Introduction to Quantum Computing

Lecture 1

Stefan Kühn DESY Summer Student Program, 31.07.2023



Problems for which Quantum Computers might be advantageous

> Factoring

 $70747=263\times 269$

> Optimization problems



> Searching databases



- > Quantum simulation
 - Lattice field theory



Quantum chemistry



Material science

> Machine learning



> Cryptography

> ...



On the verge of the NISQ era

- > Noisy intermediate-scale quantum computers with $\mathcal{O}(100)$ qubits are already available
- Noise significantly limits the circuit depths that can be executed reliably, no quantum error correction possible



J. Preskill, Quantum 2, 79 (2018)

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Article

Quantum supremacy using a programmable superconducting processor

RESEARCH

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QUANTUM COMPUTING

Quantum computational advantage using photons

Han-Sen Zhong^{2,2}*, Hui Wang^{1,2}*, Yu-Hao Deng^{1,2}*, Ming-Cheng Chen^{1,2}*, Li-Chao Peng^{1,2}, Yi-Han Luo^{1,2}, Jian Qin², ², Dian Wu^{1,4}, ²Xing Ding^{1,2}, ³Yi Hu^{1,2}, ²Peng Hu³, ³Xiao-Yan Yang³, ⁴Wei Jun Zhang³, Hao L³, ⁴Yuzuan Li⁴, ³Xiao Jiang^{1,2}, Lin Gan⁴, ⁴Guangwen Yang⁴, Lixing You³, ³Zhen Wang³, Li Li^{1,2}, Nai-Le Liu^{1,2}, ⁴Chao-Yang Lu^{3,2}, Jian-Wei Pan^{1,2}+

Quantum computers promote to perform cartini tasks that are believed to be intractable to classical comparies. Boos analysing is such at star also is considered a storegardinet to demonstrate the quantum computational advantage. We performed Gaussian boos sampling by sounding 30 whereas the starting of the starting of the starting of the starting of the starting starting of the quantum computational advantage. The starting of the quantum computer. Journal starting distinguishes photons, and under distributions, the photonic quantum computer. Journal starting, distinguishes photons, and under distributions, the photonic startings and supercomparing. "Starting" Starting Start, 50500 (2019) H.-S. Zhoong et al., Science 370, 14460 (2020)

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PHYSIC	AL REVIEW LETTERS 127, 180501 (2021)
Editors' Suggestion Featured in Phy	nica
Strong Q	uantum Computational Advantage Using a uperconducting Quantum Processor
Yulin Wu, ^{1,3} Wan Su Bas ⁴ , Sirui Cao, Hui Deng ^{1,4} Yujie Du, ⁵ Sugini Fau, ² Linyin Hong, He-Lang Huang ^{1,4} Futian Lang, ^{1,2} Chun Lin, ⁶ Jin Li Langyuan Wang ² Shyu Wang, ^{1,3} Du Jianghan Yin ² Chong Yung, ^{1,3} Yining Zhang, ^{1,3} Han Zhao, Yorowi PHYSIC Editors' Sogentien Phase-Programmable G	³³ Jusheng Ohm, ¹³ Ming, Cheng Ohm, ¹³ Xiared Cheng, ¹⁴ Ing, Hung Cheng, ¹³ Cheng, ¹⁴ Ch
Han-Sen Zhong, ^{1,2,*} Yu-Hao D Yi-Han Luo, ^{1,2} Dian Wu, ^{1,2} Si-Qiu G Yuxuan Li, ⁴ Xiao Jiang, ^{1,2} Lin Articlo Jelmer	eng. ^{12,*} Jian Qin. ^{12,*} Hui Wang. ¹² Ming-Cheng Chen. ¹² Li-Chao Peng. ¹² ong. ^{1,*} Hao Su. ^{1,2} Yi Hu. ¹² Peng Hu, ³ Xiao-Yan Yang. ³ Wei-Jun Zhang. ³ Hao Li, ² Gan, ⁶ Guangwen Yang. ⁴ Lixing You, ⁷ Zhen Wang, ² Li Li, ¹² Nai-Le Liu, ¹² I. Renema, ⁷ Chao-Yang Luq. ⁵ - and Jian-Wei Pan ¹²
	nutational advantage with a
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https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-022-04725-x Received: 12 November 2021	Lara S. Madsen ¹³ , Fabian Laudenbach ¹³ , Mohsen Falamazzi, Askaran ¹³ , Fabian Rortain, Trevor WingDD, Archaf, Faladawa, Eliboo N. Nasco Jacob RotTrightsch (2013) Nasthow J. Calif. Antoneo: A Manaeu Admit Later School Wand, David March (2014)

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Y. Wu et al., PRL 127, 180501 (2021), Han-Sen Zhong et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 127, 180502 (2021), L. S. Madsen et al., Nature 606, 75 (2022)

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- Noisy intermediate-scale quantum computers with O(100) qubits are already available
- Noise significantly limits the circuit depths that can be executed reliably, no quantum error correction possible
- Current NISQ devices have already outperformed classical computers
- > Larger quantum devices in the near future
 - IBM: 1000 qubits by the end of 2023
 - Google: 10⁶ qubits and error correction 2029



Y. Wu et al., PRL 127, 180501 (2021), Han-Sen Zhong et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 127, 180502 (2021), L. S. Madsen et al., Nature 606, 75 (2022) https://research.ibm.com/blog/ibm-quantum-roadmap, https://blog.google/technology/ai/unveiling-our-new-quantum-ai-campus/



Classical computing

The circuit model of Quantum Computing

Experimental realization of qubits

Classical computing

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Experimental realization of qubits

Classical computing

- > Classical bits take values in \mathbb{Z}_2 , meaning 0 or 1
- > Goal: compute Boolean functions $f : \mathbb{Z}_2^n \to \mathbb{Z}_2$
- Logic gates



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> Universal gate set: allows for expressing any Boolean function, e.g. {NOT, AND} are universal

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- > Universal gate set: allows for expressing any Boolean function, e.g. {NOT, AND} are universal
- > We can arbitrarily copy bits



Irreversible vs. reversible gates

- > Typically on uses a irreversible gate set, e.g. AND, XOR
- > Can we make them reversible?



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It is possible to work with reversible gates

Toffoli is universal

Classical vs. Quantum computing

Classical computing

- > Classical bits are 0 or 1
- > Typically irreversible gate set, but reversible is possible
- > We can arbitrarily copy bits



Classical vs. Quantum computing

Classical computing	Quantum computing
 Classical bits are 0 or 1 Typically irreversible gate set, but reversible is possible We can arbitrarily copy bits 	> Quantum analog of bits?> Quantum logic gates?> Copying quantum information?

Classical computing

The circuit model of Quantum Computing

Experimental realization of qubits

Quantum bits

Quantum bit

- > Qubit: two-dimensional quantum system
- Hilbert space H with basis {|0>, |1>}, called the computational basis
- > Contrary to classical bits, it can be in a superposition

$$|\psi
angle = \cos\left(rac{ heta}{2}
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> Angles can be associated to a vector in spherical coordinates

$$\vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin(\theta)\cos(\phi)\\\sin(\theta)\sin(\phi)\\\cos(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$



⇒ Bloch-sphere representation

Extracting information from quantum bits: projective measurements

> Consider the spectral decomposition of some observable

$$O = \sum_{k} o_k \left| o_k \right\rangle \left\langle o_k \right|$$

with eigenvalues o_k and orthogonal projectors $P_k = |o_k\rangle \langle o_k|$ onto the eigenspaces > Measuring in the *O* basis: projecting the state onto one of the eigenspaces of *O*

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- > Measuring in the *O* basis: projecting the state onto one of the eigenspaces of *O*
- > Probability of measuring outcome k in state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_k c_k |o_k\rangle$

$$p_k = \langle \psi | P_k | \psi \rangle = |c_k|^2$$

> State of the system after measuring outcome k

$$\frac{c_k}{\sqrt{p_k}} \left| o_k \right\rangle$$

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> State of the system after measuring outcome *k*

$$\frac{c_k}{\sqrt{p_k}} \left| o_k \right\rangle$$

> In quantum computing we typically consider the computational basis or *Z*-basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ for measurements

Multiple quantum bits

> n qubits: Hilbert space is the tensor product $\underbrace{\mathcal{H} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}}_{\mathcal{H}}$

n times

Most general state in the computational basis

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{i_1,\dots,i_n=0}^{1} c_{i_1\dots i_n} |i_1\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |i_n\rangle$$

- > In the following \otimes often suppressed: $|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle |0\rangle$, $|00\rangle$
- > Shorthand notation for basis states: $|x\rangle$ where $x \in 0, \dots, 2^n 1$

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- > Shorthand notation for basis states: $|x\rangle$ where $x \in 0, \dots, 2^n 1$
- > Qubits can be entangled

Entanglement of bipartite systems

- > Consider bipartite systems $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$
- > A quantum state that can be factored as a tensor product of states of its local constituents is called a separable state or product state

 $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_A\rangle \otimes |\psi_B\rangle$

> Otherwise the state is **entangled**

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Example

> $|\psi_1\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$

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- $\begin{aligned} |\psi_1\rangle &= |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |0\rangle \otimes |1\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle \\ &= (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \end{aligned}$
- ⇒ Product state
- > $|\Phi^+\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$

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- → Product state
- > $|\Phi^+\rangle = |0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle$
- ⇒ Entangled state (Bell state)

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Entanglement of bipartite systems

- Entangled states cannot be described by the individual states of the constituent systems
- > Consider the Bell state $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$



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> Bob can measure his qubit

$$p_{\text{Bob}}(0) = 1/2,$$

 $p_{\text{Bob}}(1) = 1/2,$

 \Rightarrow Bob does not obtain information about the state, his outcomes are random




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$$\begin{split} p_{\mathsf{Bob}}(0) &= 1/2, & |\psi\rangle = |00\rangle, \\ p_{\mathsf{Bob}}(1) &= 1/2, & |\psi\rangle = |11\rangle, \end{split}$$

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- > Consider the Bell state $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$



> Bob can measure his qubit



- $\begin{array}{ll} p_{\mathsf{Bob}}(0) = 1/2, & |\psi\rangle = |00\rangle, & p_{\mathsf{Alice}}(0) = 1 \\ p_{\mathsf{Bob}}(1) = 1/2, & |\psi\rangle = |11\rangle, & p_{\mathsf{Alice}}(1) = 1 \end{array}$
- \Rightarrow Bob does not obtain information about the state, his outcomes are random
- > If Alice measures after Bob she obtains the same result as Bob with certainty
- ⇒ Perfect correlation between the measurement outcomes

Entanglement of bipartite systems

- > Let us consider the Bell state $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle)$
- ⇒ The measurement outcomes are perfectly correlated
- > Are these correlations any special?



Entanglement of bipartite systems

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- > Are these correlations any special?



> Outcome is correlated no matter which basis we choose

$$\left|\pm\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\left|0\right\rangle \pm \left|1\right\rangle) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left|\Phi^{+}\right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\left|+\right\rangle \otimes \left|+\right\rangle + \left|-\right\rangle \otimes \left|-\right\rangle\right)$$

> These type of correlations do not have a classical counterpart

How to characterize entanglement?

Mixed states and density operators

- > So far we have considered **pure states** $|\psi
 angle\in\mathcal{H}$
- > Assume the system can be various states $|\psi_i\rangle$ with probability p_i
- > The ensemble of pure states $\{p_i, |\psi_i\rangle\}$ is called a **mixed state**

Mixed states and density operators

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- > Assume the system can be various states $|\psi_i\rangle$ with probability p_i
- > The ensemble of pure states $\{p_i, |\psi_i\rangle\}$ is called a **mixed state**
- > Mixed states are described by the density operator

$$\rho = \sum_{i} p_i |\psi_i\rangle \langle \psi_i|, \qquad \sum_{i} p_i = 1$$

- > Properties of the density operator
 - **1** self-adjoint: $\rho^{\dagger} = \rho$
 - 2 positive semidefinite (eigenvalues are real and non-negative)
 - 3 $tr(\rho) = 1$
 - 4 tr $(\rho^2) \le 1$ with equality iff ρ describes a pure state ($p_k = 1, p_i = 0 \ \forall i \ne k$)

Mixed states and density operators

Example 1

> Consider the pure state

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle + |1\rangle\right)$$

> Corresponding density operator

$$\rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi| = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2\\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\Rightarrow \rho^2 = \rho$, pure state

Mixed states and density operators

Example 1	Example 2
Consider the pure state	Consider the ensemble
$\ket{\psi} = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\ket{0} + \ket{1} ight)$	$p_0 = 1/2 \ 0 angle , p_1 = 1/2 \ 1 angle$
> Corresponding density operator	Corresponding density operator
$ ho = \psi angle\langle\psi = egin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$	$\rho = p_0 \left 0 \right\rangle \langle 0 \right + p_1 \left 1 \right\rangle \langle 1 \right = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$
$\Rightarrow ho^2 = ho$, pure state	$\Rightarrow \rho^2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho \neq \rho$, mixed state

Reduced density operator

 Consider bipartite systems H_A ⊗ H_B described by ρ

Reduced density operator

- > Consider bipartite systems $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ described by ρ
- In practice we often have only sufficient knowledge of one subsystem (e.g. we know the lab system but not the environment)



Reduced density operator

- > Consider bipartite systems $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ described by ρ
- In practice we often have only sufficient knowledge of one subsystem (e.g. we know the lab system but not the environment)
- Subsystem is described by the reduced density operator obtained by taking the partial trace with respect to one subsystem

$$\rho_B := \operatorname{tr}_A(\rho)$$

Reduced density operator

Example

- > Consider the Bell state $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle)$
- > Corresponding density matrix

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} \left| \Phi^+ \right\rangle \left\langle \Phi^+ \right| = \frac{1}{2} \big(|0\rangle \langle 0| \otimes |0\rangle \langle 0| + |0\rangle \langle 1| \otimes |0\rangle \langle 1| + |1\rangle \langle 0| \otimes |1\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1| \otimes |1\rangle \langle 1| \big)$$

> Taking the trace over the second system we obtain

$$\rho_1 = \operatorname{tr}_2(\rho) = \frac{1}{2} (|0\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1|)$$

The first qubit is in a mixed state although the two-qubit state is pure!

Implications for quantum computing

- Unlike in classical computing in general we cannot simply discard a subset of qubits
 - Discarding a subset of qubits corrsponds to taking the partial trace over them
 - If there is entanglement between the two sets of qubits, this leads to a mixed state for the subsystem
- For the same reasons we need to keep the qubits well isolated from the environment

Entanglement bipartite systems: pure states

> Consider a bipartite system $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ in a pure state

$$|\psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B, \quad \rho = |\psi\rangle\langle\psi|$$

> Reduced density matrix describing B

$$\rho_B = \operatorname{tr}_A(\rho)$$

> von Neumann entropy for the reduced density operator

$$S = -\mathrm{tr}(\rho_B \log_2 \rho_B)$$

> The von Neumann entropy is zero iff $|\psi
angle$ is a product state

Entanglement bipartite systems: pure states

Example

> We have already computed the reduced density operator for the Bell state $|\Phi^+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |1\rangle)$

$$\rho_1 = \frac{1}{2} \left(|0\rangle \langle 0| + |1\rangle \langle 1| \right) = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 0\\ 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

> von Neumann entropy for ρ_1

$$S(\rho_1) = -\mathsf{tr}(\rho_1 \log_2 \rho_1) = -\left(\frac{1}{2}\log_2 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\log_2 \frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$$

Entanglement bipartite systems: mixed states

- > Consider a bipartite system $\mathcal{H}_A \otimes \mathcal{H}_B$ in a mixed state ρ
- > A mixed state is called separable if and only if

$$ho = \sum_i w_i
ho_i^A \otimes
ho_i^B$$

> Otherwise the state is called entangled

Summary qubits

> A qubit is a two-level quantum system

> Qubits can be in superposition

> Multi-qubit systems can exhibit entanglement



Quantum gates

Quantum gates

> Quantum mechanics is reversible, $|\psi\rangle$ undergoes unitary evolution under some (time-dependent) Hamiltonian H(t)

$$|\psi(t)\rangle = T\exp\left(-i\int_0^t ds\,H(s)\right)|\psi_0\rangle$$

> Quantum gates are represented by unitary matrices

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$$|\psi(t)\rangle = T\exp\left(-i\int_0^t ds\,H(s)\right)|\psi_0\rangle$$

- > Quantum gates are represented by unitary matrices
- > Typically gates only act on a few qubits in a nontrivial way



Common single-qubit quantum gates

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mbox{Hadamard} & -\overline{H} - & H = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 0 \rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0 \rangle + |1 \rangle \right) \\ & 1 \rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0 \rangle - |1 \rangle \right) \\ \hline X & -\overline{X} - & X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 1 \rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0 \rangle - |1 \rangle \right) \\ & 1 \rangle \rightarrow |0 \rangle \\ \hline Y & -\overline{Y} - & Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 1 \rangle \rightarrow -i |1 \rangle \\ & 1 \rangle \rightarrow i |0 \rangle \\ \hline Z & -\overline{Z} - & Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} & \begin{vmatrix} 1 \rangle \rightarrow -i |1 \rangle \\ & 1 \rangle \rightarrow -|1 \rangle \end{array}$$

Common single-qubit rotations

$$R_{x}(\theta) - R_{x}(\theta) - R_{x}(\theta) = \exp\left(-i\frac{\theta}{2}X\right)$$

$$R_{y}(\theta) - R_{y}(\theta) - R_{y}(\theta) - R_{y}(\theta) = \exp\left(-i\frac{\theta}{2}Y\right)$$

$$R_{z}(\theta) - R_{z}(\theta) - R_{z}(\theta) - R_{z}(\theta) - \exp\left(-i\frac{\theta}{2}Z\right)$$

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Common multi-qubit quantum gates



Quantum gates

- > The Hadamard gate can create superpositions out of a single basis state

$$|0\rangle - H - |+\rangle \qquad |0\rangle \rightarrow |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

- > The CNOT gate can create entanglement

Quantum gates

- The reversible classical gates can be implemented on a quantum computer ⇒ We can replicate classical computation
- > The Hadamard gate can create superpositions out of a single basis state

$$|0\rangle - H - |+\rangle \qquad |0\rangle \rightarrow |+\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$$

> The CNOT gate can create entanglement

Since quantum mechanics is linear, we can apply gates to superpositions of basis states

 $\mathsf{CNOT}\big(\alpha \left| 00 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 01 \right\rangle + \gamma \left| 10 \right\rangle + \delta \left| 11 \right\rangle \big) = \alpha \left| 00 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 01 \right\rangle + \gamma \left| 11 \right\rangle + \delta \left| 10 \right\rangle$

Quantum gates

> Combining multiple gates we can build quantum circuits



Quantum gates

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> **Depth** of a circuit: maximum length of a directed path from the input to the output

Quantum gates

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> Depth of a circuit: maximum length of a directed path from the input to the output

Extracting information: measurement of the qubits (usually in the computational basis)

Example: preparing a Bell state



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$$\begin{array}{l} 1 & |00\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|0\rangle + |1\rangle \right) \otimes |0\rangle = \\ & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|00\rangle + |10\rangle \right) \end{array}$$

Example: preparing a Bell state



1
$$|00\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \otimes |0\rangle =$$

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |10\rangle)$
2 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |10\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$

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3 Measurement: $p(00) = 1/2, p(11) = 1/2$

Example: preparing a Bell state

> Simple circuit preparing an entangled state (Bell state)



3 Measurement: p(00) = 1/2, p(11) = 1/2



Universal gate set

A set of gates is **universal** if, by composing gates from it, one can express **any unitary transformation** on any number of qubits.

- > Since the *n*-qubit unitaries form an uncountable infinite set $U(2^n)$, this requires an infinite number of gates
- > Example: {CNOT, $R_x(\theta), R_y(\theta), R_z(\theta)$ }, $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$

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Approximate universal gate set

A set of gates is **universal** if, by composing gates from it, one can **approximate any unitary transformation** on any number of qubits to **any desired precision**.

> Examples: {CNOT, $R_y(\pi/4), R_z(\pi/2)$ }, {Toffoli, $H, R_z(\pi/2)$ }
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- > Examples: {CNOT, $R_y(\pi/4), R_z(\pi/2)$ }, {Toffoli, $H, R_z(\pi/2)$ }
- > Approximation can be done efficiently (Solovay-Kitaev theorem, $\mathcal{O}(\text{polylog}(1/\varepsilon))$)

Can we copy quantum states?

Can we copy quantum states?

- Classically: we can arbitrarily copy bits
- Quantum version: we want a unitary U_c which allows for

$$\begin{array}{c|c} |\psi\rangle & - & |\psi\rangle \\ |r\rangle & - & |\psi\rangle \\ \hline & |\psi\rangle \end{array}$$

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In particular we have have to be able to copy basis states

$$\begin{split} U_c \left| 0 \right\rangle \otimes \left| r \right\rangle \to \left| 0 \right\rangle \otimes \left| 0 \right\rangle \\ U_c \left| 1 \right\rangle \otimes \left| r \right\rangle \to \left| 1 \right\rangle \otimes \left| 1 \right\rangle \end{split}$$

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

$$egin{aligned} U_c \ket{\psi} \otimes \ket{r} &= U_cig(lpha \ket{0} + eta \ket{1}ig) \otimes \ket{r} \ &= U_cig(lpha \ket{0} \otimes \ket{r} + eta \ket{1} \otimes \ket{r}ig) \ &= lpha \ket{0} \otimes \ket{0} + eta \ket{1} \otimes \ket{1} \ &
eq \ket{\psi} \otimes \ket{\psi} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{split} U_c \left| \psi \right\rangle \otimes \left| r \right\rangle &= U_c \left(\alpha \left| 0 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 1 \right\rangle \right) \otimes \left| r \right\rangle \\ &= U_c \left(\alpha \left| 0 \right\rangle \otimes \left| r \right\rangle + \beta \left| 1 \right\rangle \otimes \left| r \right\rangle \right) \\ &= \alpha \left| 0 \right\rangle \otimes \left| 0 \right\rangle + \beta \left| 1 \right\rangle \otimes \left| 1 \right\rangle \\ &\neq \left| \psi \right\rangle \otimes \left| \psi \right\rangle \end{split}$$

No cloning theorem

A quantum state cannot be copied with perfect fidelity.

Summary: Classical vs. Quantum Computing

Classical computing

- > Classical bits are 0 or 1
- Typically irreversible gate set, but reversible is possible
- > We can arbitrarily copy bits



Quantum computing

> Qubit: two-dimensional quantum system



- ⇒ Can be in superposition
- > Unitary evolution, reversible
- No cloning theorem



Why is quantum computing more powerful?

> The Hilbert space of n qubits is the tensor product $\mathcal{H} \otimes \cdots \otimes \mathcal{H}$

 \Rightarrow Dimension 2^n , number of basis states grows exponentially

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> We can build **superpositions** of basis states and apply unitary gates to them

$$|0\rangle + |1\rangle - U |0\rangle + U |1\rangle$$

⇒ "Quantum parallelism"

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$$|0
angle+|1
angle = U |0
angle+U |1
angle$$

- → "Quantum parallelism"
- > Multiple qubits can be entangled



⇒ Correlations that have no classical analog



Motivation

Classical computing

The circuit model of Quantum Computing

Experimental realization of qubits

Criteria for a physical system to be a gubit System needs to have well defined qubits and has to be scalable

Experimental realization of gubits

Qubits can be prepared in a pure state

Di Vincenzo's criteria

- Decoherence time has to be longer than the one for a single operation
- It has to be possible to implement an (approximate) universal set of gates
- Each gubit can be measured individually



Di Vincenzo's criteria

- > Criteria for a physical system to be a qubit
 - 1 System needs to have well defined qubits and has to be scalable
 - 2 Qubits can be prepared in a pure state
 - 3 Decoherence time has to be longer than the one for a single operation
 - 4 It has to be possible to implement an (approximate) universal set of gates
 - 5 Each qubit can be measured individually
- Requirements for communication
 - Possibility to interconvert stationary and flying qubits
 - Paithful transmission flying qubits between specified locations



Neutral atoms	Nuclear spins
 Cold atoms in an optical lattices Manipulation via laser/microwave pulses 	 Nuclear spins of a molecule as qubits Manipulation via NMR techniques
Trapped ions	Superconducting circuits
 Manipulation via lasers and phonon mode System with few degrees of freedom DESY. J Introduction to Quantum Computing Y Stefan Kuhn J DESY Summer Student Program 	کرتے ہے۔ Manipulation via microwave pulses Used in most commercially available m. 31.07 2023 Page 42

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A simple superconducting qubit: the Cooper pair box

> Circuit



- Josephson junction and capacitor connected to voltage
- > Hamiltonian

$$H = E_c (n - n_g)^2 - E_J \cos(\phi)$$

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- Constant E_c depends on the capacities in the circuit
- > Constants E_J and n_g can be tuned via the magnetic field and the voltage
- > Number of Cooper pairs n and phase ϕ are conjugate variables: $[n, \phi] = i$
- > In the eigenbasis of *n* we thus have

 $n\left|n\right\rangle = n\left|n\right\rangle,\quad \exp(i\phi)\left|n\right\rangle = \left|n+1\right\rangle$

>
$$E_J \cos(\phi) = \frac{1}{2} E_J (\exp(i\phi) + \exp(-i\phi))$$

A simple superconducting qubit: the Cooper pair box

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$$W = (n - n_g)^2 - \frac{E_J}{E_c} \cos(\phi)$$

- > For $E_J/E_c = 0$: harmonic potential
- n = 0: lowest two levels are not well separated from others
- n_g = 1/2: lowest two levels are degenerate



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 $E_J/E_c = 0$ is not suitable to have a qubit.

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$$W = (n - n_g)^2 - \frac{E_J}{E_c} \cos(\phi)$$

- > For $E_J/E_c \ll 1$: level splitting due to nonlinearity of the Josephson junction
- > n has a fairly concrete value
- > For $n_g = 1/2$ levels are well separated from the ones above



M. H. Devoret, A. Wallraff, J. M. Martinis, arXiv:cond-mat/0411174 (2004)

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 $E_J/E_c \ll 1$ is a charge qubit.

A simple superconducting qubit: the Cooper pair box

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$$W = (n - n_g)^2 - \frac{E_J}{E_c} \cos(\phi)$$

- > For intermediate E_J/E_c lowest levels fairly flat
- Less sensitivity to charge noise but less separation to higher levels



A simple superconducting qubit: the Cooper pair box

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This regime is a transmon qubit.

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- > $E_J/E_c \gg 1$: $\cos(\phi)$ dominates
- > Expanding around $\phi = 0$

$$\cos(\phi) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}\phi^2$$

> Harmonic oscillator in ϕ independent of n_g



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Superconducting qubits

- > Applying gates: couple the qubit to a microwave cavity
- > Jaynes-Cummings Hamiltonian

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{H} &= \overline{\hbar \omega a^{\dagger} a} + \overline{\hbar \frac{\Omega}{2} Z} + \overline{\hbar g (a^{\dagger} \sigma^{-} + a \sigma^{+})} \\ & \uparrow \\ & \uparrow \\ a^{\dagger}: \text{ creation operator for microwave photons} \\ \sigma^{\pm} &= \frac{1}{2} (X \pm iY) \\ \omega: \text{ microwave frequency} \\ \Omega: \text{ frequency of the qubit} \\ g: \text{ coupling strength} \end{aligned}$$

> In practice more elaborate designs

Superconducting qubits

- > Applying gates: couple the qubit to a microwave cavity
- > Jaynes-Cummings Hamiltonian

$$\mathcal{H} = \overline{\hbar\omega a^{\dagger}a} + \overline{\hbar\frac{\Omega}{2}Z} + \overline{\hbar}g(a^{\dagger}\sigma^{-} + a\sigma^{+})$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{cavity}} \underbrace{ }_{\text{qubit}} \underbrace{ }_{\text{qubit}} \underbrace{ }_{\text{coupling between qubit and cavity}}$$

$$a^{\dagger}: \text{ creation operator for microwave photons}$$

$$\sigma^{\pm} = \frac{1}{2}(X \pm iY)$$

$$\omega: \text{ microwave frequency}$$

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> In practice more elaborate designs



J. M. Chow et al., Nature Comm. 5 4015 (2014)

Thank you for your attention!

Questions?