

Quantum states and operations without complex numbers

J.A. Miszczak

Institute of Theoretical and Applied Informatics, Polish Academy of Sciences

ACA2015, Kalamata, 20-23.07.2015

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Notation
 - Real representation
 - Linearity
- 3 Examples
 - Example 1: Symbolic density matrices
 - Example 2: One-qubit case
 - Example 3: Werner states
 - Example 4: Partial transposition
 - Example 5: Partial trace
- 4 Summary

Motivation

- Density matrices are hermitian and contain information which is redundant.
- Encoding of data into quantum states requires only real numbers.
- Simplification in *Mathematica* can be very powerful as long as we specify the right assumptions.

Notation

State in quantum mechanics is represented by a positive matrix with trace 1. These properties are reflected by the properties of the quantum maps (*i.e.* linear maps on the space of states).

- $\rho = \rho^\dagger \implies$ Kraus form
- $\rho > 0 \implies$ complete positivity
- $\text{tr}\rho = 1 \implies$ trace preserving

Notation

Quantum operations are linear. As such they can be represented by matrices – so called *supermatrices*. For a quantum state ρ , the action of the map Φ can be expressed as

$$\Phi(\rho) = \mathbf{res}^{-1} (M_{\Phi} \mathbf{res}(\rho)),$$

where \mathbf{res} maps $n \times n$ matrices onto n^2 -dimensional vectors.

Such representation can be obtained for any linear map on quantum states (not necessary completely positive).

Notation

Real representation

The real representation of a density matrix ρ is defined as

$$\mathcal{R}[\rho]_{ij} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{Re}\rho_{ij} & i \leq j \\ -\mathbf{Im}\rho_{ij} & i > j \end{cases}$$

This translates into *Mathematica* as

```
ComplexToReal[m_] := Block[{d = Dimensions[m][[1]]},  
  Array[If[#1 <= #2,  
    Re[m[[#1, #2]]],  
    -Im[m[[#1, #2]]]] &, {d, d}]
```

Notation

Real representation

One can easily reconstruct the original density matrix from its real representation.

Assuming that m represents a real matrix obtained as a representation of the density matrix, the original density matrix is obtained by

```
RealToComplex[m_] := Block[{d = Dimensions[m][[1]]},  
  Array[If[#1 < #2, m[[#1, #2]] + I m[[#2, #1]],  
    If[#1 > #2, m[[#2, #1]] - I m[[#1, #2]],  
    m[[#1, #2]]]] &, {d, d}]
```

Notation

Linearity

Maps \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{C} are linear if one considers the multiplication by real numbers only. Thus it can be represented as a matrix on the space of density matrices as

$$\mathcal{R}[\rho] = \mathbf{res}^{-1} (M_{\mathcal{R}} \mathbf{res}(\rho))$$

where \mathbf{res} is the operation of reordering elements of the matrix into a vector.

Examples

Example 1: Symbolic density matrices

In *Mathematica* it is easy to express the hermicity of a density matrix

```
SymbolicDensityMatrix[a_ , b_ , d_] := Array[
  If[#1 < #2, a_{#1,#2} + I b_{#1,#2} ,
    If[#1 > #2, a_{#2,#1} - I b_{#2,#1} , a_{#1,#2}]] &, {d, d}]
```

Here *a* and *b* are base symbols used to construct symbolic elements of the density matrix.

Examples

Example 1: Symbolic density matrices

However, to use this property during the symbolic manipulations, one has to include the information about $a_{i,j}$ and $b_{i,j}$ in **Assumptions** list

```
$Assumptions = Map[Element[# , Reals] &,
  Flatten[Join[Table[ $a_{i,j}$ , {i , 1 , d}, {j , i , d}],
    Table[ $b_{i,j}$ , {i , 1 , d}, {j , i + 1 , d}]]]]
]
```

This is implemented by **SymbolicDensityMatrixAssume** function, which accepts the same arguments as **SymbolicDensityMatrix**.

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

For one qubit the symbolic density matrix can be obtained as `SymbolicDensityMatrix[a, b, 2]` which results in

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} + ib_{1,2} \\ a_{1,2} - ib_{1,2} & a_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The list of required assumptions can be obtained as `SymbolicDensityMatrixAssume[a, b, 2]`

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

Simplification

In *Mathematica* the application of map \mathcal{R} on the above matrix results in

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Re}(a_{1,1}) & \mathbf{Re}(a_{1,2}) - \mathbf{Im}(b_{1,2}) \\ \mathbf{Re}(b_{1,2}) - \mathbf{Im}(a_{1,2}) & \mathbf{Re}(a_{2,2}) \end{pmatrix},$$

and only after using function **FullSimplify** one gets the expected form of the output

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\ b_{1,2} & a_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

For one-qubit map \mathcal{R} is represented by the matrix

$$M_{\mathcal{R}}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -i & i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Matrix representation of the map \mathcal{C} reads

$$M_{\mathcal{C}}^{(2)} = (M_{\mathcal{R}}^{(2)})^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

The main benefit of the real representation is the smaller number of multiplications required to describe the evolution. To illustrate this let us consider a bit-flip channel defined by Kraus operators

$$\left\{ \left(\begin{array}{cc} \sqrt{1-p} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1-p} \end{array} \right), \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & \sqrt{p} \\ \sqrt{p} & 0 \end{array} \right) \right\},$$

or equivalently as a matrix

$$M_{BF}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & 0 & 0 & p \\ 0 & 1-p & p & 0 \\ 0 & p & 1-p & 0 \\ p & 0 & 0 & 1-p \end{pmatrix}.$$

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

The form of this channel on the real density matrices is given by

$$M_{\mathcal{R}}^{(2)} M_{BF}^{(2)} M_C^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & 0 & 0 & p \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1-2p & 0 \\ p & 0 & 0 & 1-p \end{pmatrix}.$$

This map acts on the real density matrix as

$$\begin{pmatrix} pa_{2,2} - (p-1)a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} \\ (1-2p)b_{1,2} & pa_{1,1} - (p-1)a_{2,2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Examples

Example 2: One-qubit case

Simplification

In *Mathematica* the direct application of the map \mathcal{R} on the output of the channel, *i.e.* $M_R M_{BF} \mathbf{res} \rho$, results in

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{Re}(pa_{2,2} - (p-1)a_{1,1}) & a_{1,2} + 2\mathbf{Im}(p)b_{1,2} \\ (1 - 2\mathbf{Re}(p))b_{1,2} & \mathbf{Re}(pa_{1,1} - (p-1)a_{2,2}) \end{pmatrix}$$

To get the simplified result one needs to explicitly specify assumption $p \in \mathbf{Reals}$. This assumption has to be appended to `$Assumptions` variable.

Examples

Example 3: Werner states

Let us consider the Werner states defined for two-qubit systems

$$W(a) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a+1}{4} & 0 & 0 & \frac{a}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1-a}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1-a}{4} & 0 \\ \frac{a}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{a+1}{4} \end{pmatrix},$$

with partial transposition given by

$$W(a)^{T_A} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a+1}{4} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1-a}{4} & \frac{a}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{a}{2} & \frac{1-a}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{a+1}{4} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Examples

Example 3: Werner states

The real representation reduces one element from the $W(a)$ matrix

$$\mathcal{R}[W(a)] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{a+1}{4} & 0 & 0 & \frac{a}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{1-a}{4} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1-a}{4} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{a+1}{4} \end{pmatrix}.$$

This matrix has eigenvalues

$$\left\{ \frac{1-a}{4}, \frac{1-a}{4}, \frac{a+1}{4}, \frac{a+1}{4} \right\}$$

and the sum of smaller eigenvalues is greater than the larger eigenvalue for $a > 1/3$.

Examples

Example 4: Partial transposition

Let us consider the partial transposition of the two-qubit density matrix

$$\rho^{T_A} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} + iy_{1,2} & x_{1,3} - iy_{1,3} & x_{2,3} - iy_{2,3} \\ x_{1,2} - iy_{1,2} & x_{2,2} & x_{1,4} - iy_{1,4} & x_{2,4} - iy_{2,4} \\ x_{1,3} + iy_{1,3} & x_{1,4} + iy_{1,4} & x_{3,3} & x_{3,4} + iy_{3,4} \\ x_{2,3} + iy_{2,3} & x_{2,4} + iy_{2,4} & x_{3,4} - iy_{3,4} & x_{4,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

In this case

$$\mathcal{R}[\rho^{T_A}] = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & x_{1,3} & x_{2,3} \\ y_{1,2} & x_{2,2} & x_{1,4} & x_{2,4} \\ -y_{1,3} & -y_{1,4} & x_{3,3} & x_{3,4} \\ -y_{2,3} & -y_{2,4} & y_{3,4} & x_{4,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

Examples

Example 4: Partial transposition

However

$$(\mathcal{R}[\rho])^{T_A} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & y_{1,3} & y_{2,3} \\ y_{1,2} & x_{2,2} & y_{1,4} & y_{2,4} \\ x_{1,3} & x_{1,4} & x_{3,3} & x_{3,4} \\ x_{2,3} & x_{2,4} & y_{3,4} & x_{4,4} \end{pmatrix}$$

so

$$\mathcal{R}[\rho^{T_A}] \neq (\mathcal{R}[\rho])^{T_A}.$$

For this reason one cannot exchange the order of operations.

Examples

Example 4: Partial transposition

The explicit form of the partial transposition on the real density matrices can be found by representing partial transposition as a matrix

`ChannelToMatrix[PartialTranspose[#, {2, 2}, {1}] &, 4]`

and using formula

$$M_{\mathcal{R}[\Phi]} = M_{\mathcal{R}}M_{\Phi}M_{\mathcal{C}}.$$

Examples

Example 5: Partial trace

For a two-qubit density matrix its partial trace is given by

$$\text{tr}_A \rho = \begin{pmatrix} x_{1,1} + x_{3,3} & x_{1,2} + x_{3,4} + i(y_{1,2} + y_{3,4}) \\ x_{1,2} + x_{3,4} - i(y_{1,2} + y_{3,4}) & x_{2,2} + x_{4,4} \end{pmatrix}.$$

One can verify if the operation of tracing-out the subsystem commutes with the map \mathcal{R} and in this case we have

$$\mathcal{C}[\text{tr}_A \mathcal{R}[\rho]] = \text{tr}_A \rho.$$

Thus one can calculate the reduced state of the subsystem using the real value representation.

Summary

- Real quantum states can be used to reduce the amount of memory and the number of operations required during the simulation.
- In some cases (*eg.* partial trace) the calculations can be made using the real representation only.
- Efficient utilization of the simplification procedures requires the appropriate information about the types.
- Order of evaluation and simplification influences the final output.

Thank you!