Tutorial on Quantum Repeaters Rodney Van Meter & Tracy Northup

9000

• @IRTF, 2019/3/25

1001

Outline

- What's a quantum network? (tl;dr version)
- Applications: Why quantum networks?
- Basic terminology & concepts
- Basic mathematical notation
- Basics of entanglement
- Teleportation
- Implementation
- Repeaters: rationale, concepts & generations
- Final thoughts: learning more & getting involved

Quantum networks: the vision



- Quantum nodes at which information is stored and processed.
 - » atoms
- Quantum channels for information transport.
 - » photons

Two kinds of quantum networks

Unentangled Networks

Good only for quantum key distribution (QKD), which aids longevity of secrecy Actually a series encrypted inform² of steps from here classical networ to there (Wehner, Very limited distar. Elkouss, Hanson) satellite possible!). Weak in multi-hop settings, better for point-to-point. Easier (still not easy) to build.

Entangled Networks

Good for many purposes: • crypto functions including QKD • cision sensor networks • quantum computers • um Internet. • stance using quantum

Strong in networked settings. Hard to build.

Entanglement (量子もつれ)



Even if they are far apart!





"Measure" this one and find its value...

and you'll also know what this one is



Che New York Eimes-

SundayReview

Is Quantum Entanglement Real?

NOV. 14, 2014



ON THE EINSTEIN PODOLSKY ROSEN PARADOX*

J. S. BELL[†]

Department of Physics, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

(Received 4 November 1964)

I. Introduction

THE paradox of Einstein, Podolsky and Rosen [1] was advanced as an argument that quantum mechanics could not be a complete theory but should be supplemented by additional variables. These additional variables were to restore to the theory causality and locality [2]. In this note that idea will be formulated mathematically and shown to be incompatible with the statistical predictions of quantum mechanics. It is the requirement of locality, or more precisely that the result of a measurement on one system be unaffected by operations on a distant system with which it has interacted in the past, that creates the essential difficulty. There have been attempts [3] to show that even without such a separability or locality requirement no "hidden variable" interpretation of quantum mechanics is possible. These attempts have been examined elsewhere [4] and found wanting. Moreover, a hidden variable interpretation of elementary quantum theory [5] has been explicitly constructed. That particular interpretation has indeed a grossly non-local structure. This is characteristic, according to the result to be proved here, of any such theory which reproduces exactly the quantum mechanical predictions.

The job of a quantum repeater network is...

- ...to make end-to-end entanglement (modulo some arguments about temporal matters).
- And, entanglement is a consumable resource, so we have to make lots of it.

So the job of a quantum repeater is...

- 1) to make base-level entanglement over a physical link
- 2) to couple entangled links along an end-to-end path to meet the applications' needs
- 3) to monitor and manage errors (purification, QEC, or both)
- 4) to participate in the management of the network

And the job of a Quantum Internet is...

To do all of this:

- across heterogeneous networks (both physically and logically)
- in an environment with *minimal trust* between networks
 - no knowledge of the internals of autonomous networks
 - possible presence of malicious nodes



Good for & not good for

Quantum networks are about *new capabilities,* not some path to huge communication bandwidth. Reduced # of communication rounds (asymptotically, theoretically), higher precision, scalability of distributed quantum systems, etc.



MISUNDERSTANDINGS OF BELL'S THEOREM HAPPEN SO FAST THAT THEY VIOLATE LOCALITY.

No faster-than-light communication!

You can each get shared, secret random numbers upon *measuring* shared, entangled states, but that doesn't give you the ability to send messages. Why quantum networks? Introduction to applications Reduce dependency on public key, one-way

unctions, computational

complexity

Byzantine agreement

Leader election

Distributed crypto functions

Quantum secret sharing **Blind quantum** computation Basic client-server QC Distributed System-area computation networks

Quantum key distribution (QKD)

Interferometry

Clocks

Other reference frame uses

Sensors

Low bandwidth

Distributed crypto functions

High to very high bandwidth

Distribu computau

High to very high bandwidth



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IPsec with QKD: Quantum-protected campus-to-campus connection



IPsec with QKD











Distributed QC: blind computing

Maybea $\sim 10^{10}$ Bell pairs/sec for FT Shor?

A platform for secure distributed quantum computation, not an "application" per se.

Assumes MBQC as programming model.





 $\sim 10^{11}$ Bell pairs/sec

DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.109.070503



communication complexity

Exponential Separation of Quantum and Classical Communication Complexity

Ran Raz ranraz@wisdom.weizmann.ac.il, Department of Applied Mathematics, Weizmann Institute, Rehovot 76100, ISRAEL

Exponential separation for one-way quantum communication complexity, with applications to cryptography

Dmitry Gavinsky^{*} IQC, University of Waterloo Julia Kempe[†] School of Computer Science Tel Aviv University

Iordanis Kerenidis[†] CNRS & LRI Facul Univ. de Paris-Sud, Orsay We

Ran Raz[‡] Faculty of Mathematics Weizmann Institute Ronald de Wolf[§] CWI Amsterdam

arXiv.org > quant-ph > arXiv:quant-ph/0101005

Quantum Physics

Quantum Communication Complexity (A Survey)

Gilles Brassard

(Submitted on 1 Jan 2001)

arXiv.org > quant-ph > arXiv:1605.07372

Quantum Physics

Exponential Communication Complexity Advantage from Quantum Superposition of the Direction of Communication

Philippe Allard Guérin, Adrien Feix, Mateus Araújo, Časlav Brukner

(Submitted on 24 May 2016 (v1), last revised 9 Sep 2016 (this version, v2))

For some abstract tasks, theoretically can be exponentially fewer rounds of communication. I don't know much about this, but see Raz STOC 1999; arXiv:quant-ph/0101005; arXiv:quant-ph/0611209; arXiv:1605.07372; and a few others.

Technical demands

Some of these require only the ability to measure an inbound photon at the end nodes, others require ability to entangle your local memory at the fewqubit level. True distributed computing (e.g. blind) requires lots of high-fidelity memory.





FIG. 2: Timing for application classes over a single forward-propagating link.

Wehner, Elkouss, Hanson, Science, 2018

rdv et al., arXiv:1701.04586

Basic terminology & concepts

Seven Key Concepts for Quantum Computing

- Superposition
- Interference
- Entanglement
- Unitary (reversible) operation
- Measurement
- No-cloning theorem
- Decoherence

(Abbreviated) Glossary

- **Quantum amplitude**: represented by a complex number, the "amount" of the quantum wave function in a particular state
- **Pure state:** A quantum state whose preparation process did *exactly* what it was supposed to (no noise, no errors, no decay). n.b.: might be in superposition, might be entangled. Fidelity = 1.0.
- **Mixed state:** A quantum state with noise, errors, decay. Fidelity < 1.0.
- Entangled state: A multi-qubit quantum state whose qubits can't be described independently, only in the context of all the qubits.
- **Bell pair:** A canonical two-qubit entangled state. There are four types, can be interconverted, and also can be used as a *basis set* for describing two-qubit states.

Superposition: Quanta Behaving Like Waves



Interference / 干涉 / การทับซ้อน



Basic mathematical notation (see extensive appendix for more)

Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



State Vector for Two & Three Qubits



There are 2ⁿ elements in the state vector for *n* qubits. Each amplitude is a complex number.

Prob. of measuring *i* is $|\alpha_i|^2$

Normalization requires

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2^{n}-1} |\alpha_{i}|^{2} = 1$$

 $lpha_{110}$

- No-cloning theorem In general, independent (unentangled) copy of a quantum state cannot be made.
- This theorem is important for cryptographic communication with quantum computation. $try to copy |\psi\rangle and |\phi\rangle to |s\rangle$:

U is virtual gate which copy the input first qubit to the second

- $egin{aligned} U(|\psi
 angle\otimes|s
 angle) &= |\psi
 angle\otimes|\psi
 angle\ U(|\phi
 angle\otimes|s
 angle) &= |\phi
 angle\otimes|\phi
 angle \end{aligned}$
- $egin{aligned} & (\langle s | \otimes \langle \phi |) U^{-1} U(|\psi
 angle \otimes |s
 angle) = (\langle \phi | \otimes \langle \phi |) \otimes (|\psi
 angle \otimes |\psi
 angle) \ & \langle \phi | \psi
 angle = \langle \phi | \psi
 angle^2 \end{aligned}$
 - $\langle \phi | \psi
 angle = 0, 1$

Then, $|\psi\rangle$ is same or orthogonal.

Basics of entanglement: Bell pairs & nonlocality
Nonlocality - the arguments



Einstein, Podolsky, and Rosen asked: is quantum mechanics complete? Before we measure a system, does it have a definite state?

"If, without in any way disturbing a system, we can predict with certainty (i.e., with probability equal to unity) the value of a physical quantity, then there exists an element of physical reality corresponding to this physical quantity."

The EPR argument

Preconditions of the argument:

1. Locality: no immediate signaling.

2. Each measurement generates a single result.

QM is either nonlocal OR incomplete.

Bell wondered if adding in hidden variables really saves QM from being nonlocal.

Bell derived an inequality that any local hidden variable theory must satisfy.

He then showed that there are some quantum states that can violate this inequality.

So quantum mechanics cannot be described with a local hidden variables theory.

Experimentally, Bell inequality violations have been measured convincingly in many settings.

Since 2015: In three experiments, in ways that close all loopholes that (most) people take seriously...

Note: There are many Bell-type inequalities. Most famous: Clauser-Horne-Shimony-Holt (CHSH).

The Bell states

$$\begin{split} |\Phi^+\rangle &= \frac{|0_A 0_B\rangle + |1_A 1_B\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad |\Psi^+\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ |\Phi^-\rangle &= \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad |\Psi^-\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{split}$$

Bell states are entangled states.

That is, they can't be written as separable states ("product states").

(These four can also be used as a *basis set* to rewrite any two-qubit state.)

Bell states are a resource for quantum communication and computation.



Bell pairs can be used to generate secret keys.

If two people share a Bell pair, one can send a quantum state to the other. Can we use quantum nonlocality to send a signal faster than light?

NO - it is a mathematical consequence of quantum mechanics that even if it is nonlocal, quantum systems cannot signal each other.

Consequences for quantum computing

INFORMATION CANNOT TRAVEL FASTER THAN THE SPEED OF LIGHT (probably)

Entangled states can appear to be signaling each other, but really they cannot.

Always look for the classical communication channel...

Teleportation

•Yet another concept discovered by Charles Bennett & co.

Moves a quantum state from one location to PHYSICAL REVIEW LETTERS

VOLUME 70

29 MARCH 1993

NUMBER 13

Teleporting an Unknown Quantum State via Dual Classical and Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen Channels

Charles H. Bennett,⁽¹⁾ Gilles Brassard,⁽²⁾ Claude Crépeau,^{(2),(3)} Richard Jozsa,⁽²⁾ Asher Peres,⁽⁴⁾ and William K. Wootters⁽⁵⁾ ⁽¹⁾ IBM Research Division, T.J. Watson Research Center, Yorktown Heights, New York 10598 ⁽²⁾ Département IRO, Université de Montréal, C.P. 6128, Succursale "A", Montréal, Québec, Canada H3C 3J7 ⁽³⁾ Laboratoire d'Informatique de l'École Normale Supérieure, 45 rue d'Ulm, 75230 Paris CEDEX 05, France^(a) ⁽⁴⁾ Department of Physics, Technion–Israel Institute of Technology, 32000 Haifa, Israel ⁽⁵⁾ Department of Physics, Williams College, Williamstown, Massachusetts 01267 (Received 2 December 1992)



•Yet another concept discovered by Charles Bennett & co.

 Moves a quantum state from one location to another, not the physical carrier of the qubit. Alice





So, how do we do this?

The Bell Basis

 $\sqrt{2}$

$$\begin{split} |\Phi^{+}\rangle &= \frac{|00\rangle + |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} : X_{A}X_{B}, Z_{A}Z_{B} \\ |\Phi^{-}\rangle &= \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} : -X_{A}X_{B}, Z_{A}Z_{B} & \text{(won't be discussed in this tutorial; unlikely to come up, but if they do, ask us later)} \\ |\Psi^{+}\rangle &= \frac{|01\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} : XX, -ZZ & \text{ask us later)} \end{split}$$

Our Data Qubit

Single-qubit state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ $|\alpha^2| + |\beta^2| = 1$

Measure 0 w/ prob. $|\alpha|^2$

One-qubit operation $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$X = \left(\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

What happens to our state after applying those ops:

$$egin{aligned} Z|\psi
angle &=lpha|0
angle -eta|1
angle \ X|\psi
angle &=eta|0
angle +lpha|1
angle \ ZX|\psi
angle &=eta|0
angle -lpha|1
angle \end{aligned}$$

Teleportation Operations

Bell pair creation

Bell State Measurement



 $|\Phi^{+}\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle_{A}|0\rangle_{B} + |1\rangle_{A}|1\rangle_{B}}{\sqrt{2} \ Z?} \qquad X?$

Bob

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

Alice

Implementation

How can I make my own Bell pair?

Need: two-level quantum systems in which to encode information.

Wish list:

- easy to entangle with each other
- easy to measure (in different bases)
- both of those processes: fast & accurate
- minimal information loss (through interaction with the environment)
- transportable
- identical

Spoiler alert: there's no perfect TLS.

...so the best choice depends on the application.

Some favorites:

- photons
 - we have: lasers, optical fibers, wave plates & detectors...
 - how do you get just one? what if you want it to stay in one place?
- atoms
 - controlled interactions with lasers & microwaves; storage & processing
 - require sophisticated laboratories; not going anywhere
- artificial atoms
 - properties can be tailored; scalable fabrication
 - are they really identical? are there only two levels?
 - also not going anywhere...

Quantum networks: the vision



- Quantum nodes at which information is stored and processed.
 - » atoms
- Quantum channels for information transport.
 - » photons

Photons

encode 0 and 1 in...

- polarization
- time bin
- number
- path



J. L. O'Brien, Science 318, 1567 (2007)

Atoms

identify two electronic states!

- how long do they live?
- are they addressable with lasers? microwaves?
- are they sensitive to environmental fluctuations?



Generating remote entanglement, probabilistically



- Each atom emits a photon (or not).
- The atom's state depends on whether or not it emitted a photon (a), or the photon polarization (b).
- The detectors can't tell which atom the photon(s) came from.
- Detection projects the atoms into an entangled state.

Monroe group, University of Maryland / JQI

- B. B. Blinov, Nature **428**, 153 (2004)
- D. L. Moehring et al., *Nature* **449**, 68 (2007)
- D. Hucul, Nat. Phys. 11, 37 (2015)



http://iontrap.umd.edu/research/ion-photon-quantum-networks/

Monroe group, University of Maryland / JQI

B. B. Blinov, Nature 428, 153 (2004)

D. L. Moehring et al., Nature 449, 68 (2007)

D. Hucul, Nat. Phys. 11, 37 (2015)



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B. B. Blinov, Nature **428**, 153 (2004)

D. L. Moehring et al., *Nature* **449**, 68 (2007)

D. Hucul, Nat. Phys. 11, 37 (2015)



Monroe group, University of Maryland / JQI

B. B. Blinov, Nature **428**, 153 (2004)

D. L. Moehring et al., *Nature* **449**, 68 (2007)

D. Hucul, Nat. Phys. 11, 37 (2015)







state fidelity $F \equiv |\langle \psi_{\text{ideal}} | \psi_{\text{exp}} \rangle|^2$

Monroe group, University of Maryland / JQI B. B. Blinov, *Nature* **428**, 153 (2004) D. L. Moehring et al., *Nature* **449**, 68 (2007) D. Hucul, *Nat. Phys.* **11**, 37 (2015)

here: fidelity = 78(3)% (classical bound: 50%)

entanglement every 0.22 s



Remote entanglement has been shown in a handful of experimental systems

- atomic ensembles
 - C. W. Chou et al., Nature 438, 828 (2005)
- neutral atoms

J. Hofmann et al., Science 337, 72 (2012)

NV centers

H. Bernien et al., Nature 497, 86 (2013)

• superconducting qubits A. Narla et al., Phys. Rev. X 6, 031036 (2016)

• quantum dots

A. Delteil et al., Nat. Phys. 12, 218 (2016)

state of the art: two-node experiments



Repeaters: rationale, concepts & generations

So the job of a quantum repeater is...

- 1) to make base-level entanglement over a link
- 2) to couple entangled links along an end-to-end path to meet the applications' needs
- 3) to monitor and manage errors (purification, QEC, or both)
- 4) to participate in the management of the network

Conceptual Hardware



Figure 10.1: Generic view of the hardware of a line of repeaters. Qubit memories are represented by the atom symbol, regardless of physical device type.

(There are also all-optical approaches, with no static buffer memory.)

Store-and-Forward?



Direct Transmission Pretty Clearly Doesn't Work...



Timing Trapezoids


So Why Doesn't Hop-by-Hop Teleportation Work?





Five Repeater Schemes

- 1G: Purify and swap over ACKed links: truly a distributed computation (Dur & Briegel, Lukin, others; since 1998)
- 2G: Error Correction over ACKed links
 - CSS quantum error correction & entanglement swapping (Jiang (Lukin) et al., 2009)
 - Surface code quantum error correction, sort of but not quite swap (Fowler *et al.*, 2010)
- 3G: Error Correction over no-ACK-needed links: store-and-forward
 - Quasi-asynchronous (Munro *et al.*, 2010)
 - Memoryless (Munro *et al.*, 2012)

Quantum Repeater Operation



Bell State Measurement

Called *entanglement swapping*. Fidelity declines; you must *purify* afterwards

Nested Entanglement Swapping

Station 0 Station 1 Station 2 Station 3 Station 4 level 1 • level 2 0 freed qubits

Dur & Briegel, many others

Purification: Error Detection



Repeater Protocol Stack



Van Meter *et al.*, IEEE/ACM Trans. on Networking, Jun. 2009, quant-ph:0705.4128

Four-Hop Protocol Interactions



2G & 3G are still far away

- Even 1G is really hard
 - Entanglement success probability is low, many round trips in protocols, few qubits per node, memory lifetimes are still problematic
 - Getting & keeping a Bell pair to the left at the same time as Bell pair to the right to enable swapping
 - Getting & keeping two Bell pairs for purification
 - Gate errors in both purification and swapping
- 2G: Error Correction over ACKed links
 - Will blow up resource requirements at least 7x, before the probabilistic problems above
 - Gate error rates too high for QEC to work yet
- 3G: Error Correction over no-ACK-needed links (store-and-forward)
 - Prob. 80-93% or better (depending on code) of correctly receiving each individual photon

What would the simplest 1G repeater look like?

H.-J. Briegel, W. Dür, J. I. Cirac, and P. Zoller, Phys. Rev. Lett. 81, 5932 (1998)

- 1. Entangle one pair of atoms.
- 2. Entangle a second pair of atoms.
- 3. A Bell measurement on the two central atoms entangles the two outermost atoms.

This approach is not scalable because errors accumulate.



What would the simplest 1G repeater look like?

H.-J. Briegel, W. Dür, J. I. Cirac, and P. Zoller, Phys. Rev. Lett. 81, 5932 (1998)

Entanglement purification is the key to scalability.

Multiple copies of entangled pairs are reduced to fewer copies with higher fidelity. Requirements: gate operations between local qubits & readout of one qubit.

Quantum repeater = entanglement swapping + purification

Note that we have to wait for classical information to travel from A to B.



No one has built a quantum repeater yet.

The simplest version:

- 1. Eight qubits, three nodes
- 2. Gate operations between qubits for Bell-state measurements and purification.

Closest experiment: entanglement purification with four qubits (two NV centers, two nuclear spins).

N. Kalb et al., Science **356**, 928 (2017)



State of research

Some networking results from rdv's group









rdv et al., Trans. Networking, 2009

Some networking results from rdv's group

Internetworking



Nagayama et al., Phys. Rev. A 2016

Network Coding

Qubit Step 1 Step 2 Step 3 Nodes 13 13 14 14 14 10 12 10 12 14 14 10 12 14 14 14 14 10 12 14 14 14 14 10 12 14 14 14 14 10 12 14 14 14 14

Matsuo et al., Phys. Rev. A 2018

Hijacking of a Repeater



Stephanie's group

Quantum internet: A Vision for the road ahead (<u>https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aam9288</u>): This was presented already in Bangkok. This paper defines stages of quantum networks and what applications can be realized on these.

A Link Layer Protocol for Quantum Networks (will be on arXiv tomorrow!): Presents a link layer protocol which provides the defines service in <u>https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/draft-dahlberg-ll-quantum/</u> together with simulations of performance metrics of a complete implementation of the protocol using a discrete-event simulator.

Parameter regimes for a single sequential quantum repeater (<u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1705.00043</u>): Assesses the performance of single sequential quantum repeaters using realistic hardware parameters.

Fully device-independent conference key agreement (<u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1708.00798</u>): Presents security proof for fully device-independent conference key, which task is to distribute a secret key among N parties.

Anonymous transmission in a noisy quantum network using the W state (<u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1806.10973</u>): Shows how one can perform anonymous transmission using a W state, which in many regimes can tolerate more noise than the more common approach of using a GHZ state.

SimulaQron - A simulator for developing quantum internet software (<u>https://arxiv.org/abs/1712.08032</u>): Presenting SimulaQron, a simulator intended to be used for development of software for quantum networks.

Final thoughts: References, learning more & getting involved

Good Repeater References

- Dur & Briegel's originals, 1990s onwards
- Kimble's "Quantum Internet" in Nature, 2008
- Rodney Van Meter, *Quantum Networking*, Wiley-iSTE 2014
- Takeoka, Guha, Wilde, Nature Communications, 2014 on when repeaters are more effective than simple transmission
- Muralidharan et al., Scientific Reports, 2016 defines 1G, 2G, 3G
- Pirandola, Nature Communications, 2017 extending TGW analysis
- Wehner, Elkouss, Hanson, *Science*, 2018 roadmap





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2.3.1 What is a quantum internet?

The Quantum Internet and Quantum Computers: How Will They Change the World?

Home > Courses > The Quantum Internet and Quantum Computers: How Will They Change the World? > Course materials > Lectures > 2.3.1 W internet?

The Quantum Internet and Quantum Computers: How Will They Change the World?

2.3.1 What is a quantum internet?

Course subject(s)

INTERNET

#MODULE 2: DIVING DEEPER IN THE CONCEPTS OF QUANTUM COMPUTING AND QUANTUM

Course Home

Just like a classical internet a quantum internet consists of computers attached to an internet. In the



Home > All Subjects > Computer Science > Quantum Information Science I, Part 1



Quantum Information Science I, Part 1

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Peter Shor Morss Professor of Applied Mathematics and Chair of the Applied Mathematics Committee Massachusetts Institute of Technology



https://www.edx.org/course/quantum-information-science-i



We have created a Research Group (RG) on Quantum Internet inside the Internet Research Task Force (IRTF). Co-chairs are Van Meter (Keio) and Stephanie Wehner (TU Delft). https://www.irtf.org/mailman/listinfo/qir

236 list members (as of 2019/3/18)

Q











Workshop for Quantum Repeaters and Networks

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Workshop for Quantum Repeaters and Networks

n.b.: Dates still tentative

Join us in Japan, Sept. 5-6, 2019

Beginning with dinner on the 4th, ending at breakfast on the 7th. More details coming soon. Note that dates are still tentative.

9998 1001 Done! Any questions you haven't asked yet? an

Appendices

- Vectors, Matrices, Dirac's bra-ket notation, and Complex Numbers
- Quantum States
- Single-Qubit Gates
- Two-Qubit Gates
- Density Matrix
- Teleportation by the numbers

Vectors, Matrices, Dirac's bra-ket notation, and some complex numbers

Vectors

A vector has a direction and a distance. It can be described via a set of coordinates, assuming the vector starts at the origin.



Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



Dirac's Bra-ket Notation



Vector Addition

$$\begin{split} |\psi\rangle &= \left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array} \right] \\ |\psi\rangle + |\phi\rangle &= \left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha + \gamma \\ \beta + \delta \end{array} \right] \\ |\phi\rangle &= \left[\begin{array}{c} \gamma \\ \delta \end{array} \right] \end{split}$$

Vector Inner Product

$$\begin{split} |\psi\rangle &= \left[\begin{array}{c} \alpha \\ \beta \end{array} \right] & & \\ \langle \phi |\psi\rangle &= \alpha \gamma + \beta \delta \\ \langle \phi | = \left[\begin{array}{c} \gamma & \delta \end{array} \right] & & \\ \end{split}$$

Matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} & a_{0,2} & a_{0,3} \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} \\ a_{2,0} & a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} \\ a_{3,0} & a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} & b_{0,2} & b_{0,3} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} & b_{1,2} & b_{1,3} \\ b_{2,0} & b_{2,1} & b_{2,2} & b_{2,3} \\ b_{3,0} & b_{3,1} & b_{3,2} & b_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

n.b.: It's more standard to start index at 1, but 0 will be more convenient here.

Matrix Addition

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0} + b_{0,0} & a_{0,1} + b_{0,1} & a_{0,2} + b_{0,2} & a_{0,3} + b_{0,3} \\ a_{1,0} + b_{1,0} & a_{1,1} + b_{1,1} & a_{1,2} + b_{1,2} & a_{1,3} + b_{1,3} \\ a_{2,0} + b_{2,0} & a_{2,1} + b_{2,1} & a_{2,2} + b_{2,2} & a_{2,3} + b_{2,3} \\ a_{3,0} + b_{3,0} & a_{3,1} + b_{3,1} & a_{3,2} + b_{3,2} & a_{3,3} + b_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplying a vector by a matrix

$$A|\psi
angle = \left[egin{array}{cc} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} \ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} \end{array}
ight] \left[egin{array}{cc} lpha \ eta \end{array}
ight]$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} a_{0,0}\alpha + a_{0,1}\beta \\ a_{1,0}\alpha + a_{1,1}\beta \end{bmatrix}$$
Complex numbers Quantum physics contains complex numbers so that Quantum information is consist of complex numbers.

$$i = \sqrt{-1}$$

$$a + bi$$

$$\sqrt{-1}$$
The second sec





Do Moivro'e formula

_

Earlier presentation wasn't quite complete!

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} & \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \alpha \alpha^* + \beta \beta^* \\ &= a^2 + b^2 + c^2 + d^2 \\ \langle \psi | &= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha^* & \beta^* \end{bmatrix} \\ &\alpha &= a + ib \\ &\alpha^* &= a - ib \\ &\beta &= c + id \end{aligned}$$

$$B^* = c - id$$

Vector Outer Product

$|\psi\rangle\!\langle\phi| = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha\gamma^* & \alpha\delta^* \\ \beta\gamma^* & \beta\delta^* \end{bmatrix}$

Same thing as tensor! ...what's a tensor?

Tensor Product

$$A = \left(\begin{array}{cc} a_{0,0} & a_{0,1} \\ a_{1,0} & a_{1,1} \end{array}\right) \qquad B = \left(\begin{array}{cc} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{array}\right)$$

$$A \otimes B = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} a_{0,0} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \\ b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{array}\right) & a_{0,1} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \\ b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{array}\right) & a_{1,1} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} b_{0,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{0,1} \\ b_{1,0} & b_{1,1} \end{array}\right) \right)$$

Tensor Product

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad I \otimes H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad H \otimes I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $H \otimes H = ?$

Quantum States

To write a quantum state we use a **ket vector**:



This is "the state of system A".

To write a quantum state we use a **ket vector**:



To write a quantum state we use a **ket vector**:



To write a quantum state we use a **ket vector**:



To write a quantum state we use a **ket vector**:



Ket vectors tell us the probability of measuring the state.

Suppose we just have two outcomes: 0 and 1.

A ket vector for the system could be written

$$| \bigcirc \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} | 0 \rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} | 1 \rangle = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{array} \right)$$

What does this mean?

Bloch Sphere



Bloch Sphere



Phase, then, is position about the vertical axis on the Bloch sphere. You can't touch it, see it, smell it, taste it, or hear it.

It doesn't "mean" anything.

...but you can calculate using it.

The Z Gate

$$Z = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ 0 & -1 \end{array}\right)$$

Question: What does this do to this state? $|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$

Question: What does this do to any observation or measurement we make?

Multiple Qubits: Hilbert Space is a Very Big Place

n qubits can be in 2^n possible states: 000..00, 000..01, 000..10, ..., 111...10, 111..11

In fact, it can be in a superposition of all of those states at once:

$$|\psi
angle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^n} lpha_i |i
angle$$

State Vector for Two & Three Qubits

 $|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{00} \\ \alpha_{01} \\ \alpha_{10} \\ \alpha_{11} \end{pmatrix} \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \text{amplitude of } 00 \\ \leftarrow \text{amplitude of } 01 \\ \leftarrow \text{amplitude of } 10 \\ \leftarrow \text{amplitude of } 11 \end{array}$

Question: How many elements are there in an *n*-qubit state vector?

$$\ket{\psi} = \left(egin{array}{c} lpha_{000} \ lpha_{001} \ lpha_{010} \ lpha_{011} \ lpha_{100} \ lpha_{110} \ lpha_{111} \end{array}
ight)$$

Hilbert Space

Each element of the state vector is a *basis vector*. The total set is *Hilbert space*, and it grows exponentially with the number of qubits!

n.b.: Each individual qubit has two states, or two basis vectors, but they are *multiplicative* when combined -adding a qubit *adds dimensions* to the total size of our space!

```
\left( egin{array}{c} lpha_{000} & \ lpha_{001} & \ lpha_{010} & \ lpha_{011} & \ lpha_{100} & \ lpha_{101} & \ lpha_{110} & \ lpha_{111} & \ lpha_{111} & \ 
ight)
```

Bell States: Our First Important Multi-Qubit States

$$\begin{split} |\Phi^+\rangle &= \frac{|0_A 0_B\rangle + |1_A 1_B\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad |\Psi^+\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle + |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \\ |\Phi^-\rangle &= \frac{|00\rangle - |11\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad |\Psi^-\rangle = \frac{|01\rangle - |10\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{split}$$

Critical for quantum communication

Foundation for tests of entanglement (CHSH inequality, a little later)

Quantum gates

- All quantum gates are unitary.
- What's unitary?
 - said simply, reversible rotation on Hilbert space



Simple single-qubit gates

X gate, Z gate

- X gate
 - rotation around X axis $X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
- Z gate
 - rotation around Z axis $Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$





$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

rotation around Y axis

 $i \times X \times Z = ?$



Global phase

Global phase does not affect quantum state.

$$\begin{split} |\phi\rangle &= e^{i\theta}(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle) \\ |e^{i\theta}a|^2 &= |a|^2 & (\stackrel{=}{\Rightarrow} (e^{i\theta}a|0) a ti \stackrel{i\theta}{\otimes} h h o se norm is 1 around \\ e^{i\theta} & origin, \\ |e^{i\theta}b|^2 &= |b|^2 & it does not change the distance from the \\ & origin) \end{split}$$

Y gate

$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

rotation around Y axis

 $i \times X \times Z = ?$



• rotation around Y axis
$$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$i \times X \times Z = i \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= i \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Y gate

• rotation around Y axis $Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

• can be created by multiplying X and Z

$$i \times X \times Z = i \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= i \times \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pauli gates

 X, Y, Z are called the Pauli matrices (Pauli gates), which are the most basic gates.

I gate

- I gate
 - Identity gate, which does not change quantum state

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



H gate

• H gate exchanges the relationship between X axis and Z axis $H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$H \times |0\rangle =?$$
$$H \times |1\rangle =?$$
$$H \times \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} =?$$
$$H \times \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} =?$$



H gate

H gate exchanges the relationship between X axis and Z axis $H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $H \times |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ 0) $H \times |1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$ $H \times \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = |0\rangle$ |0
angle+|1
angle $H \times \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = |1\rangle$

 $|1\rangle$

Simple two-qubits gates

Controlled NOT (CNOT) • In fact, it is more correct to call controlled

- If the first qubit is 1, the second qubit gets
 X
 - the first qubit is control qubit
 - the second is target qubit $CNOT = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
Controlled NOT (CNOT)

two qubit state



$$CNOT \times \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ d \\ c \end{pmatrix}$$

Circuit notation







Density Matrix Representation

Pure vs. mixed states



When A is part of a larger superposition, we need to know the state of **both A and B** to fully know the state of A.

If we **do not have access** to the state of B, then we have **lost information about A**.

Pure vs. mixed states



If we **do not have access** to the state of B, then we have **lost information about A**.

- If we have **full information** about A then we say "A is in a **pure state**".
- If we **do not** have full information about A then "A is in a **mixed state**".
- Note: we can have full information about a superposition! $|+\rangle$ is still a "pure state".

Pure vs. mixed states



Pure states (full information) are written as state vectors, $|\Psi\rangle$.

How do we write mixed states, where we have lost some of the state information?



Density matrices let us deal with **uncertainty in the quantum state**.

This uncertainty comes about because the state we want is part of a larger superposition, which we do not have access to.

Density matrices record the **probability of measurement outcomes**.

Look again at the state

$$|AB\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B)$$

We can write the state of A using the **density** matrix ρ_A :

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$|AB\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle_A \otimes |1\rangle_B + |1\rangle_A \otimes |0\rangle_B)$$

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Probability of
measuring "0"
Probability of
measuring "1"

So diagonal elements always add up to 1.

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

We find the probabilities of other measurements by **changing the basis**.

Let's find the probability of measuring "+" or "-" given this density matrix for the state.

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$
$$|-\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$
Let's find the probability of measuring "+" or "-"

given this density matrix for the state.



$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \qquad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rho_A^{Hadamard} = H \rho_A H$$



$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rho_A^{Hadamard} = H \rho_A H$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So prob(0) = prob(1) = prob(+) = prob(-) = 0.5

We have seen: The density matrix gives **probabilities of measuring the basis states**.

We calculate the probabilities for different measurements by **transforming into the basis of that measurement**.

Now: how do we **calculate** a density matrix?

Now: how do we **calculate** a density matrix?

The elements in a density matrix represent "projection operators":

$$\begin{split} \rho &= \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle\langle 0| & |1\rangle\langle 0| \\ |0\rangle\langle 1| & |1\rangle\langle 1| \end{pmatrix} \\ \text{So} \\ \rho_A &= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle\langle 0| + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle\langle 1| \end{split}$$



$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle \langle 0| + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle \langle 1|$$

$$|0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}(1,0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1&0\\0&0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$|1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}(0,1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0&0\\0&1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} |0\rangle \langle 0| + \frac{1}{2} |1\rangle \langle 1|$$

$$|0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\0 \end{pmatrix}(1,0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1&0\\0&0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$|1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0\\1 \end{pmatrix}(0,1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0&0\\0&1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pure vs mixed states again

$$|0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

A **pure state** is represented as a density matrix by a **single** projection operator in some basis,

$$\rho = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$$

A **mixed state** is represented as a density matrix by a **sum** of projection operators:

Mixed:
$$ho = \sum_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|$$

 $\rho = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$

$$|0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pure:

Let's look at the state

Mixed:
$$ho = \sum_{i} |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$$

 $|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$
 $ho = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$



So is this the same thing? Still 50/50... $\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$|\Psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$
$$\rho = \frac{1}{2}\begin{pmatrix}1 & 1\\ 1 & 1\end{pmatrix}$$

This is just a classical random variable, *not* a superposition!

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \qquad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rho_A^{Hadamard} = H\rho_A H$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = |0\rangle\langle 0|$$

50/50 superposition state taken back to 0!

$$\rho_A = \frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \qquad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\rho_A^{Hadamard} = H \rho_A H$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So prob(0) = prob(1) = prob(+) = prob(-) = 0.5!

A system in a mixed state is represented by a **density matrix** rather than a **state vector**.

A pure state $|\Psi\rangle$ has a density matrix $|\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$ A mixed state is a sum of pure-state density matrices, $\rho = \sum_{i} |\psi_i\rangle\langle\psi_i|$

Still to answer: if we have a many-qubit pure state, how can we calculate the density matrices of the individual mixed qubit states?

For example: Experimental Results



Teleportation by the numbers

Teleportation By the Numbers (or Symbols)

$$\begin{split} |\psi\rangle_{D} &= \alpha |0\rangle_{D} + \beta |1\rangle_{D} \quad |\Phi^{+}\rangle_{AB} = \frac{|0\rangle_{A}|0\rangle_{B} + |1\rangle_{A}|1\rangle_{B}}{\sqrt{2}} \\ |\psi\rangle_{D} |\Phi^{+}\rangle_{AB} &= (\alpha |0\rangle_{D} + \beta |1\rangle_{D}) \otimes \frac{|0\rangle_{A}|0\rangle_{B} + |1\rangle_{A}|1\rangle_{B}}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} |\Phi^{+}\rangle_{DA} |\psi\rangle_{B} \qquad \text{Rewrite (just} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} |\Phi^{-}\rangle_{DA} Z |\psi\rangle_{B} \qquad \text{algebra!) treating} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} |\Psi^{+}\rangle_{DA} X |\psi\rangle_{B} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} |\Psi^{-}\rangle_{DA} Z X |\psi\rangle_{B} \qquad \text{and B as a solo} \\ &\text{qubit} \end{split}$$

Teleportation By the Numbers (or Symbols)



Question: How do we fix it up?