
- 8. Scalar multiplication distributes over complex addition: $(c_1 + c_2) \cdot V = c_1 \cdot V + c_2 \cdot V$

In the previous definitions the examples were given with $V, W \in \mathbb{C}^2$ (a specific type vector).

This properties work with any $V, W \in \mathbb{C}^n$

And in any $M \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$.

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} C_{0,0} & C_{0,1} & \dots & C_{n-1} \\ C_{1,0} & C_{1,1} & \dots & C_{1,n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ C_{m-1,0} & C_{m-1,1} & \dots & C_{m-1,n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ is matrix with j rows and k columns denoted by A[j, k] or $c_{j,k}$. When $n = 1 \rightarrow$ vectors can be special types of matrices. When $n = m \rightarrow$ This has more operations and more structure than just a complex vector space.

- transpose $A^{T}[j,k] = A[k,j]$
- conjugate $\overline{A}[j,k] = \overline{A[j,k]}$
- adjoint or dagger $A^{\dagger} = (\overline{A}^{T}) = \overline{(A^{T})}$ or $A^{\dagger} [j, k] = \overline{A[k, j]}$

- 1. Transpose is idempotent $(A^T)^T = A$
- 2. Transpose respects addition $(A + B)^T = A^T + B^T$
- 3. Transpose respects scalar multiplication $(c \cdot A)^T = c \cdot A^T$
- 4. Conjugate is idempotent $\overline{\overline{A}} = A$
- 5. Conjugate respects addition $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$
- 6. Conjugate respects scalar multiplication $\overline{c \cdot A} = \overline{c} \cdot \overline{A}$
- 7. Adjoint is idempotent $(A^{\dagger})^{\dagger} = A$
- 8. Adjoint respects addition $(A + B)^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger} + B^{\dagger}$
- 9. Adjoint relates to scalar multiplication $(c \cdot A)^{\dagger} = \overline{c} \cdot A^{\dagger}$

Given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times p}$, $A \cdot B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times p}$ is defined as :

$$(A \cdot B)[j, k] = \sum_{h=0}^{n-1} (A[j, h] \times B[h, k])$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (a \times e + b \times g) & (a \times f + b \times h) \\ (c \times e + d \times g) & (c \times f + d \times h) \end{bmatrix}$$

1.
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 10 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 2. $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$

$$Id_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The common notation of the identity matrix : *Id*, *I* or 1.

- 1. Matrix multiplication is associative $(A \cdot B) \cdot C = A \cdot (B \cdot C)$
- 2. Matrix multiplication has I_n as a unit $I_n \cdot A = A = A \cdot I_n$
- 3. Matrix multiplication distributes over addition $A \cdot (B + C) = (A \cdot B) + (A \cdot C)$
- 4. Matrix multiplication respects scalar multiplication $c \cdot (A \cdot B) = (c \cdot A) \cdot B = A \cdot (c \cdot B)$
- 5. Matrix multiplication relates to the transpose $(A \cdot B)^T = B^T \cdot A^T$
- 6. Matrix multiplication respects the conjugate $\overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$
- 7. Matrix multiplication relates to the adjoint $(A \cdot B)^{\dagger} = B^{\dagger} \cdot A^{\dagger}$

commutativity is **not** a basic property of matrix multiplication

In **quantum computation**, matrix multiplication corresponds to serially wired gates.

$$-X - Z - = -X \cdot Z -$$

Matrix multiplication can also be used to represent the action of a gate U in an arbitrary quantum state $|\psi_{in}\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$

$$|\psi_{in}\rangle$$
 — U — $|\psi_{out}\rangle$

$$U|\psi_{in}\rangle = U\begin{bmatrix} \alpha & \beta \end{bmatrix}^T = |\psi_{out}\rangle$$

When a matrix acts on a vector space, it is a linear map. An operator is a linear map from a complex vector space to itself. If $F : \mathbb{C}^n \to \mathbb{C}^n$ is an operator on \mathbb{C}^n and A is a matrix $n \times n$ such that for all V we have $F(V) = A \cdot V$, then F is represented by A. Several different matrices might represent the same operator. Let \mathbb{V} be a complex vector space. $V \in \mathbb{V}$ is a **linear combination** of the vectors V_0 , V_1 ,..., V_{n-1} in \mathbb{V} if V can be written as

$$V = c_0 \cdot V_0 + c_1 \cdot V_1 + \dots + c_{n-1} \cdot V_{n-1}$$

for some $c_0, c_1, ..., c_{n-1}$ in \mathbb{C} .

A set $\{V_0, V_1, ..., V_{n-1}\}$ of vectors in \mathbb{V} is called **linearly independent** if

$$\mathbf{0} = c_0 \cdot V_0 + c_1 \cdot V_1 + \dots + c_{n-1} \cdot V_{n-1}$$

implies that $c_0 = c_1 = ... = c_{n-1} = 0$.

A set $B = \{V_0, V_1, ..., V_{n-1}\} \subseteq \mathbb{V}$ of vectors is called a **basis** of complex vectors \mathbb{V} if every, $V \in \mathbb{V}$ can be written as a linear combination of vectors from *B* and *B* is linear independent.

In quantum computation, the most used bases are $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle. Exercise$

Write a qubit state as linear combination of these basis.

An inner product on a complex vector space $\mathbb V$ is a function

 $\langle -,-\rangle:\mathbb{V}\times\mathbb{V}\to\mathbb{C}$

that satisfies the following conditions for all V, V_1 , V_2 , and V_3 in \mathbb{V} and for a $c \in \mathbb{C}$:

- 1. Nondegenerate (exception V = 0, $\langle V, V \rangle = 0$): $\langle V, V \rangle \ge 0$
- 2. Respects addition: $\langle V_1 + V_2, V_3 \rangle = \langle V_1, V_3 \rangle + \langle V_2, V_3 \rangle$; $\langle V_1, V_2 + V_3 \rangle = \langle V_1, V_2 \rangle + \langle V_1, V_3 \rangle$
- 3. Respects scalar multiplication: $\langle c \cdot V_1, V_2 \rangle = c \times \langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$; $V_1, c \cdot V_2 = \overline{c} \times \langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$
- 4. Skew symmetric: $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle = \overline{\langle V_2, V_1 \rangle}$

In \mathbb{C}^n the inner product is : $\langle V_1, V_2 \rangle = V_1^{\dagger} \cdot V_2$ In $\mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ the inner product of matrices is: $\langle A, B \rangle = Trace(A^{\dagger} \cdot B)$

Two vectors V_1 and V_2 in an inner product space $\mathbb V$ are orthogonal if $\langle V_1,V_2\rangle=0$

Norm:

 $||V\rangle| = \sqrt{\langle V|V\rangle}$

Nomalization:

 $\frac{|V\rangle}{||V\rangle|}$

A basis $B = V_0, V_1, ..., V_{n-1}$ for an inner product space V is called an orthogonal basis if the vectors are pairwise orthogonal to each other, i.e., $j \neq k$ implies $\langle V_j, V_k \rangle = 0$.

An orthogonal basis is called an orthonormal basis if every vector in the basis is of norm 1, i.e.,

$$\langle V_j | V_k \rangle = \delta_{j,k} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j = k \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq k \end{cases}$$

 $\delta_{j,k}$ is called the Kronecker delta function

Hilbert Space is a complex inner product space that is complete. A finite-dimensional complex vector space with an inner product is an Hilbert Space.

- 1. Proof that the quantum state $|0\rangle$ is orthogonal to $|1\rangle$.
- 2. Proof that the quantum state $|+\rangle$ is orthogonal to $|-\rangle$.

A matrix U is unitary if

 $U \cdot U^{\dagger} = U^{\dagger} \cdot U = Id$

A

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} a_{0,1} \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \\ b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} a_{1,1} \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} \times b_{0,0} & a_{0,0} \times b_{0,1} & a_{0,1} \times b_{0,0} & a_{0,1} \times b_{0,1} \\ b_{0,0} \times b_{1,0} & a_{0,0} \times b_{1,1} & a_{0,1} \times b_{1,0} & a_{0,1} \times b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} \times b_{0,0} & a_{0,0} \times b_{0,1} & a_{0,1} \times b_{1,0} & a_{0,1} \times b_{1,1} \\ a_{1,0} \times b_{0,0} & a_{1,0} \times b_{0,1} & a_{1,1} \times b_{1,0} & a_{1,1} \times b_{1,1} \\ a_{1,0} \times b_{1,0} & a_{1,0} \times b_{1,1} & a_{1,1} \times b_{1,0} & a_{1,1} \times b_{1,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

In **quantum computation**, the tensor product corresponds to parallel gates:



Two vectors that can be written as a tensor are **separable**:

$$|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle = |00\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\0\\0\end{bmatrix}$$

Quantum Computation Basics

A quantum arbitrary state:

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

A system of n-qubits:

$$\sum_{q_1,...,q_n \in \{0,1\}^n} c_{q_1...q_n} |q_1...q_n\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} c_i |i\rangle$$



Figure 1: Bloch Sphere

Quantum computing Basics

Hadamard Pauli-X Х Pauli-Y 0 Pauli-Z Phase $\frac{\pi}{8}$

Quantum gates are reversible gates responsible for change in the qubit state. Are described by a unitary matrix *U*:

 $U^{\dagger}U = 1, U^{\dagger}$ is the adjoint of U



Table 2: multiqubit gate

Table 1: single qubit gates

- Besides the classics (0 and 1) states, the qubits can also be in any superposition state.
- In quantum computation, entanglement is created with multiqubit gates (like the CNOT).
- The measurement collapses the quantum state.
- A qubit' state cannot be copied!

References

 Noson S. Yanofsky and Mirco A. Mannucci. Quantum computing for computer scientists, volume 9780521879. 2008. ISBN 9780511813887. doi: 10.1017/CBO9780511813887.