# Anyons, Braids and Topological Quantum Computing

Prakash Panangaden McGill University

Friday, July 10, 2009

Subject of Uses qubits: 2 dimensional quantum systems

Uses qubits: 2 dimensional quantum systemsexploits entanglement

Uses qubits: 2 dimensional quantum systems
exploits entanglement
requires implementing precise transformations on the qubits.

We need to be able to make exquisitely delicate manipulations of qubits

We need to be able to make exquisitely delicate manipulations of qubits

while preserving entanglement and

We need to be able to make exquisitely delicate manipulations of qubits
while preserving entanglement and
ensuring absence of decoherence.

We need to be able to make exquisitely delicate manipulations of qubits
while preserving entanglement and
ensuring absence of decoherence.
A tall order!

Sitaev's great idea: use topologically nontrivial configurations to represent qubits.

Situation Kitaev's great idea: use topologically nontrivial configurations to represent qubits.

The topology will keep the configuration from coming apart.

Sitaev's great idea: use topologically nontrivial configurations to represent qubits.

The topology will keep the configuration from coming apart.

Where do we find quantum braids or knots?

You have two boxes, A and B, and two particles that can each be in either box with equal probability. What is the probability that there is one particle in each box?

You have two boxes, A and B, and two particles that can each be in either box with equal probability. What is the probability that there is one particle in each box?

If you answered 1/2 you are correct classically, but this is not what happens in quantum mechanics!

You have two boxes, A and B, and two particles that can each be in either box with equal probability. What is the probability that there is one particle in each box?

If you answered 1/2 you are correct classically, but this is not what happens in quantum mechanics!

Depending on the type of particle the answer could be 1/3 (bosons) or 0 (fermions).

A symmetry of a system is a transformation that leaves the system looking unchanged.

A symmetry of a system is a transformation that leaves the system looking unchanged.

Symmetries can be composed, there is an identity, there is an inverse for every symmetry and composition is associative.

A symmetry of a system is a transformation that leaves the system looking unchanged.

- Symmetries can be composed, there is an identity, there is an inverse for every symmetry and composition is associative.
- Symmetries form a group.

If a quantum system has a symmetry group
 G, then applying elements of G to the state
 space H must cause some transformation of
 H.

If a quantum system has a symmetry group
 G, then applying elements of G to the state
 space H must cause some transformation of
 H.

In short, the state space carries a representation of the group.

If a quantum system has a symmetry group
 G, then applying elements of G to the state
 space H must cause some transformation of
 H.

In short, the state space carries a representation of the group.

If a quantum system has a symmetry group
 G, then applying elements of G to the state
 space H must cause some transformation of
 H.

In short, the state space carries a representation of the group.

### Identical particles

#### Identical particles

In QM particles are absolutely identical. You cannot label them and use arguments that mention "the first particle" or "the second particle."

#### Identical particles

- In QM particles are absolutely identical. You cannot label them and use arguments that mention "the first particle" or "the second particle."
- The permutation group is a symmetry of a quantum system: the system looks the same if you interchange particles of the same type.

The simplest two representations possible:

The simplest two representations possible:

the trivial representation: every permutation is mapped onto the identity element of GL(H),

The simplest two representations possible:

the trivial representation: every permutation is mapped onto the identity element of GL(H),

 or the alternating representation: a permutation P is mapped to +1 or -1 according to whether P is odd or even.

### What nature does

#### What nature does

Nature has chosen to implement these basic representations and no others, as far as we know.

## What nature does

- Nature has chosen to implement these basic representations and no others, as far as we know.
- The state vector of a system either changes sign under an interchange of any pair of identical particles (fermions) or does not (bosons).

If the state vector changes sign under an interchange of identical particles but must also look the same if they are in the same state we have v = -v; where v is the state vector describing two identical particles in the same state.

If the state vector changes sign under an interchange of identical particles but must also look the same if they are in the same state we have v = -v; where v is the state vector describing two identical particles in the same state.

 $\odot$  In short v = 0!

If the state vector changes sign under an interchange of identical particles but must also look the same if they are in the same state we have v = -v; where v is the state vector describing two identical particles in the same state.

 $\odot$  In short v = 0!

With fermions two particles cannot be in exactly the same state: Pauli exclusion principle. The reason for chemistry!!

Bosons can indeed be packed into the same state.

Bosons can indeed be packed into the same state.

The fundamental reason for early quantum mechanics.

Bosons can indeed be packed into the same state.

The fundamental reason for early quantum mechanics.

The explanation of lasers, superconductivity and many other collective phenomena.

• Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.
- This group is called SO(3): the group of  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrices with determinant +1.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.
- This group is called SO(3): the group of  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrices with determinant +1.

• To describe a member of the group we need an angle and a unit vector pointing along the axis of rotation.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.
- This group is called SO(3): the group of  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrices with determinant +1.

• To describe a member of the group we need an angle and a unit vector pointing along the axis of rotation.

• The group can be viewed as a solid ball of radius  $\pi$ . The angle of rotation is the distance from the centre.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.
- This group is called SO(3): the group of  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrices with determinant +1.

• To describe a member of the group we need an angle and a unit vector pointing along the axis of rotation.

• The group can be viewed as a solid ball of radius  $\pi$ . The angle of rotation is the distance from the centre.

• We have to identify a rotation of  $\theta$  and  $\pi - \theta$ , so we identify antipodal points on the surface of the ball.

- Quantum systems are rotationally symmetric.
- Therefore the rotation group must act on them.
- This group is called SO(3): the group of  $3 \times 3$  orthogonal matrices with determinant +1.

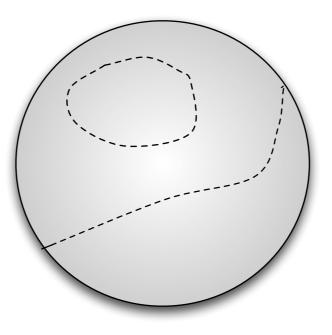
• To describe a member of the group we need an angle and a unit vector pointing along the axis of rotation.

• The group can be viewed as a solid ball of radius  $\pi$ . The angle of rotation is the distance from the centre.

• We have to identify a rotation of  $\theta$  and  $\pi - \theta$ , so we identify antipodal points on the surface of the ball.

• The resulting group is not simply connected: there are loops that cannot be continuously deformed to a point.

A picture of SO(3) showing a loop that can be shrunk to a point and one that cannot.

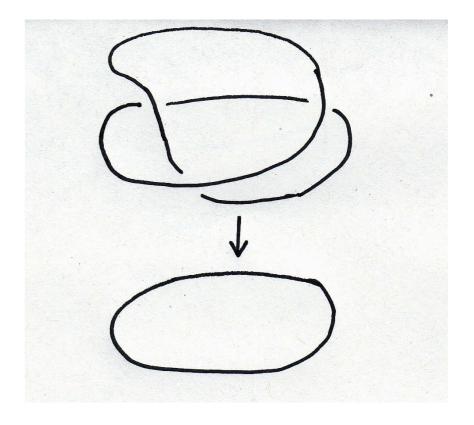


#### SO(3) is not simply connected.

There is another group SU(2): the group of unitary  $2 \times 2$  matrices with determinant 1.

There is a homomorphism from SU(2) to SO(3) which is onto and 2 to 1 and which locally looks just like SO(3)but globally is simply connected.

Now which is the relevant symmetry group for quantum mechanics?



Some representations of SU(2) behave like representations of SO(3) but others behave strangely.

Some representations of SU(2) behave like representations of SO(3) but others behave strangely.

The representations of SU(2) can be classified by a number j which can be either an integer or *half* an integer.

Some representations of SU(2) behave like representations of SO(3) but others behave strangely.

The representations of SU(2) can be classified by a number j which can be either an integer or *half* an integer. The quantity j is called the *spin* of the particle.

Some representations of SU(2) behave like representations of SO(3) but others behave strangely.

The representations of SU(2) can be classified by a number j which can be either an integer or *half* an integer. The quantity j is called the *spin* of the particle.

The second type of representations correspond to objects that change sign under rotation of  $2\pi$ : they are called *spinors*.

Some representations of SU(2) behave like representations of SO(3) but others behave strangely.

The representations of SU(2) can be classified by a number j which can be either an integer or *half* an integer. The quantity j is called the *spin* of the particle.

The second type of representations correspond to objects that change sign under rotation of  $2\pi$ : they are called *spinors*.

Nature has two types of particles: those for which a  $2\pi$  rotation is the identity and those for which a  $4\pi$  rotation is the identity.

In any relativistic quantum field theory particles have half-integer spin if and only if they are fermions and have integer spin iff they are bosons.

In any relativistic quantum field theory particles have half-integer spin if and only if they are fermions and have integer spin iff they are bosons.

#### Note that this is a general *theorem*.

In any relativistic quantum field theory particles have half-integer spin if and only if they are fermions and have integer spin iff they are bosons.

### Note that this is a general *theorem*.

No truly topological proof exists.

In any relativistic quantum field theory particles have half-integer spin if and only if they are fermions and have integer spin iff they are bosons.

#### Note that this is a general *theorem*.

No truly topological proof exists.

#### All this is true in **three** dimensions.

In any relativistic quantum field theory particles have half-integer spin if and only if they are fermions and have integer spin iff they are bosons.

#### Note that this is a general *theorem*.

No truly topological proof exists.

### All this is true in **three** dimensions.

### What happens in two dimensions?

Now the rotation group is SO(2), which is just a circle.

Now the rotation group is SO(2), which is just a circle.

Though a simpler group, the topology is much more complicated.

Now the rotation group is SO(2), which is just a circle.

Though a simpler group, the topology is much more complicated.

There are infinitely many classes of loops (homotopy classes). So a rotation by  $4\pi$  is not necessarily the identity and a rotation by  $2\pi$  is not necessarily a multiplication by  $\pm 1$ .

Now the rotation group is SO(2), which is just a circle.

Though a simpler group, the topology is much more complicated.

There are infinitely many classes of loops (homotopy classes). So a rotation by  $4\pi$  is not necessarily the identity and a rotation by  $2\pi$  is not necessarily a multiplication by  $\pm 1$ .

A rotation of  $2\pi$  may result in a phase change  $e^{i\theta}$  that could be *anything*.

## Two dimensional physics

Now the rotation group is SO(2), which is just a circle.

Though a simpler group, the topology is much more complicated.

There are infinitely many classes of loops (homotopy classes). So a rotation by  $4\pi$  is not necessarily the identity and a rotation by  $2\pi$  is not necessarily a multiplication by  $\pm 1$ .

A rotation of  $2\pi$  may result in a phase change  $e^{i\theta}$  that could be *anything*.

Such entities are called *anyons*.

What happened to the Spin-Statistics theorem?

It still holds in two dimensions! The relevant group is no longer the permutation group but the braid group.

To understand why we need to think about the physics of two dimensional entities.

In the laboratory we get 2D physics with a thin gas of free electrons trapped between two semiconductor layers.

A strong magnetic field is applied in the perpendicular direction confining the "gas" to a 2D layer.

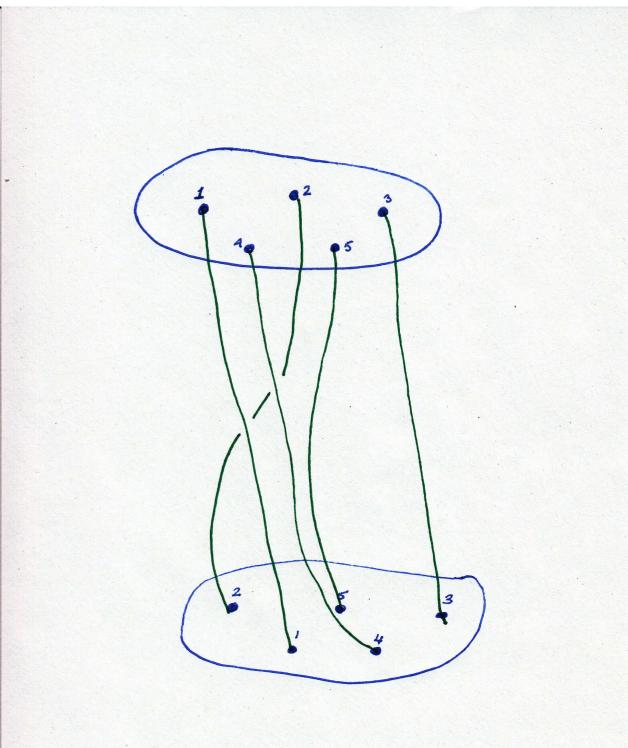
Excited states of this system are not electrons but *virtual* particles with strange properties.

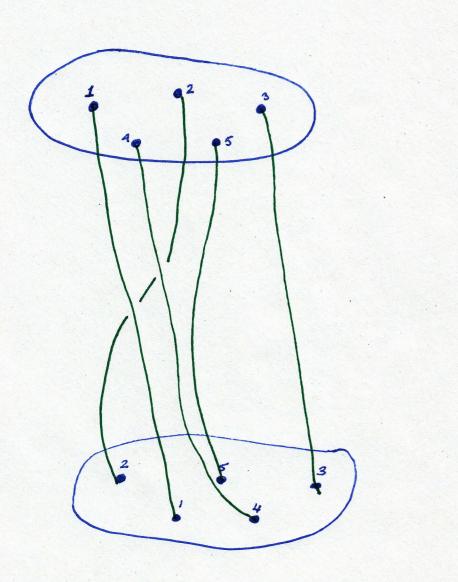
Imagine some (5 in the picture) particles and consider what happens when some of them are exchanged.

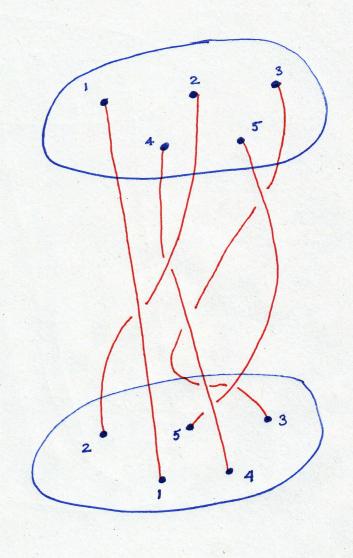
In 3D the strands can always be disentangled; the only thing that matters is the start and end point. So we can describe the effect just by giving a permutation.

In 2D the entangling matters. One has to distinguish between different braidings.

Here  $1 \mapsto 4, 2 \mapsto 1, 3 \mapsto 3, 4 \mapsto 5$  and  $5 \mapsto 2$ 



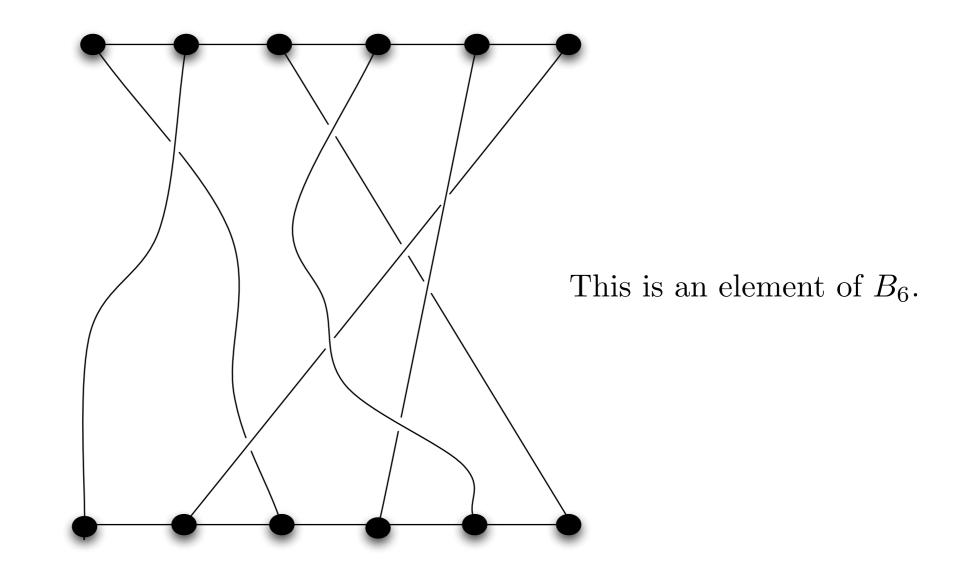




Here the permutations are the same but the braiding is different.

## The Braid Group

Fix n and consider n points on a line with another n points on a line below. We connect them with strands. The generators of the group are interchanges of adjacent strands.



Much richer theory than the permutation group.

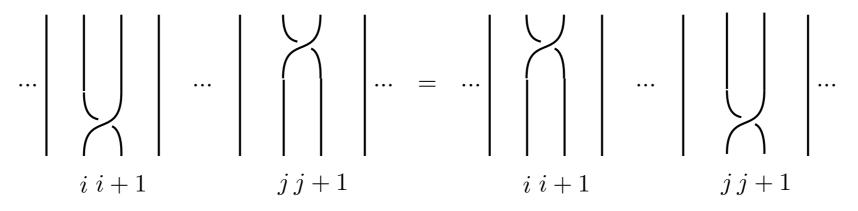
For n points the generators are  $b_1$  to  $b_{n-1}$  and their inverses. The generators obey the following equations:

$$b_i b_j = b_j b_i \quad \text{for} \quad |i - j| \ge 2$$

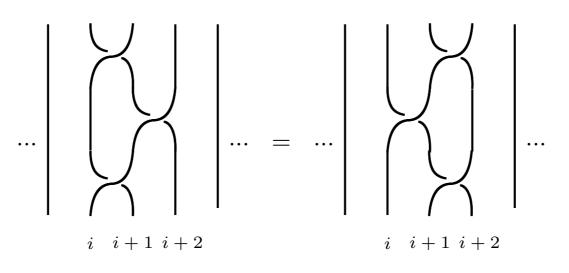
$$\tag{1}$$

$$b_i b_{i+1} b_i = b_{i+1} b_i b_{i+1}$$
 for  $1 \le i \le n-1$ . (2)

which respectively depicts as:



and



Generalized Spin-Statistics theorem holds in dimensions 2 and 3.

See the paper by Froelich and Gabbiani : Local Quantum Theory and Braid Group Statistics.

There is a lot more to be said about knots, braids, physics and related things but we need to get on with the main story.

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

What happens if we combine n anyons of type  $\theta$ ? What is the resulting type?

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

What happens if we combine n anyons of type  $\theta$ ? What is the resulting type?

Consider the exchange process. If we exchange two clusters of n anyons (of type  $\theta$ ) each, we get a phase change of  $n^2\theta$ . Thus we have a particle of type  $n^2\theta$ .

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

What happens if we combine n anyons of type  $\theta$ ? What is the resulting type?

Consider the exchange process. If we exchange two clusters of n anyons (of type  $\theta$ ) each, we get a phase change of  $n^2\theta$ . Thus we have a particle of type  $n^2\theta$ .

This is an example of what is called a *fusion* rule.

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

What happens if we combine n anyons of type  $\theta$ ? What is the resulting type?

Consider the exchange process. If we exchange two clusters of n anyons (of type  $\theta$ ) each, we get a phase change of  $n^2\theta$ . Thus we have a particle of type  $n^2\theta$ .

This is an example of what is called a *fusion* rule.

Thus if we have a cluster of n anyons and another cluster of m anyons (all the basic anyons are type  $\theta$ ) when we combine them we get a cluster of type  $(n+m)^2\theta$ .

We can associate a *type* with anyons according to the phase they pick up during an exchange.

What happens if we combine n anyons of type  $\theta$ ? What is the resulting type?

Consider the exchange process. If we exchange two clusters of n anyons (of type  $\theta$ ) each, we get a phase change of  $n^2\theta$ . Thus we have a particle of type  $n^2\theta$ .

This is an example of what is called a *fusion* rule.

Thus if we have a cluster of n anyons and another cluster of m anyons (all the basic anyons are type  $\theta$ ) when we combine them we get a cluster of type  $(n+m)^2\theta$ .

#### Not all anyons are so simple!

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Let us consider 1D representations. A 1D vector space is just a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$ . So every linear map on  $\mathbb{C}$  is just a complex number. So every generator  $b_j$  of the braid group looks like  $e^{i\theta_j}$  in a 1D rep.

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Let us consider 1D representations. A 1D vector space is just a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$ . So every linear map on  $\mathbb{C}$  is just a complex number. So every generator  $b_j$  of the braid group looks like  $e^{i\theta_j}$  in a 1D rep.

> One of the basic equations in the braid group is:  $b_j b_{j+1} b_j = b_{j+1} b_j b_{j+1}$ The Yang-Baxter equation.

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Let us consider 1D representations. A 1D vector space is just a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$ . So every linear map on  $\mathbb{C}$  is just a complex number. So every generator  $b_j$  of the braid group looks like  $e^{i\theta_j}$  in a 1D rep.

> One of the basic equations in the braid group is:  $b_j b_{j+1} b_j = b_{j+1} b_j b_{j+1}$ The Yang-Baxter equation.

Applying this we get that  $e^{i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j} = e^{i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1}}$ 

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Let us consider 1D representations. A 1D vector space is just a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$ . So every linear map on  $\mathbb{C}$  is just a complex number. So every generator  $b_j$  of the braid group looks like  $e^{i\theta_j}$  in a 1D rep.

> One of the basic equations in the braid group is:  $b_j b_{j+1} b_j = b_{j+1} b_j b_{j+1}$ The Yang-Baxter equation.

Applying this we get that  $e^{i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j} = e^{i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1}}$ 

or  $\theta_j = \theta_{j+1}$ . All the generators of the group produce the same phase shift.

Physical systems in 2D have to carry representations of the braid group. What do they look like?

The braid groups are infinite and there are infinitely many irreducible representations.

Let us consider 1D representations. A 1D vector space is just a copy of  $\mathbb{C}$ . So every linear map on  $\mathbb{C}$  is just a complex number. So every generator  $b_j$  of the braid group looks like  $e^{i\theta_j}$  in a 1D rep.

> One of the basic equations in the braid group is:  $b_j b_{j+1} b_j = b_{j+1} b_j b_{j+1}$ The Yang-Baxter equation.

Applying this we get that  $e^{i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j} = e^{i\theta_{j+1} + i\theta_j + i\theta_{j+1}}$ 

or  $\theta_j = \theta_{j+1}$ . All the generators of the group produce the same phase shift.

However, there are more interesting representations.

There are (we hope!) anyons that transform according to higher-dimensional representations of the braid group. This happens when the ground state of the system is degenerate and the actions of the braid group elements are given by *matrices*.

There are (we hope!) anyons that transform according to higher-dimensional representations of the braid group. This happens when the ground state of the system is degenerate and the actions of the braid group elements are given by *matrices*.

Now we can hope to implement non-trivial unitary transformations by braiding these anyons together.

There are (we hope!) anyons that transform according to higher-dimensional representations of the braid group. This happens when the ground state of the system is degenerate and the actions of the braid group elements are given by *matrices*.

Now we can hope to implement non-trivial unitary transformations by braiding these anyons together.

We have got to have non-abelian anyons in order to use them for quantum computation.

There are (we hope!) anyons that transform according to higher-dimensional representations of the braid group. This happens when the ground state of the system is degenerate and the actions of the braid group elements are given by *matrices*.

Now we can hope to implement non-trivial unitary transformations by braiding these anyons together.

We have got to have non-abelian anyons in order to use them for quantum computation.

There are candidates but there are no definite laboratory demonstrations of non-abelian anyons.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

What happens when we combine anyons of different types? Write [a, b] for the combination of a type-a anyon and a type-b anyon.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

What happens when we combine anyons of different types? Write [a, b] for the combination of a type-a anyon and a type-b anyon.

We get general *fusion rules* of the form  $[a, b] = \sum_{c} N_{ab}^{c} c$ ; where the Ns are just natural numbers.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

What happens when we combine anyons of different types? Write [a, b] for the combination of a type-a anyon and a type-b anyon.

We get general *fusion rules* of the form  $[a, b] = \sum_{c} N_{ab}^{c} c$ ; where the Ns are just natural numbers.

Thus a rule like [a, b] = 2a + b + 3c means that fusing an a and a b produces either an a – and this can happen in two ways – or a b or a c, which last can happen in 3 ways.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

What happens when we combine anyons of different types? Write [a, b] for the combination of a type-a anyon and a type-b anyon.

We get general *fusion rules* of the form  $[a, b] = \sum_{c} N_{ab}^{c} c$ ; where the Ns are just natural numbers.

Thus a rule like [a, b] = 2a + b + 3c means that fusing an a and a b produces either an a – and this can happen in two ways – or a b or a c, which last can happen in 3 ways.

It is the space of fusion possibilities that describes the qubits! If [a, b] = 2c we use the 2D fusion space of the resulting c anyon to encode a qubit.

Now the *type* of an anyon is not just a complex number but a matrix.

What happens when we combine anyons of different types? Write [a, b] for the combination of a type-a anyon and a type-b anyon.

We get general *fusion rules* of the form  $[a, b] = \sum_{c} N_{ab}^{c} c$ ; where the Ns are just natural numbers.

Thus a rule like [a, b] = 2a + b + 3c means that fusing an a and a b produces either an a – and this can happen in two ways – or a b or a c, which last can happen in 3 ways.

It is the space of fusion possibilities that describes the qubits! If [a, b] = 2c we use the 2D fusion space of the resulting c anyon to encode a qubit.

How do we describe all this complicated algebra? There are different types of things that combine in non-trivial ways. We have essentially an exotic type theory.

#### What do we need?

#### What do we need?

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

#### What do we need?

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

We need to capture the idea of combining types and getting new types as a result. We also need the idea of "putting together" and "or".

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

We need to capture the idea of combining types and getting new types as a result. We also need the idea of "putting together" and "or".

We need to have the ability to describe braids.

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

We need to capture the idea of combining types and getting new types as a result. We also need the idea of "putting together" and "or".

We need to have the ability to describe braids.

In fact, the anyons are extended objects with more than "string-like" structure. We need braided *ribbons* that may have *twists* in them.

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

We need to capture the idea of combining types and getting new types as a result. We also need the idea of "putting together" and "or".

We need to have the ability to describe braids.

In fact, the anyons are extended objects with more than "string-like" structure. We need braided *ribbons* that may have *twists* in them.

We need braided monoidal categories. The tensor product structure gives the fusion possibility. The additive structure gives the different possibilities.

We need a system of types. Physicists call them "charges."

We need to capture the idea of combining types and getting new types as a result. We also need the idea of "putting together" and "or".

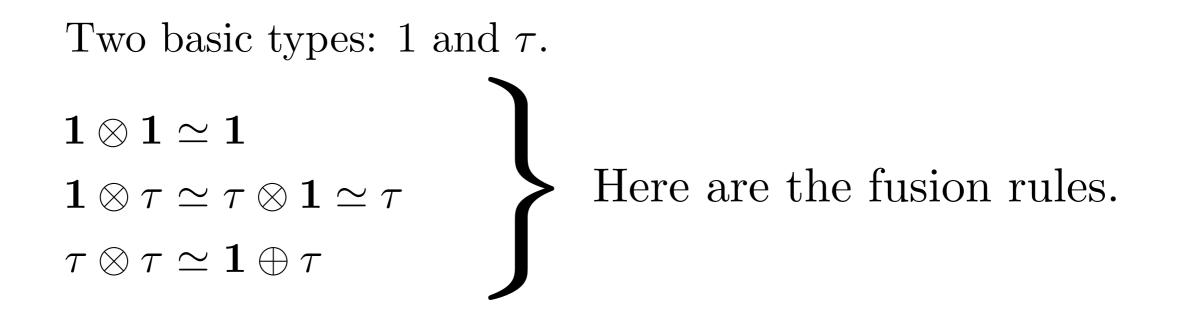
We need to have the ability to describe braids.

In fact, the anyons are extended objects with more than "string-like" structure. We need braided *ribbons* that may have *twists* in them.

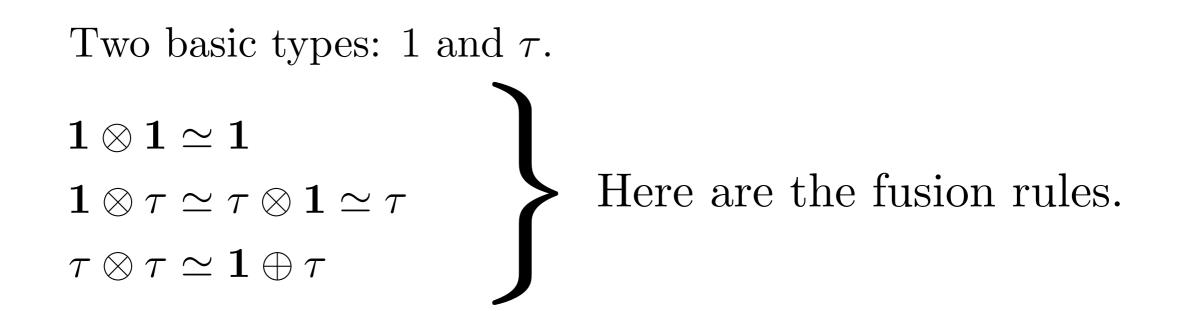
We need braided monoidal categories. The tensor product structure gives the fusion possibility. The additive structure gives the different possibilities.

To accomodate everything we use what are called *modular tensor categories*.

#### An example: Fibonacci anyons

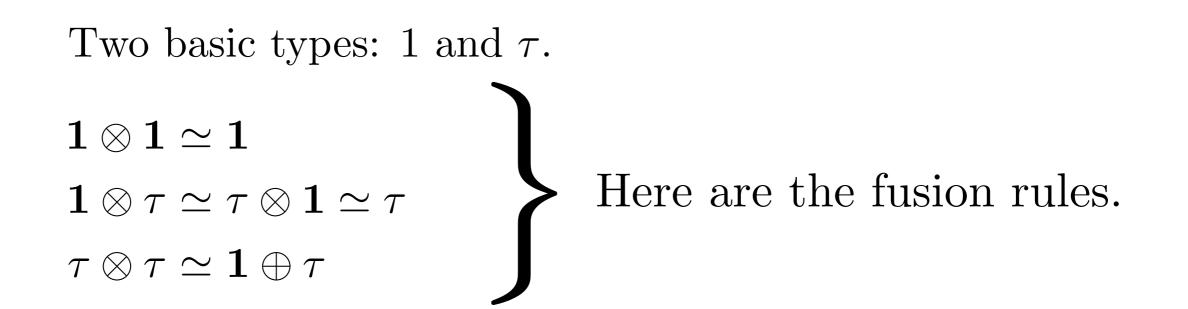


#### An example: Fibonacci anyons



Consider the following calculation:

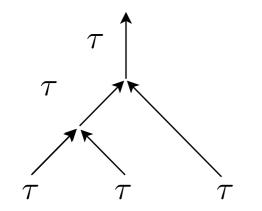
#### An example: Fibonacci anyons



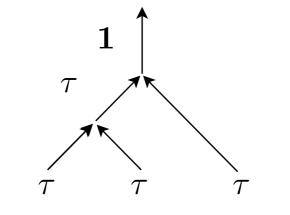
Consider the following calculation:

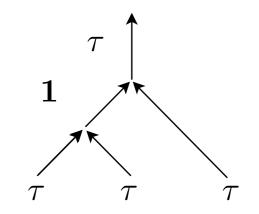
$$(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau \simeq (\mathbf{1} \oplus \tau) \otimes \tau$$
$$\simeq (\mathbf{1} \otimes \tau) \oplus (\tau \otimes \tau)$$
$$\simeq \tau \oplus (\mathbf{1} \oplus \tau)$$
$$\simeq \mathbf{1} \oplus 2 \cdot \tau.$$

#### In pictures



or





or

The basic idea to simulate quantum computation with anyons is given by the following steps:

- 1. Consider a compound system of anyons. We initialise a state in the splitting space by fixing the charges the subsets of anyons according to the way they will fuse. This determines the basis state in which the computation starts.
- 2. We braid the anyons together, it will induce a unitary action on the chosen splitting space.
- 3. Finally, we let the anyon fuse together and the way they fuse determines which state is measured and this constitutes the output of our computation.

The basic idea to simulate quantum computation with anyons is given by the following steps:

- 1. Consider a compound system of anyons. We initialise a state in the splitting space by fixing the charges the subsets of anyons according to the way they will fuse. This determines the basis state in which the computation starts.
- 2. We braid the anyons together, it will induce a unitary action on the chosen splitting space.
- 3. Finally, we let the anyon fuse together and the way they fuse determines which state is measured and this constitutes the output of our computation.

In fact it is possible to show that the Fibonacci anyons are *universal* for quantum computation.

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

one two-dimensional space of possible  $\tau$  results

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

one two-dimensional space of possible  $\tau$  results

and we can label the basis vectors as:  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 1\rangle$  and  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 2\rangle$ .

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

one two-dimensional space of possible  $\tau$  results

and we can label the basis vectors as:  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 1\rangle$  and  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 2\rangle$ .

We also get a one-dimensional space corresponding to the fusion outcome being 1.

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

one two-dimensional space of possible  $\tau$  results

and we can label the basis vectors as:  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 1\rangle$  and  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 2\rangle$ .

We also get a one-dimensional space corresponding to the fusion outcome being 1.

The two-dimensional space of fusion outcomes is our qubit.

If we fuse 3  $\tau$ s together we get

one two-dimensional space of possible  $\tau$  results

and we can label the basis vectors as:  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 1\rangle$  and  $|(\tau \otimes \tau) \otimes \tau; \tau, 2\rangle$ .

We also get a one-dimensional space corresponding to the fusion outcome being  $\mathbf{1}$ .

The two-dimensional space of fusion outcomes is our qubit.

The one-dimensional space represents possible "leakage."

We can braid the anyons together. Recall that anyons carry representations of the *braid* group.

We can braid the anyons together. Recall that anyons carry representations of the *braid* group.

Furthermore, these are *nonabelian* anyons so they carry a higher-dimensional representation of the braid group.

We can braid the anyons together. Recall that anyons carry representations of the *braid* group.

Furthermore, these are *nonabelian* anyons so they carry a higher-dimensional representation of the braid group.

Thus there are matrices which act on the space of the anyons when they are braided. We physically drag the anyons around one another to create a braid and then we have a unitary transformation of the qubit space.

We can braid the anyons together. Recall that anyons carry representations of the *braid* group.

Furthermore, these are *nonabelian* anyons so they carry a higher-dimensional representation of the braid group.

Thus there are matrices which act on the space of the anyons when they are braided. We physically drag the anyons around one another to create a braid and then we have a unitary transformation of the qubit space.

These turn out to be dense in SU(2). So we can come close to any *one*-qubit unitary by braiding.

We can braid the anyons together. Recall that anyons carry representations of the *braid* group.

Furthermore, these are *nonabelian* anyons so they carry a higher-dimensional representation of the braid group.

Thus there are matrices which act on the space of the anyons when they are braided. We physically drag the anyons around one another to create a braid and then we have a unitary transformation of the qubit space.

These turn out to be dense in SU(2). So we can come close to any *one*-qubit unitary by braiding.

We are almost there, but we need at least one two-qubit gate.

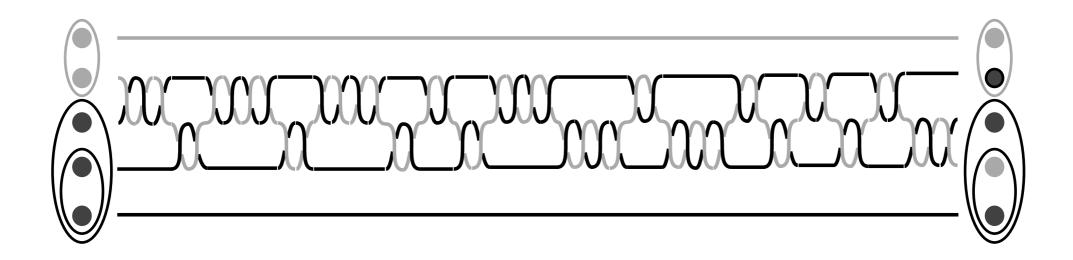
We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.

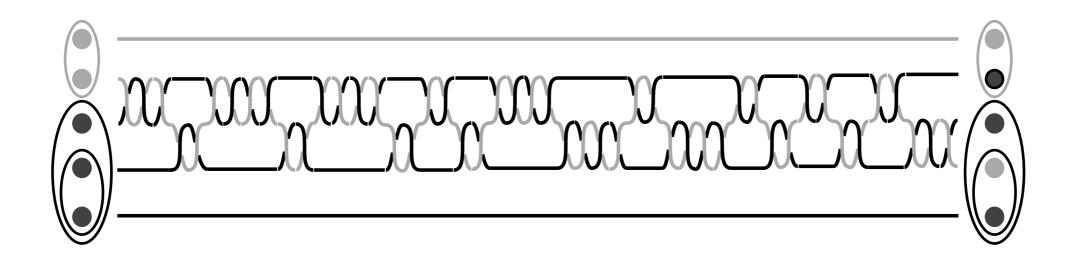
We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.



We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

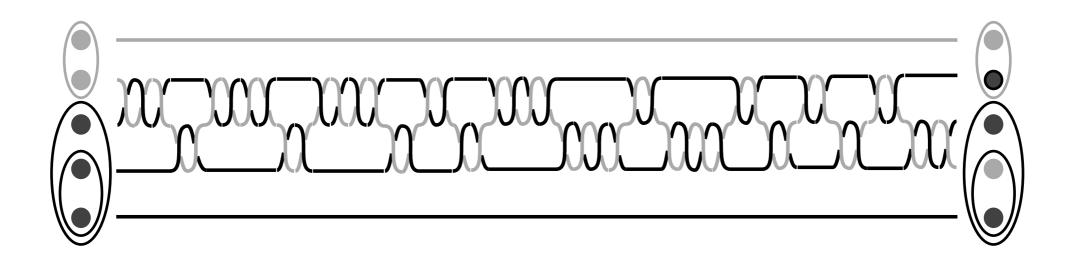
The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.



The above scheme (by Bonesteel et al.) does the trick.

We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.

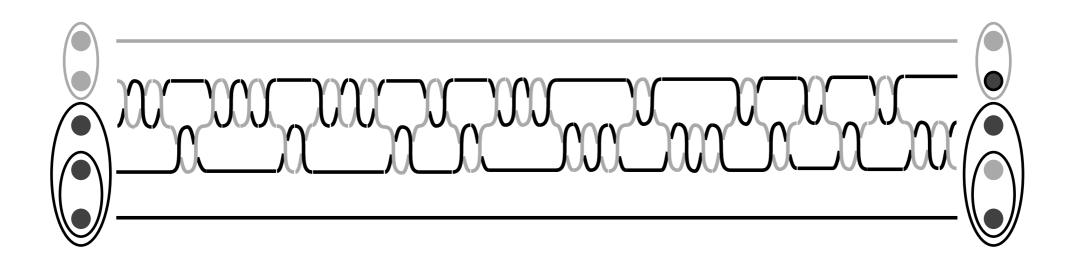


The above scheme (by Bonesteel et al.) does the trick.

The dark dots are the anyons of the control triplet but after the braiding the fusion space has one of the target anyons in it.

We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.



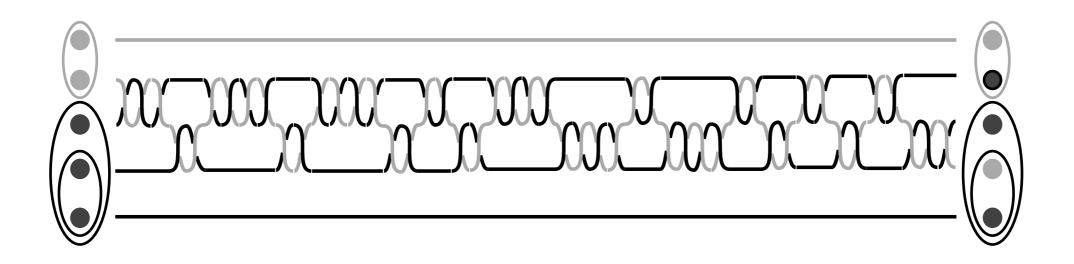
The above scheme (by Bonesteel et al.) does the trick.

The dark dots are the anyons of the control triplet but after the braiding the fusion space has one of the target anyons in it.

An explicit calculation shows that the unitary in this case is the identity.

We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.



The above scheme (by Bonesteel et al.) does the trick.

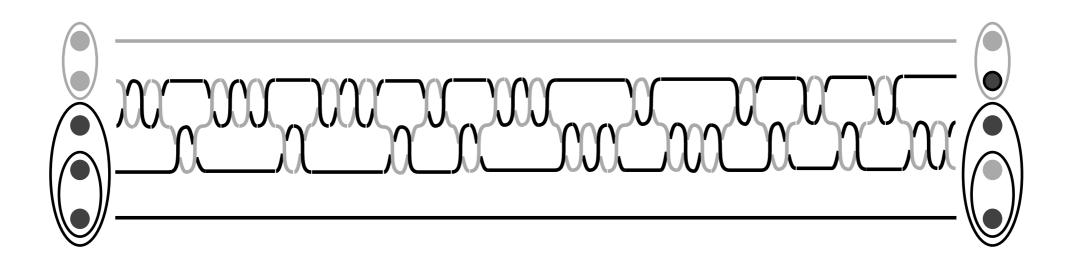
The dark dots are the anyons of the control triplet but after the braiding the fusion space has one of the target anyons in it.

An explicit calculation shows that the unitary in this case is the identity.

How do they come up with this?

We need two triplets of  $\tau$  anyons to represent the two qubits and we need to braid them together.

The first step is to insert an anyon from the control triplet into the target triplet carefully producing a trivial unitary.



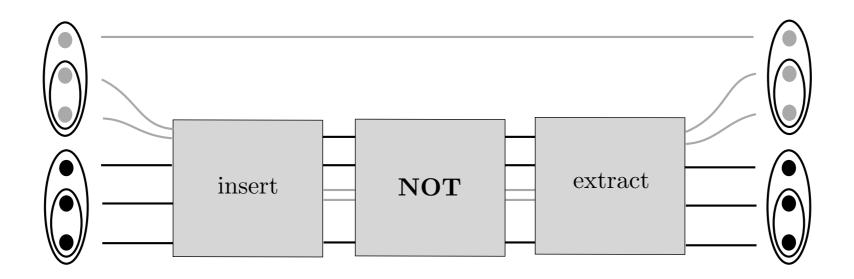
The above scheme (by Bonesteel et al.) does the trick.

The dark dots are the anyons of the control triplet but after the braiding the fusion space has one of the target anyons in it.

An explicit calculation shows that the unitary in this case is the identity.

How do they come up with this?

By being clever!



The above shows the general scheme.

A **NOT** can be implemented as a one-qubit unitary. We insert a *pair* of test anyons. They fuse to produce a  $\tau$  or a **1**.

If the fusion produces a 1 then any tensoring with the other anyons has no effect. If it produces a  $\tau$  the **NOT** will have an effect. At the end we restore the state of the control triplet.

Details are admittedly hairy and formalizing all this is daunting.

New model of computation based on entirely new physics.

New model of computation based on entirely new physics.

Lies at the crossroads of mathematics (representation theory of the braid group, modular tensor categories), quantum computation (universality theorems) and physics.

New model of computation based on entirely new physics.

Lies at the crossroads of mathematics (representation theory of the braid group, modular tensor categories), quantum computation (universality theorems) and physics.

How does it relate to other models? Like the one-way model?

New model of computation based on entirely new physics.

Lies at the crossroads of mathematics (representation theory of the braid group, modular tensor categories), quantum computation (universality theorems) and physics.

How does it relate to other models? Like the one-way model?

We need more structured "logical" ways of reasoning. This is where this community can help.

New model of computation based on entirely new physics.

Lies at the crossroads of mathematics (representation theory of the braid group, modular tensor categories), quantum computation (universality theorems) and physics.

How does it relate to other models? Like the one-way model?

We need more structured "logical" ways of reasoning. This is where this community can help.

Tremendously exciting synergy between the three communities.

# Some references

J. Preskill, Lectures notes in quantum computation, chapter 9. Avialable at http://www.theory.caltech.edu/people/preskill/ph229

S. Das Sarma, M. Freedman, C. Nayak, S. Simon and A. Stern, Non-abelian anyons and topological quantum computing, in Rev. Mod. Phys.

P. Panangaden and E. O. Paquette, A categorical presentation of quantum computation with anyons. To appear. Available on my web page.