

Information Theory

Book III

Spin state of an electron (disregard position and momentum) is an example of a qubit, which is a vector $|ψ\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C} \right\}$. $|ψ\rangle = |\psi\rangle = |\alpha\rangle + \beta|\rangle$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

Standard basis of \mathbb{C}^2 : $|+\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $|-\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

"spin up" "spin down"

A linear functional on \mathbb{C}^2 is a linear transformation

$$\langle \phi | : \mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

bra notation

$$\langle \phi | = (\gamma \delta) : \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \mapsto (\gamma \delta) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \gamma \alpha + \delta \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$

Dual basis:

$$\langle + | = |+\rangle^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ (conjugate transpose)}$$

$$\langle - | = |- \rangle^* = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\psi\rangle^* = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}^* = (\bar{\alpha} \bar{\beta}) = \bar{\alpha} \langle + | + \bar{\beta} \langle - |$$

$$\langle + | \psi \rangle = \langle + | (\alpha |+\rangle + \beta |-\rangle) = \alpha$$

$$\langle - | \psi \rangle = \beta.$$

Spin states are unit vectors in \mathbb{C}^2 i.e. $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

i.e. in \mathbb{R}^4
so $|\psi\rangle \in S^3 = \text{unit sphere in } \mathbb{R}^4$.

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 i \\ \beta &= \beta_1 + \beta_2 i \end{aligned} \quad \left\{ \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta_1, \beta_2 \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$$\alpha_1^2 + \alpha_2^2 + \beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2 = 1$$

Any time we measure a spin state $|\psi\rangle \in S^3$, it collapses.

But it is possible to perform certain reversible operations $|\psi\rangle \mapsto A|\psi\rangle$ where A is a 2×2 unitary matrix ($AA^* = A^*A = I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$) over \mathbb{C} .

An electron in this spin state is in a superposition of spin up and spin down states

A measurement of an electron in this spin state yields a single bit of classical information:

- Spin up, with probability $|\alpha|^2$;
- Spin down, with probability $|\beta|^2$.

This says what happens when we measure with respect to the z-axis. (for measurement in a different direction/axis, we'll say later.)

As soon as the measurement is taken, the spin state collapses; all knowledge of α, β is then lost.

Special examples of unitary matrices are scalar matrices $\begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & \bar{\lambda} \end{pmatrix}$, $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\lambda| = 1$

These perform an operation on $|q\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$ whose only effect is to alter the phase of α, β by λI

$$|q\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow A|q\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda\alpha \\ \lambda\beta \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda = e^{i\theta} \quad (\theta \in [0, 2\pi])$$

which has no physical significance. For this reason the so-called density matrix

$$\underbrace{|q\rangle\langle q|}_{2 \times 1 \quad 1 \times 2} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \bar{\alpha} & \bar{\beta} \end{pmatrix}}_{2 \times 2} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha\bar{\alpha} & \alpha\bar{\beta} \\ \beta\bar{\alpha} & \beta\bar{\beta} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{which holds all the physically significant information of our single qubit.}$$

Hermitian 2×2 matrix

$$H \in \mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2} \quad (2 \times 2 \text{ complex matrix})$$

satisfying $H^* = H$

The map $\begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \lambda\beta \end{pmatrix}$ does not change this density matrix.

Entanglement typically occurs when we include multiple electrons in our system.

Start by reviewing statistical dependence works:

Let's say we take a random individual A from a population.

Imagine the population is 40% male, 60% female; 30% short, 70% tall.

Sampling by selecting one person gives two bits: MS, MT, FS, or FT.
Combinations of attributes: Height

12%, 28%, 18%, 42% if gender is independent of height.

In this example, gender and height are independent.

		Gender		Height
M	M	0.12	0.28	0.9
	F	0.18	0.42	
		0.3	0.7	1

More typical distribution

In this second example gender and height are (statistically) dependent.

		Gender		Height
M	M	0.1	0.3	0.9
	F	0.2	0.7	
		0.3	0.7	1

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.4 \\ 0.6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.12 & 0.28 \\ 0.18 & 0.42 \end{bmatrix}$$

Outer product of two vectors.

The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 0.1 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$ has rank 2.

If one electron has spin state $|1\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2$ and a second electron has spin state $|1\psi_2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} r \\ s \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2$

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1 \quad |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2 = 1$$

The pair of electrons has state $|1\psi_h\rangle = \alpha_1|++\rangle + \alpha_2|+-\rangle + \alpha_{21}|-\rangle + \alpha_{22}|--\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^4$

If the two electrons are not entangled then

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \gamma \\ \beta & \delta \end{pmatrix} \text{ rank 1.}$$

If the matrix has rank 2 then the two electrons are entangled.

Eg. $|1\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|++\rangle + |--\rangle)$ i.e. $\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$ } Examples of EPR pairs

$$|1\psi'\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+-\rangle + |-+\rangle) \text{ i.e. } \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

One way to talk about the spin state of a set of n electrons is

$$|1\psi\rangle = \sum_{\substack{i_1 \in \{0,1\} \\ i_2 \in \{0,1\} \\ \vdots \\ i_n \in \{0,1\}}} \underbrace{\alpha_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_n} | \pm \pm \pm \dots \pm \rangle}_{\text{all } 2^n \text{ combinations of } \pm} \in \mathbb{C}^{2^n} \quad \sum |\alpha_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_n}|^2 = 1$$

$i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n : i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n \in \{0,1\}$

$(\alpha_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_n} : i_1, i_2, \dots, i_n \in \{0,1\})$ is a $\underbrace{2 \times 2 \times 2 \times \dots \times 2}_n$ array or tensor

$$\forall i, j \in \mathbb{C}, \quad |\alpha_{ij}|^2 + |\alpha_{i\bar{j}}|^2 + |\alpha_{\bar{i}j}|^2 + |\alpha_{\bar{i}\bar{j}}|^2 = 1.$$

↑
prob. of
both electrons
having spin up

$C^n = \underbrace{C^2 \otimes C^2 \otimes \cdots \otimes C^2}_{n \text{ times}}$ tensor product. Take basis $|+\rangle, |-\rangle$

has basis $|++\dots++\rangle = |+\rangle \otimes |+\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |+\rangle$
 $|++\dots+-\rangle = |+\rangle \otimes |+\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |-\rangle$
 \vdots
 $|-\dots-\rangle = |-\rangle \otimes |-\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |-\rangle$

More generally if $v_i \in C^2$ ($i=1, 2, \dots, n$)

then $v_1 \otimes v_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_n \in C^2 \otimes C^2 \otimes \cdots \otimes C^2$. (pure tensors)

$$C^2 \times C^2 \times \cdots \times C^2 \quad \overset{\text{if}}{\Downarrow} \quad C^2 \otimes C^2 \otimes \cdots \otimes C^2 = C^{2^n}$$

$(v_1, \dots, v_n) \mapsto v_1 \otimes v_2 \otimes \cdots \otimes v_n$ this map is multilinear

i.e. linear in each argument separately.

Bell's Theorem

Gleason's Theorem

Kochen-Specker Theorem

In $C^m \otimes C^n \cong C^{mn}$
 every vector is a sum of at most $\min\{m, n\}$ pure tensors.

The corresponding result for $C^m \otimes C^{n_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes C^{n_k}$ is not known and extremely hard.

(In Algebraic Geometry
 look up Higher Secant
 varieties &
 Segre Varieties)

Recall: the spin state of a single electron is a qubit $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

Standard basis $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

spin up/down with respect to the z-axis

How do we measure the spin in an arbitrary direction?

In the vertical direction we make use of basis $|+\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $|-\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ basis of eigenvectors for the Pauli spin operator $\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$\sigma_z |+\rangle = |+\rangle$$

$$\sigma_z |-\rangle = -|-\rangle$$

Any electron with spin state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|+\rangle + \beta|-\rangle$ can be measured in the vertical direction

$$\sigma_z |\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ -\beta \end{pmatrix}$$

Follow this by a linear functional eg. $|+\rangle^* = \langle +|$

$\langle +| \sigma_z |\psi\rangle = (1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = (1 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ -\beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha$, the amplitude for the electron to be spin up.

Once the measurement is performed, the state collapses into that spin state $|\psi\rangle \mapsto |+\rangle$.

$$\underbrace{\langle +|}_{|+\rangle} \underbrace{\sigma_z |+\rangle}_{|+\rangle} = 1.$$

If we measure $|\psi\rangle \mapsto \langle +| \sigma_z |\psi\rangle$ and find spin down, the state collapses to spin down $|-\rangle$

$$\langle +| \sigma_z |\psi\rangle = -\beta, \quad |-\beta|^2 = |\beta|^2$$

$$\sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hermitian: $\sigma^* = \sigma$

Eigenvectors: $|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $|+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, \quad |-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$
 $|+\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad |-\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ eigenvalues +1, -1

$$\text{eg. } \sigma_y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = |+\rangle$$

$$\sigma_y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix} = -|-\rangle$$

If we measure an electron having spin $|+\rangle$ (in the pos. y-direction)
with respect to the x-axis

$$\langle + | + \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1 \ 1) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1+i \\ 1+i \end{pmatrix} \quad \left| \frac{1+i}{2} \right|^2 = \frac{2}{4} = \frac{1}{2} \quad |a+bi|^2 = a^2+b^2$$

Density matrix of $|\psi\rangle$ is $|\psi\rangle \langle \psi| = |\psi\rangle |\psi|^* = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \bar{\beta} & \bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha\bar{\alpha} & \alpha\bar{\beta} \\ \bar{\alpha}\beta & \bar{\beta}\bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$ $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$
 is Hermitian having eigenvalues 1, 0; corresponding eigenvectors $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}, |\psi'\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{\beta} \\ -\bar{\alpha} \end{pmatrix}$
 $|\psi\rangle \langle \psi| \psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$ since $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ $\langle \psi' | \psi \rangle = (\bar{\beta} - \alpha) \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha\bar{\beta} - \alpha\beta = 0$.

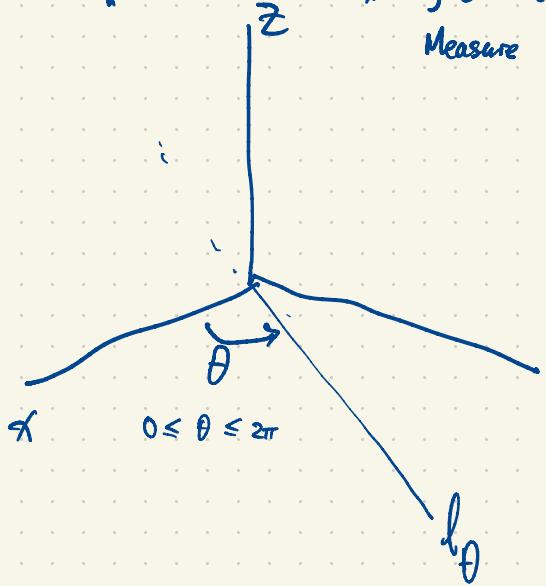
$$|\psi\rangle \langle \psi | \psi'\rangle = 0. = 0 |\psi'\rangle.$$

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1 \Rightarrow |\psi\rangle \langle \psi|$$

to $AB = BA$.

What is the corresponding Pauli spin operator in an arbitrary direction $n = (n_x, n_y, n_z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$
 $n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2 = 1$.

$$\sigma_n = n \cdot \sigma = n_x \sigma_x + n_y \sigma_y + n_z \sigma_z$$



Measure spin wrt line l_0 in x-y plane at angle θ as shown.

$$\sigma = (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z)$$

$$n = (\cos\theta, \sin\theta, 0)$$

σ_θ : Pauli spin operator for the direction n

$$\sigma_\theta = n \cdot (\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z) = \cos\theta \sigma_x + \sin\theta \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cos\theta - i\sin\theta \\ \cos\theta + i\sin\theta & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{i\theta} \\ e^{-i\theta} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

using de Moivre's formula $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$

$$\text{Eigen vectors } |+_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$|-_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ -e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Check: } \sigma_\theta |+_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-i\theta} \\ e^{i\theta} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} \\ e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} = |+_\theta\rangle \quad \text{eigenvector with eigenvalue +1}$$

$$\sigma_\theta |-_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & e^{-i\theta} \\ e^{i\theta} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta} \\ e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix} = -|+_\theta\rangle \quad \dots \quad -1$$

$$\text{The map } l_0 \mapsto \begin{cases} |+_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix} \\ |-_\theta\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} \\ -e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix} \end{cases}$$

is 2-to-1.

Spin vectors go around "full circle" in \mathbb{C}^2
as θ goes from 0 to 4π ; the "+" direction of l_0 goes twice around a circle in this same θ -interval.

If we measure an electron in spin state

$|+\rangle = \alpha |+_\theta\rangle + \beta |-_\theta\rangle$ with respect to the direction l_0 ,
we get $|+_\theta\rangle$ with prob. $|\alpha|^2$, $|-_\theta\rangle$ with prob. $|\beta|^2$.

Spin states actually lie in $S^3 = \text{unit vector in } \mathbb{C}^2$ which is a double cover of $\text{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}) = \{\text{rotations of } \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ about the origin}\} = \{3 \times 3 \text{ real matrices } A : AA^T = I, \det A = 1\}$.

Bob has an electron in spin state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|+\rangle + \beta|-\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.

He wants to send this to Alice. Bob doesn't know α, β and he cannot directly measure them.

Analogy: transporting Captain Kirk from enterprise to planet's surface.

In advance of this teleportation process, Alice and Bob have stockpiled some EPR pairs



Electrons e_1, e_2 are entangled: their joint spin state $|\psi_{e_1 e_2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+\rangle + |-\rangle)$

Electron e_3 is in state $|\psi_{e_3}\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha|+\rangle + \beta|-\rangle$, $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$, $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.
 e_3 is not (currently) entangled with e_1, e_2 .

The combined state of e_1, e_2, e_3 is

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_{e_1 e_2 e_3}\rangle &= |\psi_{e_1 e_2}\rangle \otimes |\psi_{e_3}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+\rangle + |-\rangle) \otimes (\alpha|+\rangle + \beta|-\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha|+++\rangle + \beta|+-\rangle + \alpha|-+\rangle + \beta|--\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\in \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 = \mathbb{C}^8$$

$$|\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{2}}|^2 + |\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{2}}|^2 + |\frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{2}}|^2 + |\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{2}}|^2 = 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} |+\rangle &= |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle \\ |-\rangle &= |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle \\ e_1 &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2 \\ |+\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2 \\ |-\rangle &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Spin of the pair e_1, e_2 lives in $\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 = \mathbb{C}^4$ which has orthonormal basis $|+\rangle, |-\rangle, |+\rangle, |-\rangle$

Alice

e1

•

Bob

e2

e3

$$|\psi_{123}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\alpha|+++> + \beta|++-> + \alpha|-+-> + \beta|--->)$$

Bob performs a reversible (unitary) transformation with respect to e_2, e_3 defined by

$$|++> \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|++> + |-->)$$

$$|-> \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|++> - |-->)$$

$$|+-> \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|+-> + |-+>)$$

$$|-+> \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|-+> - |+->)$$

This transforms $|\psi_{123}\rangle$ to

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi_{123}\rangle &\mapsto \frac{1}{2} \left[(\alpha|+++> + \alpha|+->) + (\beta|++> + \beta|+->) + (\alpha|-+> - \alpha|-->) + (\beta|-+> - \beta|-->) \right] \\ &= (\alpha|+> + \beta|->) \otimes \frac{1}{2}|++> + (\alpha|+> - \beta|->) \otimes \frac{1}{2}|--> + (\beta|+> + \alpha|->) \otimes \frac{1}{2}|+-> + (\beta|+> - \alpha|->) \otimes \frac{1}{2}|-+> \end{aligned}$$

Now Bob measures e_2, e_3 with respect to the basis $|+>, |->, |+>, |->$ of $C^2 \otimes C^2 = C^4$.

e_2, e_3 collapse into one of these four states. At this moment we know e_1 is in one of the four states. Bob sends this classical information (2 classical bits) to Alice. Alice applies the appropriate unitary 2×2 matrix to e_1 which transforms e_1 into the correct state.

Note: Alice's operations on e_1 can be described using Pauli spin matrices.

$$[\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}] \text{ identity } |0\rangle \mapsto |0\rangle, |1\rangle \mapsto |1\rangle \quad |0\rangle = |0\rangle, |1\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$\sigma_x = [\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}] : \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} |1\rangle \\ |0\rangle \end{pmatrix} \text{ i.e. } |0\rangle \leftrightarrow |1\rangle \text{ 'bit flip' or 'NOT'}$$

$$\sigma_z = [\begin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{smallmatrix}] : \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ -|1\rangle \end{pmatrix} \text{ i.e. } |0\rangle \mapsto |0\rangle, |1\rangle \mapsto -|1\rangle \text{ 'phase shift'}$$

$$\sigma_y = [\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{smallmatrix}] : \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ i|1\rangle \end{pmatrix} = -i \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e_1 \rightarrow \textcircled{\sigma_x} \rightarrow [\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{smallmatrix}] e_1 \\
 e_2 \longrightarrow e_2
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{l}
 |00\rangle \mapsto |10\rangle \\
 |01\rangle \mapsto |11\rangle \\
 |10\rangle \mapsto |00\rangle \\
 |11\rangle \mapsto |01\rangle
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \sigma_x \otimes \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

wrt basis $|00\rangle, |10\rangle, |01\rangle, |11\rangle$

CNOT gate :

$ 00\rangle \mapsto 00\rangle$	e_1
$ 01\rangle \mapsto 01\rangle$	
$ 10\rangle \mapsto 11\rangle$	$e_2 \rightarrow \oplus$
$ 11\rangle \mapsto 10\rangle$	

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

wrt basis $|00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$

In quantum computation, quantum information is often modelled as qubits.

An ensemble of n electrons has spin state $|\psi\rangle \in \underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \dots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_n \cong \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ (unit vector).

Can initialize $|\psi\rangle$ in a particular state, usually $|000\dots 0\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |0\rangle$ (all electrons spin up)

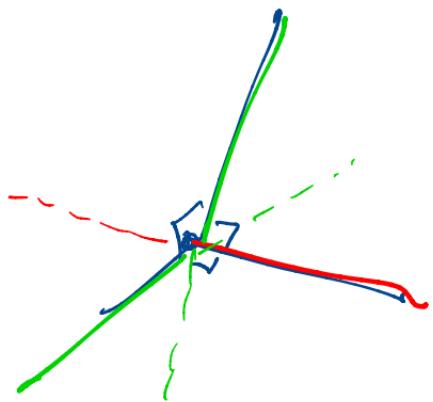
Cannot clone a qubit. Measurement of a qubit yields at most n classical bits of information.

Can perform reversible processes $|\psi\rangle \mapsto U|\psi\rangle$, U unitary $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix.

Can measure $|\psi\rangle$, typically by measuring spin of each electron separately.

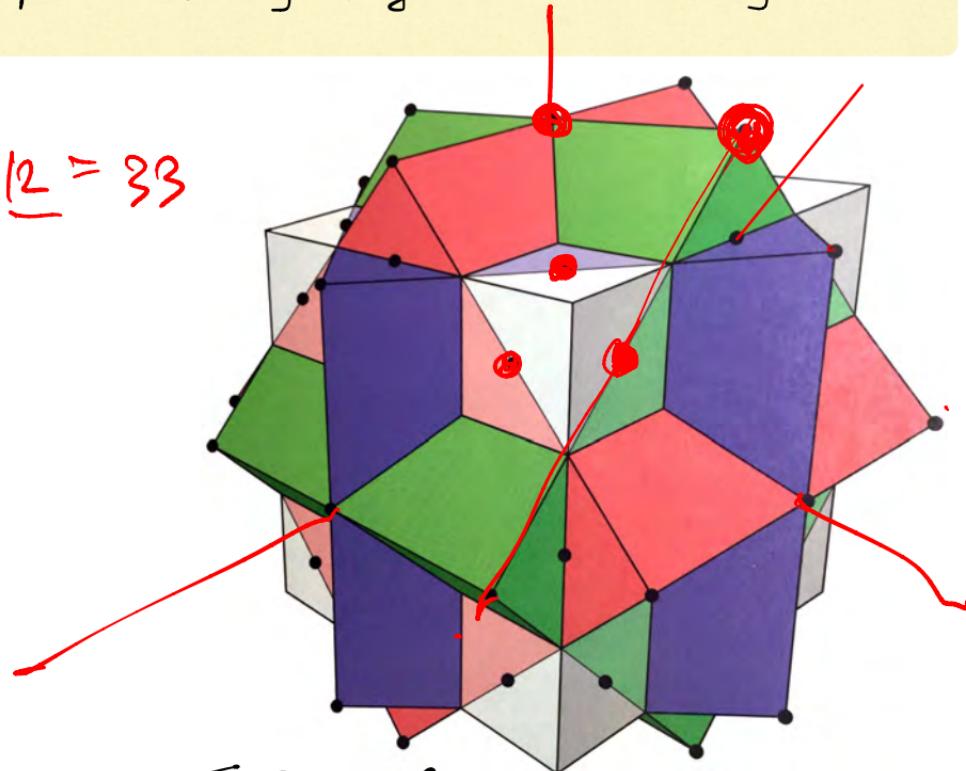
Kochen-Specker Theorem 1967, as simplified by Peres shortly after.

Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



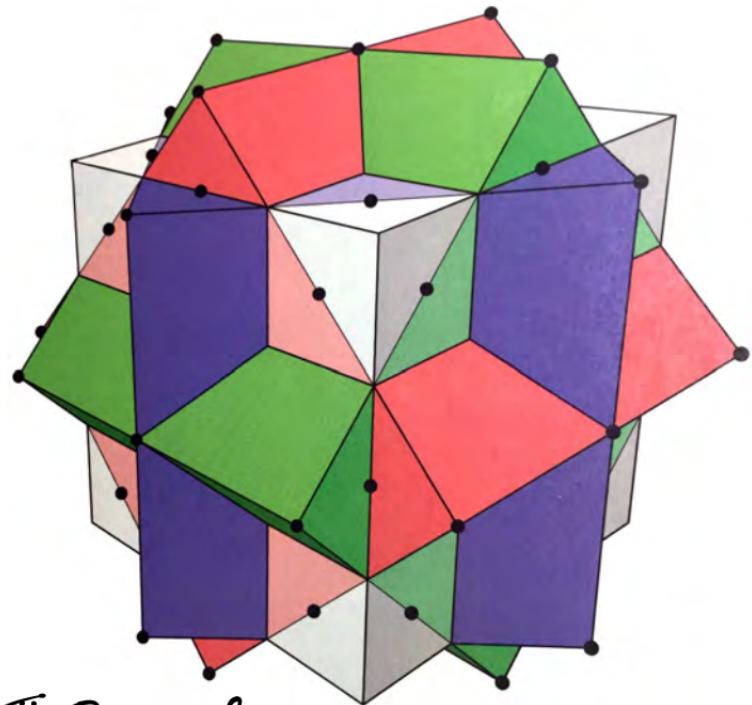
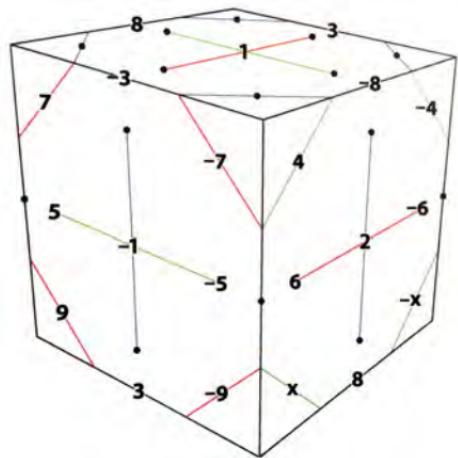
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$$3 + \underbrace{6 + 12}_{18} + 12 = 33$$



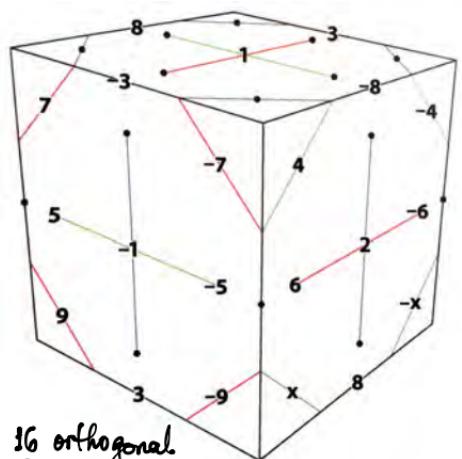
The Peres configuration (33 lines)

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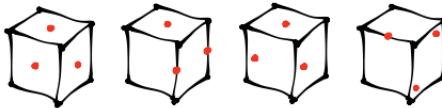


The Peres configuration (33 lines)

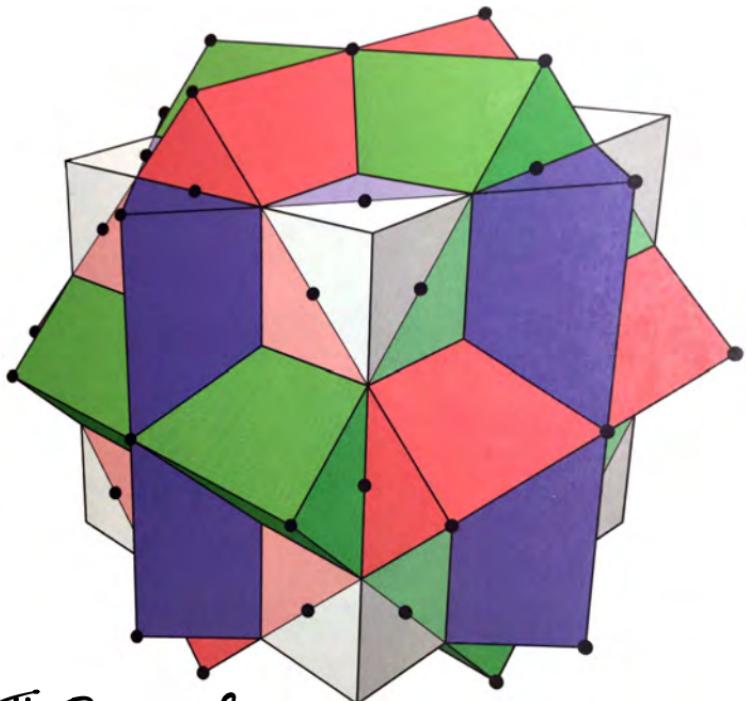
Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



16 orthogonal frames:

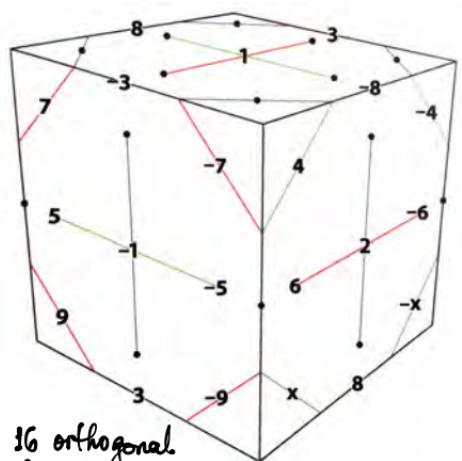


$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

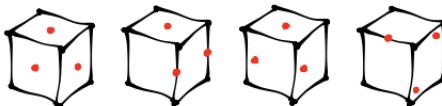


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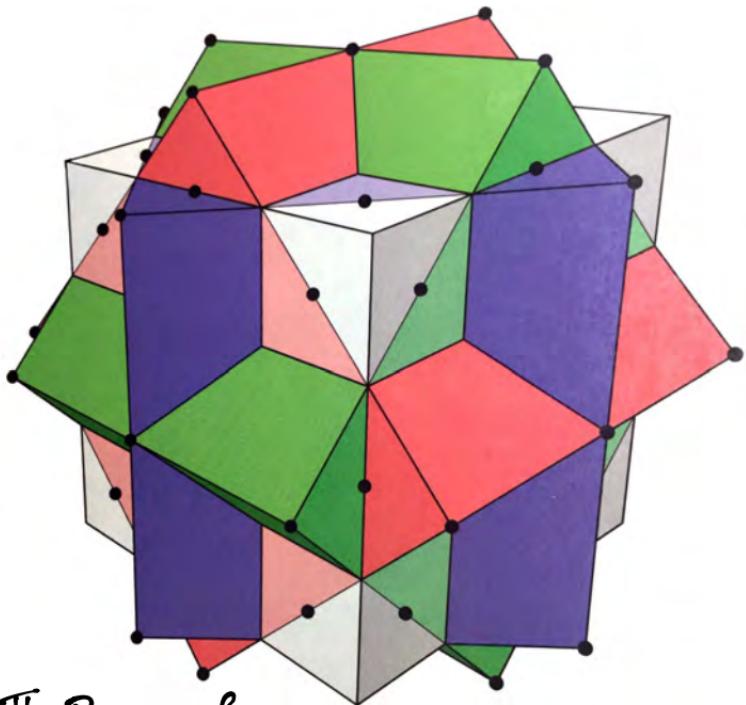


16 orthogonal frames:



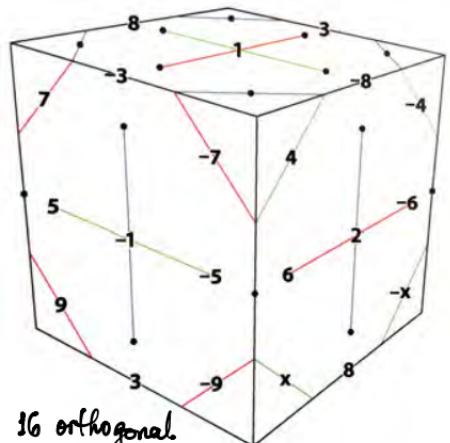
$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:

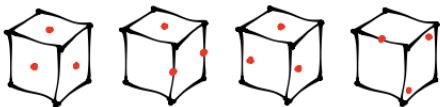


The Peres configuration (33 lines)

Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.

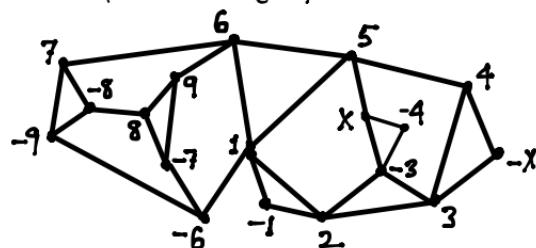


16 orthogonal frames:



$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

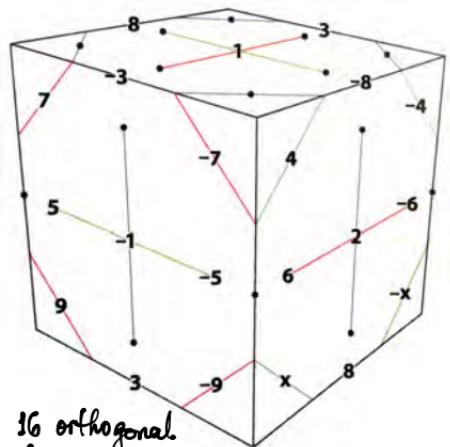
Take the 53 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:



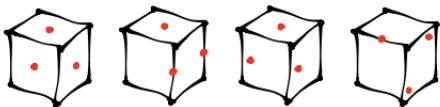
Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



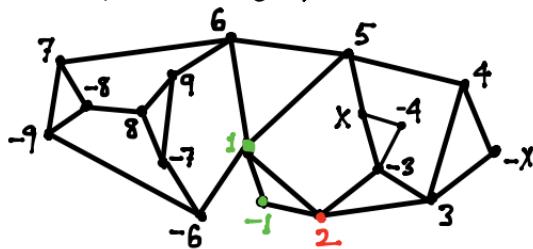
16 orthogonal frames.



$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

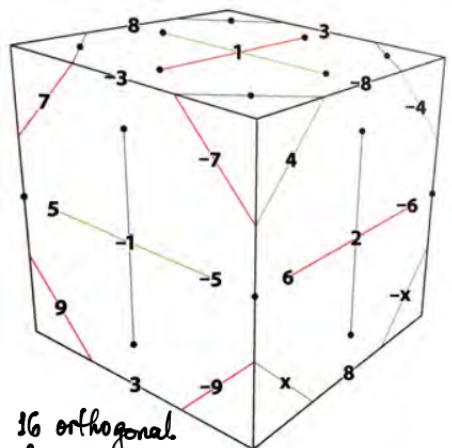
Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:

Take the 53 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:



WLOG 1, -1 are green; 2 is red.

Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



16 orthogonal frames.

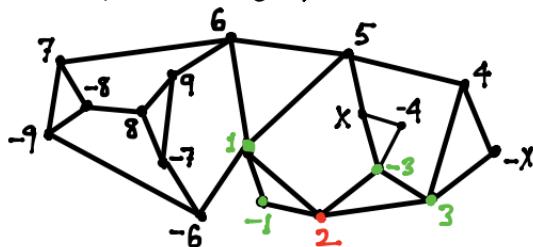


$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:

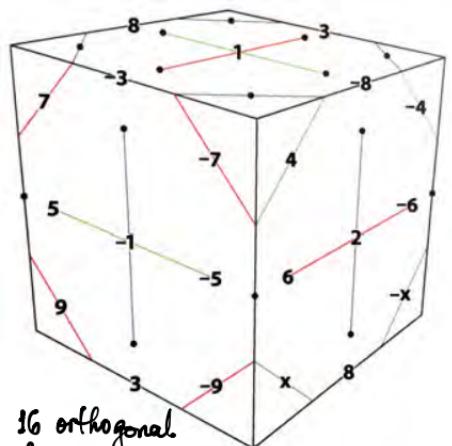


Take the 53 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:

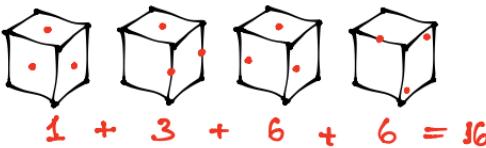


WLOG 1, -1 are green; 2 is red. So 3, -3 are green.

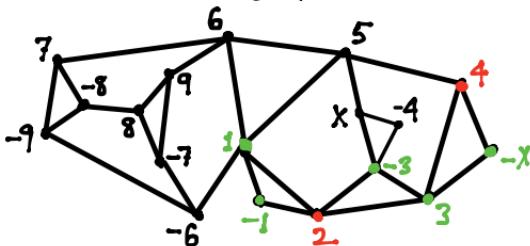
Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



16 orthogonal frames:



Take the 53 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:



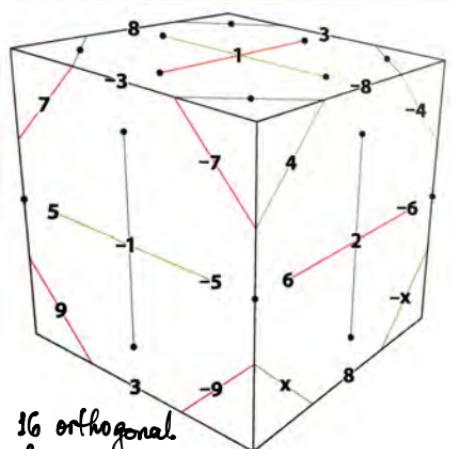
WLOG 1, -1 are green; 2 is red. So 3, -3 are green.

WLOG $-x$ is green. Reflection in $L_{1,3}^L = \langle l_2, l_3, l_4, l_x \rangle$ interchanges $4 \leftrightarrow -x$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

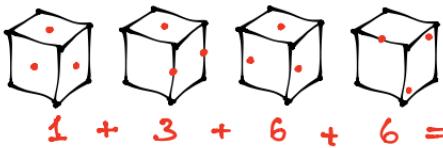
Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



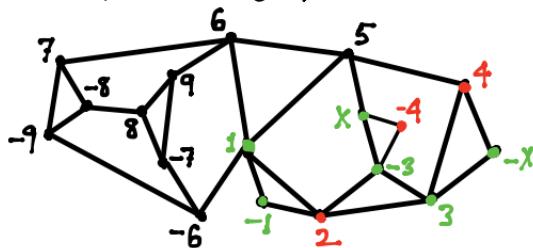
16 orthogonal frames:



Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



Take the 33 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:

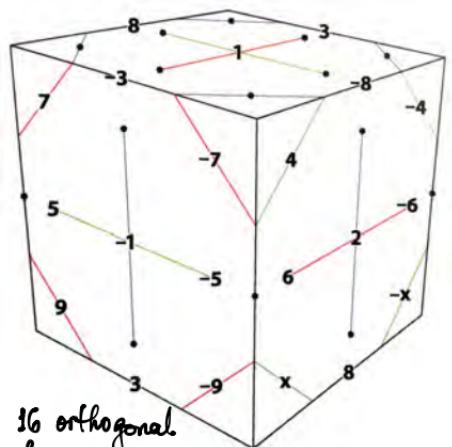


WLOG 1, -1 are green; 2 is red. So 3, -3 are green.

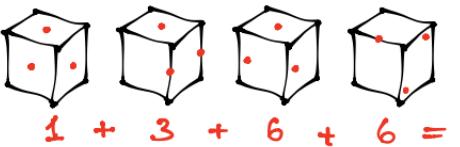
WLOG $-X$ is green. Reflection in $\ell_3^\perp = \langle l_2, l_3, l_4, l_{-X} \rangle$ interchanges $4 \leftrightarrow -X$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

WLOG X is green. Reflection in $\ell_3^\perp = \langle l_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_{-X} \rangle$ interchanges $-4 \leftrightarrow X$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



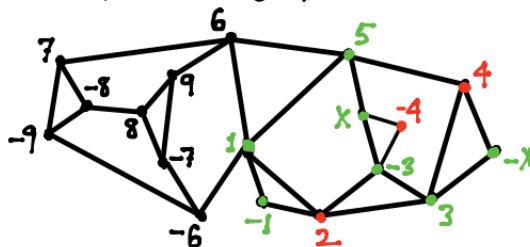
16 orthogonal frames:



Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



Take the 93 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:

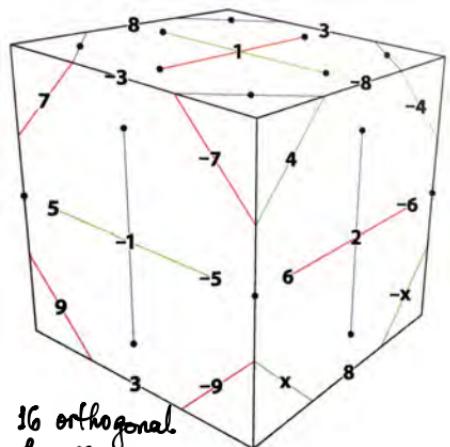


WLOG 1, -1 are green; 2 is red. So 3, -3 are green.

WLOG $-X$ is green. Reflection in $\ell_3^\perp = \langle \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_X \rangle$ interchanges $4 \leftrightarrow -X$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

WLOG X is green. Reflection in $\ell_3^\perp = \langle \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_{-X} \rangle$ interchanges $-4 \leftrightarrow X$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

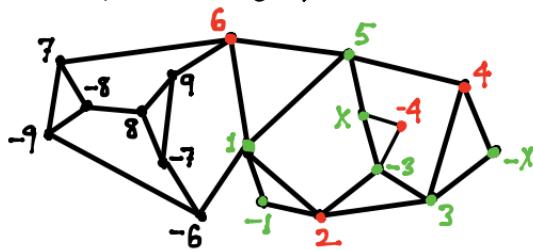
Kochen-Specker Theorem: It is impossible to colour the one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{R}^3 red and green, such that every orthogonal frame has exactly one red line.



$$1 + 3 + 6 + 6 = 16$$

Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:

Take the 53 lines as vertices of a graph with edges representing orthogonal pairs. This graph has 16 triangles and 24 further edges. Here is part of the graph:

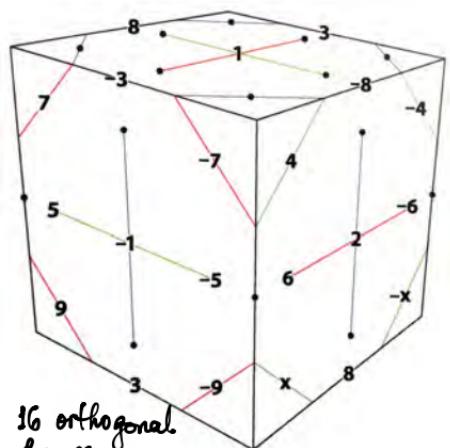


WLOG 1,-1 are green; 2 is red. So 3,-3 are green.

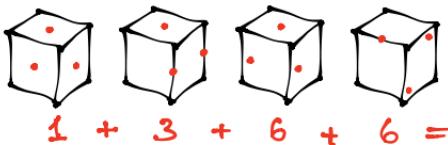
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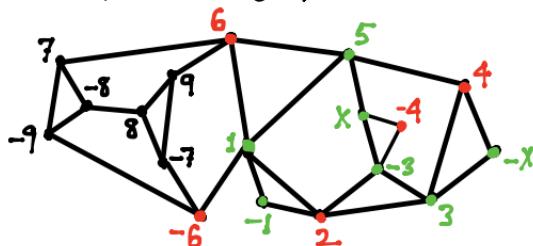
16 orthogonal frames:



Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



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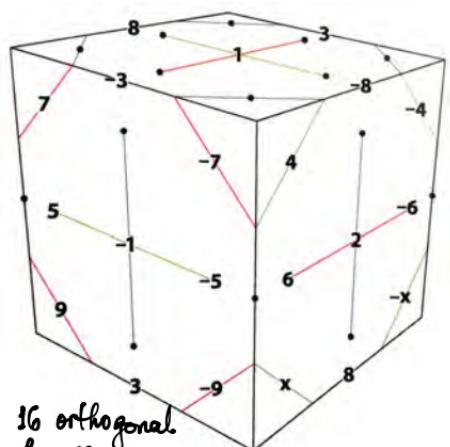


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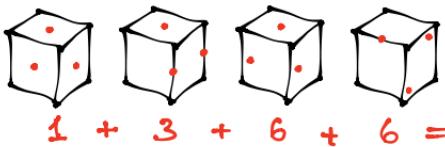
WLOG $-x$ is green. Reflection in $\ell_3^\perp = \langle \ell_2, \ell_3, \ell_4, \ell_x \rangle$ interchanges $4 \leftrightarrow -x$, $1 \leftrightarrow -1$ while fixing all previously coloured vertices.

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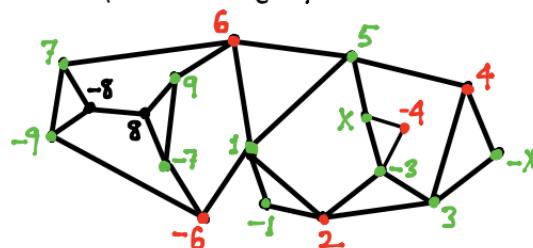
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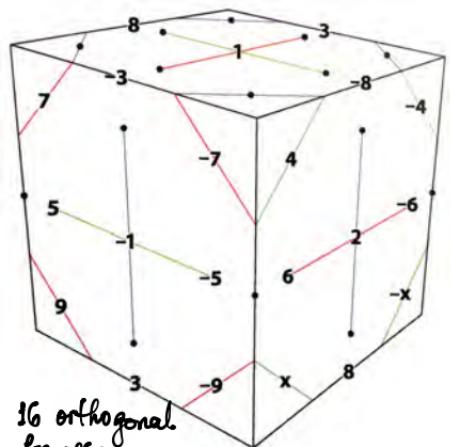


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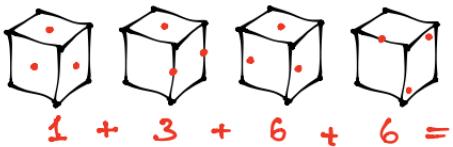
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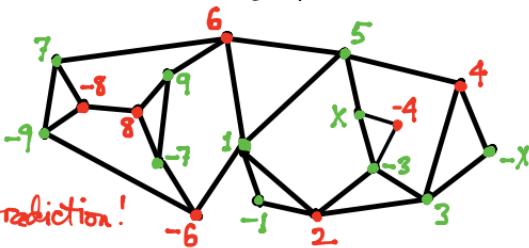
16 orthogonal frames.



Another 24 pairs of orthogonal lines:



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