

$$\Phi: M_n \rightarrow M_m$$

$$\Phi(A) =$$

**Theorem** For every quantum operation on an open system  $\Phi : M_n \rightarrow M_m$  there exist  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $F_1, \dots, F_r \in M_{m,n}$  such that  $\sum_{j=1}^r F_j^\dagger F_j = I_n$  and

$$\Phi(A) = \sum_{j=1}^r F_j A F_j^\dagger \quad \text{for all } A \in M_n.$$

$m \times n$

$m \times m$

This is called the operator sum representation of the quantum operation. The matrices  $F_1, \dots, F_r$  are called the Kraus operators of the operations.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\Phi : M_n \rightarrow M_m$  is a quantum operation.

We may assume that  $\Phi(\rho)$  is the partial trace of

$$U(\sigma \otimes \rho)U^\dagger \in M_{nk} \quad \text{with } nk = mr.$$

Here  $U$  may depend on  $t$ . By purification, we may assume that  $\sigma = E_{11}$  so that

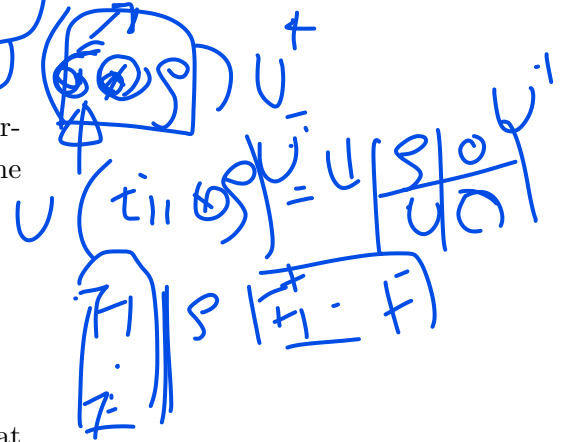
$$U(\sigma \otimes \rho)U^\dagger = U \begin{pmatrix} \rho & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} U^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 \\ \vdots \\ F_r \end{pmatrix} \rho (F_1^* | \dots | F_r^*)$$

with diagonal blocks  $F_1 \rho F_1^\dagger, \dots, F_r \rho F_r^\dagger$  so that

$$\text{tr}_1(U(\sigma \otimes \rho)U^\dagger) = \sum_{j=1}^r F_j \rho F_j^\dagger.$$

Here  $(F_1^\dagger, \dots, F_r^\dagger)$  are the first  $n$  rows of  $U^\dagger$ .

Thus,  $\sum_{j=1}^r F_j^\dagger F_j = I_n$ .

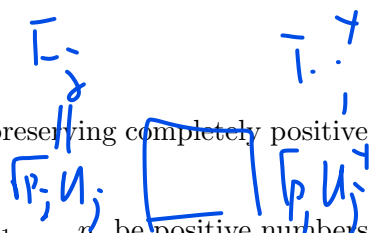


**Remark** quantum channels are trace preserving completely positive linear maps.

**Example** Let  $U_1, \dots, U_r \in U(n)$  and  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  be positive numbers summing up to 1. Then  $\Phi : M_n \rightarrow M_n$  defined by

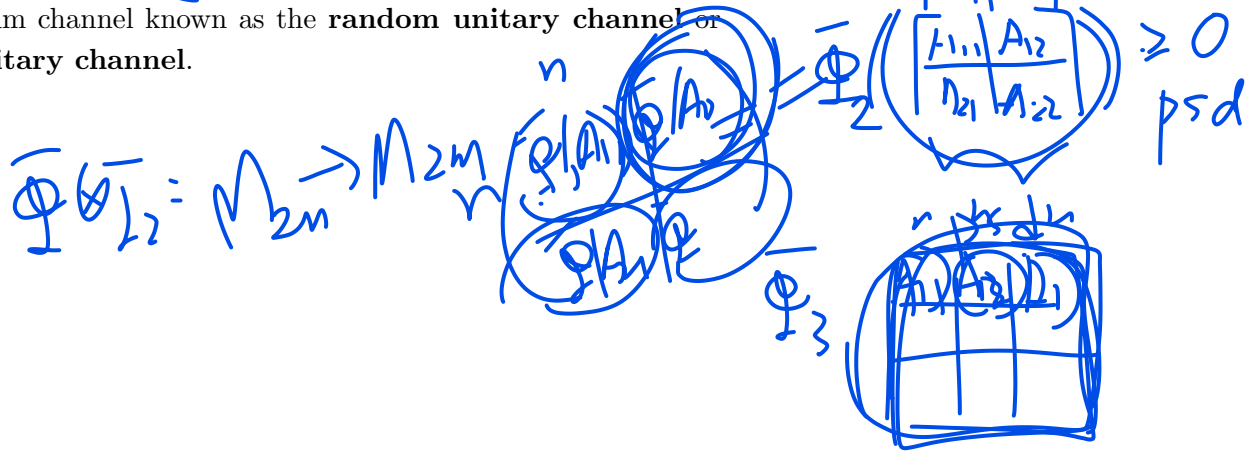
$$\Phi(A) = \sum_{j=1}^r p_j U_j A U_j^\dagger \quad \text{for all } A \in M_n$$

is a quantum channel known as the **random unitary channel** or **mixed unitary channel**.



$$\Phi(\rho) = \sigma$$

$$\rho \otimes \Phi(A) = B$$



## Quantum channels and Measurements

When a quantum state  $\rho$  is transmitted through a quantum channel, it will interact with the external environment. So, we may regard the transmission as a process of letting the quantum state going through a quantum operation of an open system, and assume the received state has the form

$$\hat{\rho} = \sum_{j=1}^r F_j \rho F_j^\dagger.$$

Here  $F_1, \dots, F_r$  are the Kraus operators caused by the influence of the environment on  $\rho$ . In this context,  $F_1, \dots, F_r$  are known as the **error operators**.

## Positive Operator-Valued Measure (POVM)

- Eigenprojections of  $A$ .

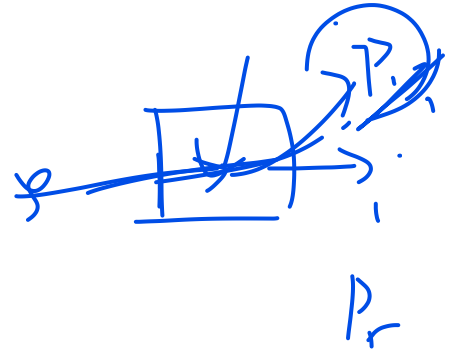
Quantum measurements can be viewed as quantum operations on open systems. As mentioned before a Hermitian matrix  $A = \sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j |\lambda_j\rangle\langle\lambda_j|$  is associated with an observable. If a state  $\rho \in D_n$  goes through the measurement process corresponding to  $A$ , the state  $\rho$  will “collapse” to one of the pure states  $|\lambda_j\rangle\langle\lambda_j|$  with a probability  $\text{tr}(A\rho)$ .

- Projective measurement.

In general, if  $A = \sum_{j=1}^s \lambda_j P_j$ , where  $P_j$  is the projection operator corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda_j$  for the distinct eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_s$  of  $A$ . In such a case, the **projective measurement** of  $\rho$  under the measurement associated with  $A$  is the quantum operation

$$\rho \mapsto \sum_j P_j \rho P_j, \quad F_j^\dagger = F_j$$

where  $p_j = \text{tr}(P_j \rho P_j) = \text{tr}(\rho P_j)$  and the set  $\{P_1, \dots, P_r\}$  satisfies the completeness relation  $\sum_j P_j P_j^\dagger = \sum_j P_j = I$ .

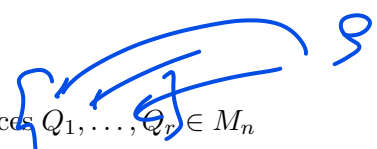


- POVM. for any positive semidefinite matrices  $Q_1, \dots, Q_r \in M_n$  such that  $Q_1 + \dots + Q_r = I_n$ , there are  $M_1, \dots, M_r \in M_n$  such that  $M_j^\dagger M_j = Q_j$ . The measurement operators are then associated with the quantum operation

$$\rho \mapsto \sum_{j=1}^r M_j \rho M_j^\dagger$$

so that  $\rho$  will change to the quantum state  $\frac{1}{p_j} M_j \rho M_j^\dagger$  with a probability  $p_j = \text{tr}(M_j \rho M_j^\dagger) = \text{tr}(\rho Q_j)$ . The set  $\{Q_1, \dots, Q_r\} = \{M_1^\dagger M_1, \dots, M_r^\dagger M_r\}$  is known as the **positive operator-valued measure (POVM)**.

**Example** Suppose Bob will be given a quantum state chosen from the linearly independent set of unit vectors  $\{|\psi_1\rangle, \dots, |\psi_m\rangle\}$ , which may not be orthonormal. He can construct the following POVM  $\{Q_1, \dots, Q_{m+1}\}$  such that he will know for sure that  $|\psi_j\rangle$  is sent to him if the measurement of the received state yields  $Q_j$  if  $Q_j = |\phi_j\rangle\langle\phi_j|/m$ , where  $\langle\phi_j|\phi_j\rangle = 1$  and  $\langle\phi_j|\psi_i\rangle = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$  for  $j = 1, \dots, m$  and  $Q_{m+1} = I - \sum_{j=1}^m Q_j$ . Evidently, a measurement of  $|\psi_j\rangle\langle\psi_j|$  will yield  $Q_j$  or  $Q_{m+1}$ .



$$p_1 + \dots + p_r = 1$$

$$\Phi: M_n \rightarrow M_m$$

$$\Phi(\rho) = \sum_j \begin{pmatrix} - & + \\ F_j & F_j^\dagger \\ - & + \end{pmatrix} \rho \begin{pmatrix} - & + \\ F_j & F_j^\dagger \\ - & + \end{pmatrix}$$

=  $\sigma$

## Fidelity

**Definition** Let  $\rho_1, \rho_2 \in D_n$ . Then the fidelity is defined by

$$F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \left\{ \text{tr} \left( \sqrt{\sqrt{\rho_1} \rho_2 \sqrt{\rho_1}} \right) \right\}^2$$

$$\sum \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle\langle\lambda_i| > \langle x, 1$$

Here,  $\sqrt{\rho_1}$  is the positive semi-definite square root of  $\rho_1$ , and  $\sqrt{\rho_1} \rho_2 \sqrt{\rho_1}$  is positive semi-definite so that we can take its positive semi-definite square root.

**Theorem** Let  $\rho_1, \rho_2 \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{H})$ . If  $\rho_1^{1/2} \rho_2^{1/2}$  has singular values  $s_1 \geq \dots \geq s_n$ , then

$$\rho_2^{1/2} = \sqrt{\rho_2}$$

$$F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = F(\rho_2, \rho_1) = \left[ \sum_{j=1}^n s_j \right]^2$$

and the following conditions hold.

- (1) For any unitary  $U$ ,  $F(U\rho_1 U^\dagger, U\rho_2 U^\dagger) = F(\rho_1, \rho_2)$ .
- (2) If  $\rho_1$  or  $\rho_2$  is a pure state, then  $F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \rho_2)$ .
- (3) We have

$$F(\rho_1, \rho_2) \in [0, 1].$$

The equality  $F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = 1$  holds if and only if  $\rho_1 = \rho_2$ . The equality  $F(\rho_1, \rho_2) = 0$  holds if and only if  $\text{tr}(\rho_1 \rho_2) = 0$ , equivalently,  $\sigma_1^r \sigma_2^s = 0$  for any positive numbers  $r, s$ .

$$\langle \rho_1, \rho_2 \rangle = \text{tr}(\rho_1 \rho_2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \int_1^r \int_2^s \rho_1 \rho_2 = 0$$

**Other numerical functions on a mixed states**

- The trace distance:  $\|\rho - \sigma\|_{\text{tr}}$  is the sum of the singular values of  $\rho - \sigma$ .  $0 \leq \|\rho - \sigma\|_{\text{tr}} \leq 2$

$$U \begin{bmatrix} \rho & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma \end{bmatrix} U^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} \rho & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma \end{bmatrix}$$

- The relative entropy of two quantum states  $\rho, \sigma \in D_n$  defined by

$$S(\rho \parallel \sigma) = -\text{tr} \rho \ln \sigma + \text{tr} \rho \ln \rho = \text{tr} \rho (\ln \rho - \ln \sigma)$$

is another measure of the difference between the two quantum states. If there is  $|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^n$  such that  $\sigma|v\rangle = 0$  and  $\langle v|\rho|v\rangle \neq 0$ , then  $S(\rho \parallel \sigma) = \infty$ .

$$S_1 = S_2 = 1$$

$$U \rho U^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} D_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The von Neumann entropy of a density matrix is defined as

$$S(\rho) = -\text{tr}(\rho \ln \rho)$$

where  $\ln$  is the natural log function.

$$U \sigma U^\dagger = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & D_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = -\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \ln \lambda_i$$

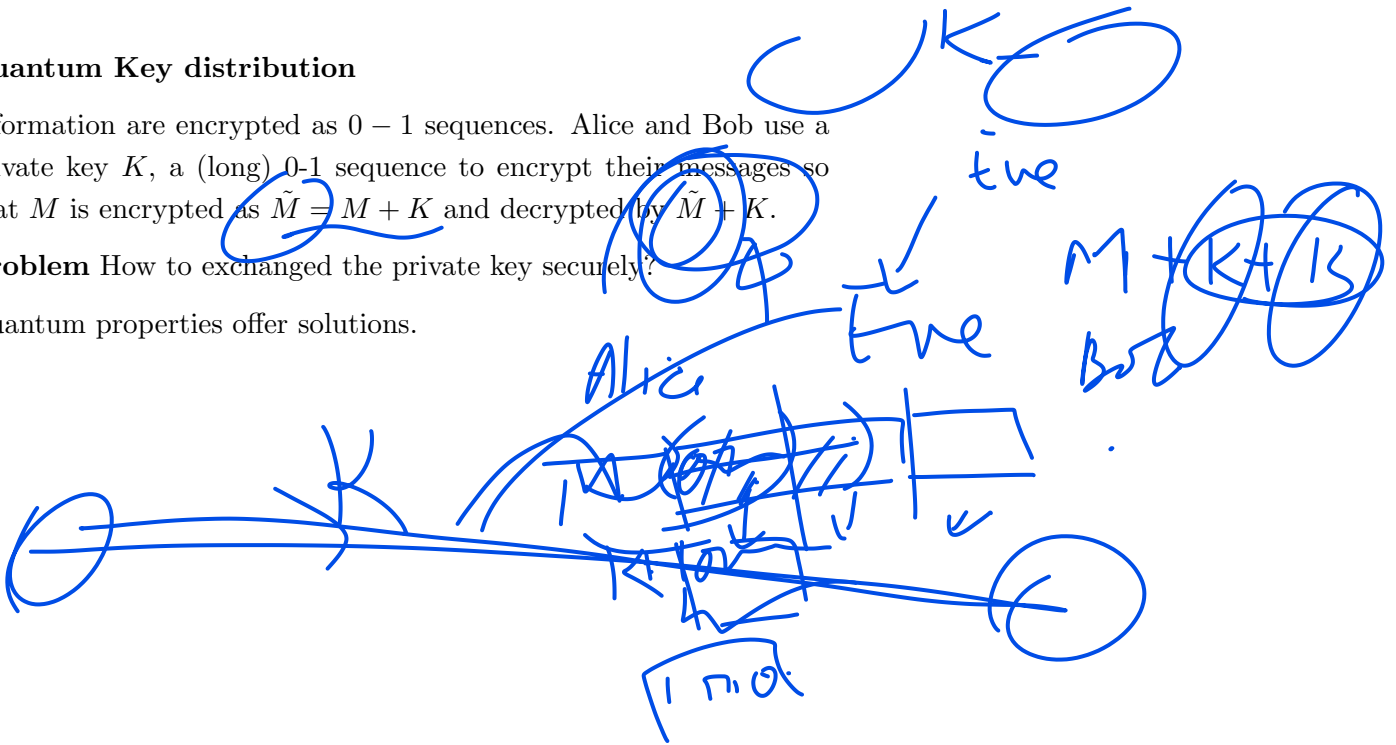
$$S = -\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i |\lambda_i\rangle \langle \lambda_i|$$

## Quantum Key distribution

Information are encrypted as 0 - 1 sequences. Alice and Bob use a private key  $K$ , a (long) 0-1 sequence to encrypt their messages so that  $M$  is encrypted as  $\hat{M} = M + K$  and decrypted by  $\hat{M} + K$ .

**Problem** How to exchanged the private key securely?

Quantum properties offer solutions.



**BB84** (Bennett and Brassard, 1984)

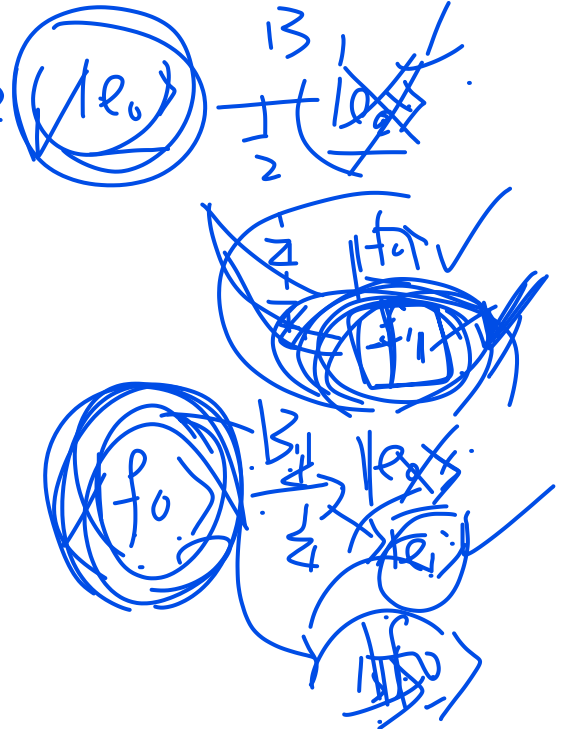
- Each of Alice and Bob use two bases for photon states:  $B_1 = \{|e_0\rangle, |e_1\rangle\}$ ,  $B_2 = \{|f_0\rangle, |f_1\rangle\}$ .
- Alice sends Bob  $4N$  photons, each prepared in one of the two bases randomly.
- Bob measures the received photons, each with one of the two bases randomly.
- Then they exchange notes and identify the photons that were sent and measured using the same bases. There should be roughly  $2N$  such photons.
- They will use  $N$  of them to detect whether there is an eavesdropper, Eve, tampering their information.
- If Eve does intercept, the best things for her to do is to use  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  bases to measure the intercepted qubit, and then sends the measured qubit to Bob, using the same basis she obtains the measured result.
- Now, consider two cases. If Alice and Bob both used  $B_1$ , they should get a perfect match of information. However, if Eve has applied  $B_1$  or  $B_2$ , about  $1/2$  of the times she would use  $B_2$ , and sent out the bit so that  $1/2$  of the times that Bob will get the measured results agree with the photon sent by Alice.
- The same holds if both Alice and Bob used  $B_2$ . So, roughly  $1/4$  of the  $N$ -bits would disagree. Alice and Bob would deduce that someone has intercepted the information if there is a huge discrepancy in the  $N$ -bits comparison, and should retry the process.





# B92 Protocol

- Alice sends  $8N$  photons to Bob using  $|e_0\rangle$  for 0 and  $|f_0\rangle$  for 1.
- Bob measures the received photons using  $B_1$  or  $B_2$  randomly.
- Suppose Alice sends  $|e_0\rangle$ . If Bob uses  $B_1$ , he will obtain  $|e_0\rangle$ ; if Bob uses  $B_2$ , he will obtain  $|f_0\rangle$  or  $|f_1\rangle$ . If he gets  $|f_1\rangle$ , he knows that Alice has sent  $|e_0\rangle$ .
- Suppose Alice send  $|f_0\rangle$ . If Bob uses  $B_2$ , he will obtain  $|f_0\rangle$ ; if he uses  $B_1$ , he will obtain  $|e_0\rangle$  or  $|e_1\rangle$ . If he gets  $|e_1\rangle$ , he knows that Alice has sent  $|f_0\rangle$ .
- There are roughly  $2N$  photons that Bob will know with certainty.
- He will use  $N$  of them to check the presence of Eve.
- If Eve indeed present,  $1/16$  of the bits will fails to match.



Alice	Eve	Bob	Probability	Bob Reports
$ e_0\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$1/2$	$ e_0\rangle$ 1/8
		$ f_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_0\rangle$ 1/16
		$ f_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_1\rangle$ 1/16 $ e_0\rangle$ ✓
		$ e_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_1\rangle$ 1/32
	$ f_0\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_0\rangle$ 1/32
		$ f_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_0\rangle$ 1/16
		$ f_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_1\rangle$ 1/32 $ e_0\rangle$
		$ e_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_1\rangle$ 1/16 $ f_0\rangle$ (wrong)
	$ f_1\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$1/2$	$ e_0\rangle$ 1/16
		$ f_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_0\rangle$ 1/32
		$ f_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_1\rangle$ 1/32 $ e_0\rangle$
		$ e_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_1\rangle$ 1/16 $ f_0\rangle$
	$ f_0\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$1/2$	$ e_0\rangle$ 1/16
		$ f_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_0\rangle$ 1/32
		$ f_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_1\rangle$ 1/32 $ e_0\rangle$ (wrong)
		$ e_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_1\rangle$ 1/16 $ f_0\rangle$
$ e_1\rangle \rightarrow  f_0\rangle$	$ e_0\rangle$	$1/2$	$ e_0\rangle$ 1/16	
	$ f_0\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_0\rangle$ 1/16	
	$ f_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ f_1\rangle$ 1/32 $ e_0\rangle$	
	$ e_1\rangle$	$1/4$	$ e_1\rangle$ 1/32 $ f_0\rangle$	



There are **E91** and **BBM92** protocols using entangled pairs and Bell-Inequalities to check the presence of Eve.