

QUANTUM COMPUTING DEMONSTRATION

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BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

- Quantum systems evolve in a state space exponentially larger than the number of parameters require to define each state
- This exponential complexity hinders the simulation of large quantum system using classical computers but simultaneously enables quantum parallelism

 "Nature isn't classical, goddamn it! And if you want to make a simulation of Nature, you'd better make it quantum mechanical, and by golly it's a wonderful problem, because it doesn't look so easy."

[Richard Feynman, 1981]

BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

- In 1985 Deutsch developed a model of a quantum Turing machine, a theoretical basis for quantum computing
- In 1994 Shor has shown that efficient (O(log³(N))) factorization of prime numbers is possible on quantum computers;
 It hasn't been shown that classical polylogarithmic algorithms for factorization don't exist, although none is known
- In **1996** Grover proposed a **search** algorithm on **unstructured databases** with complexity $O(\sqrt{N})$, quadratically better than classical searches (O(N))

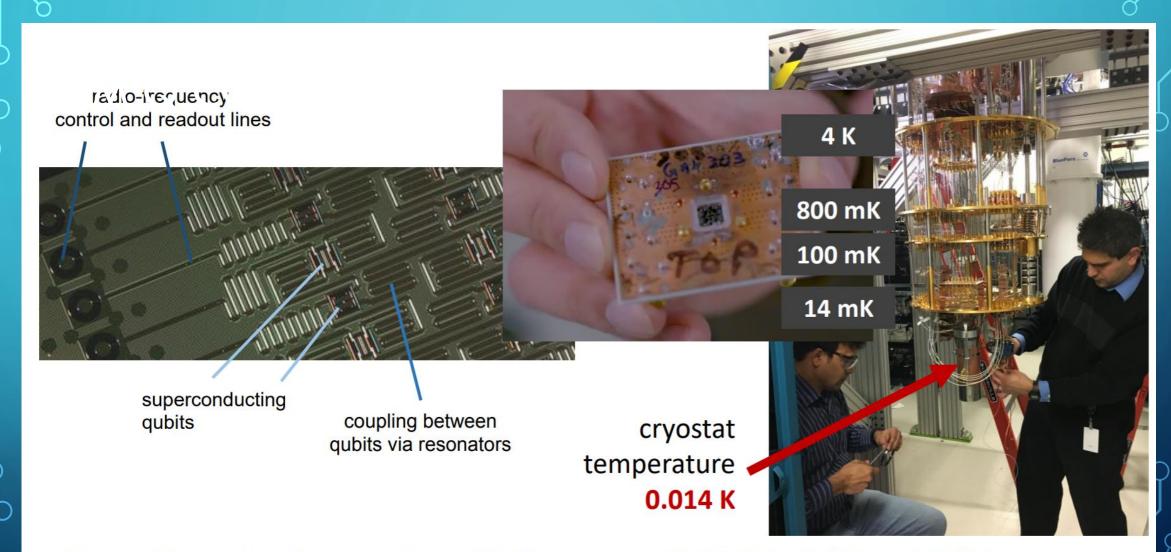
BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

- NISQ (Noisy Intermediate Scale Quantum) era:
 - Noisy qubits
 - Noisy q-gates
 - 20 .. 50 qubits (100 seem feasible)¹
 - Limited connectivity among qubits
 - Limited coherence time (~100 usec)

¹ Adiabatic quantum computers can reach 2000 qubits (D-Wave 2000Q System), but operate based on the simulated annealing algorithm and the adiabatic theorem, requiring the modelling of optimization problems as physical Hamiltonians



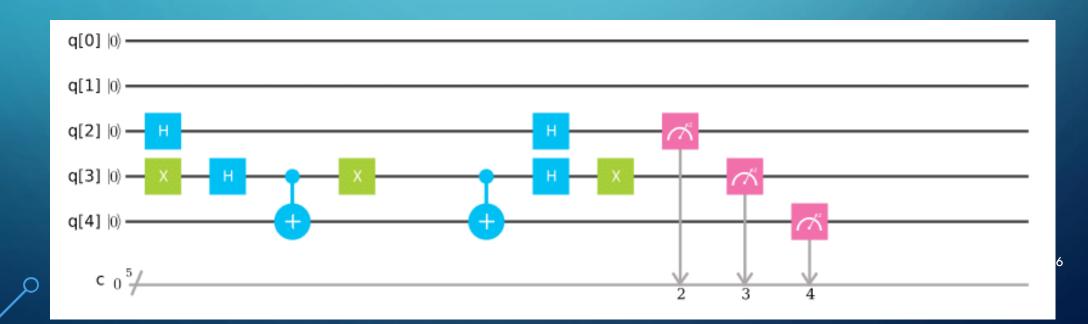
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"Demonstration of a quantum error detection code using a square lattice of four superconducting qubits", A.D. Córcoles et al., Nat. Comm., 6:6979 (2015)

QUANTUM CIRCUIT MODEL

- Quantum computers can represent an exponentially large number of states due to quantum parallelism
- The quantum circuit model generalizes the binary logic gates model used in classical computers: quantum gates operate on quantum states



#1 - QUBIT

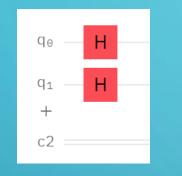
• A classical bit's value is uniquely and deterministically either 0 or 1 $b \in \{0,1\}$

• A quantum state is a linear combination (superposition) of the basis states: $|q\rangle = \alpha_0 |0\rangle + \alpha_1 |1\rangle; \ \alpha_0, \alpha_1 \in \mathbb{C}, \ \sum_{i=0}^1 |\alpha_i|^2 = 1$

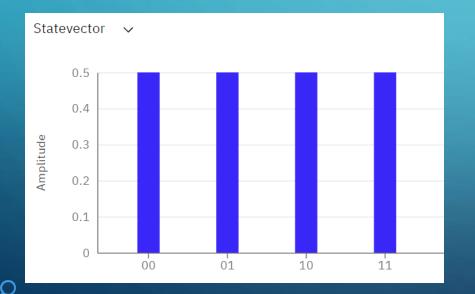
 A qubit can be in both basis states simultaneously, and any quantum operation on the qubit operates over both states

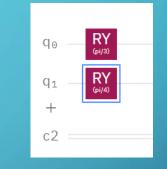
• A qubit can behave like a classical bit by setting one of the weights α_i to 1 and the quantum machine can behave as a classical computer

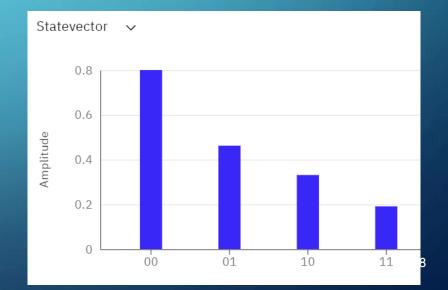
IBM Q EXPERIENCE - QUBIT



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#1 - QUBIT

• A superposition of n qubits is a linear combination of 2^n states:

 $|q^{\otimes n}\rangle \equiv |\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^{n}-1} \alpha_{i} |i\rangle, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{2^{n}-1} |\alpha_{i}|^{2} = 1$

 any quantum operation on the n qubits superposition operates over all 2ⁿ states

#2 - MEASUREMENT

• Measurement of a quantum register **yields a classic state** measurement $(|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^{n}-1} \alpha_{i} |i\rangle) = |i\rangle$, with probability $|\alpha_{i}|^{2}$

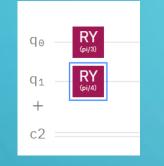
• The quantum superposition collapses into the measured state, losing all information on the α_i 's

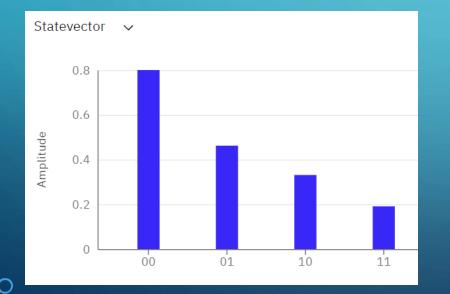
any further reading will return the same state |i
angle

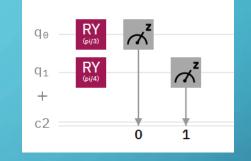
• No intermediate result can be accessed (debugging has to be rethought)

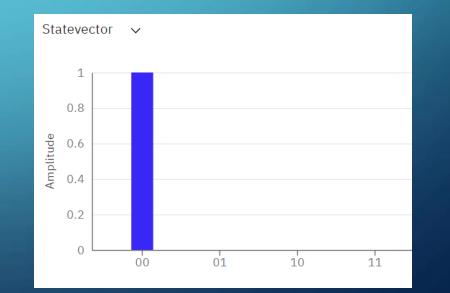
• The α_i 's cannot be accessed directly, i.e., they cannot be measured

IBM Q EXPERIENCE - MEASUREMENT







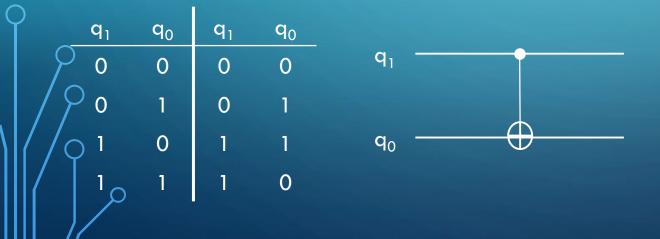


#3 – UNITARY TRANSFORMATIONS

• Physical laws require all **quantum transitions** to be **unitary**: $|\Psi'\rangle = U|\Psi\rangle \Longrightarrow U^{-1} = U^{\dagger}, \ U^{\dagger}U = I$

 This also implies means that the transformation is reversible: given the outputs the inputs can be known!

Example: CNOT gate (invert qubit q_0 if control qubit q_1 is 1):



$$\begin{split} |\Psi\rangle &= \alpha_{0}|00\rangle + \alpha_{1}|01\rangle + \alpha_{2}|10\rangle + \alpha_{3}|11\rangle \\ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{0} \\ \alpha_{1} \\ \alpha_{3} \\ \alpha_{2} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{0} \\ \alpha_{1} \\ \alpha_{2} \\ \alpha_{3} \end{bmatrix} \\ |\Psi'\rangle &= \alpha_{0}|00\rangle + \alpha_{1}|01\rangle + \alpha_{3}|10\rangle + \alpha_{2}|11\rangle \end{split}^{12}$$

#3 – UNITARY TRANSFORMATIONS

- Unitary transformations have a number of outputs equal to the number of inputs
- Classical boolean gates are not reversible
- Quantum gates:

• NOT (X gate): $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

• Rotation (phase shift): $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta} \end{bmatrix}$

#3 – UNITARY TRANSFORMATIONS (HADAMARD)

• The Hadamard gate is often used to prepare uniform superpositions

• Hadamard: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ |0> — H q₀

 $|q_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1\\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2}\\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|0\rangle + |1\rangle]$

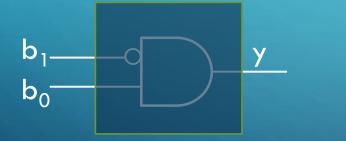


$$|q_1q_0\rangle = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \otimes \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} [|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle]$$

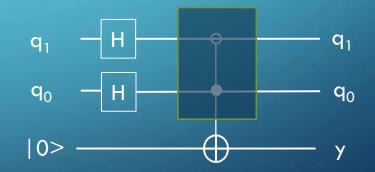
#4 - QUANTUM PARALLELISM

- An *n*-qubits register represents $N=2^n$ states simultaneously
- A quantum algorithm operates over the N states simultaneously
- Quantum parallelism is exponential on the number of qubits

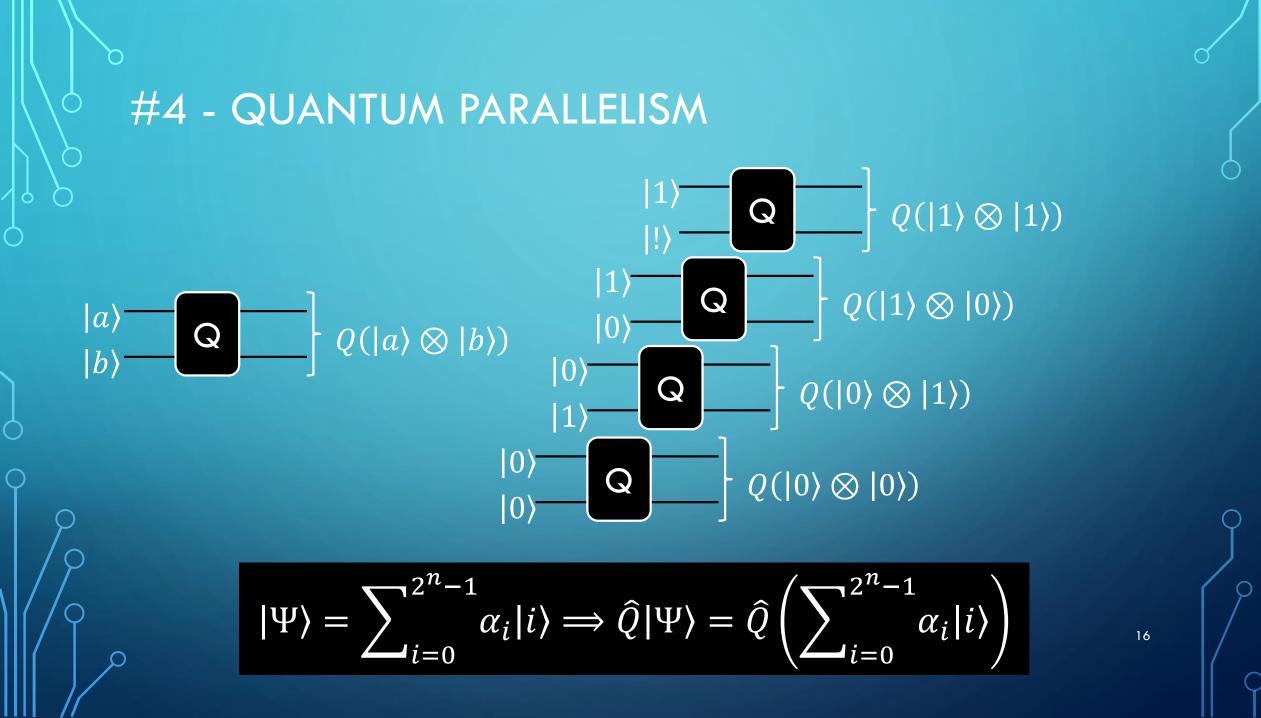
Example: what is the key encoded in the circuit?



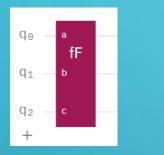
4 executions are required to iterate over the 4 possible candidates

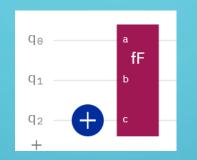


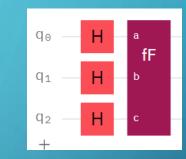
1 execution is enough to encode the solution in $|q_1 q_0 y>$, but ...

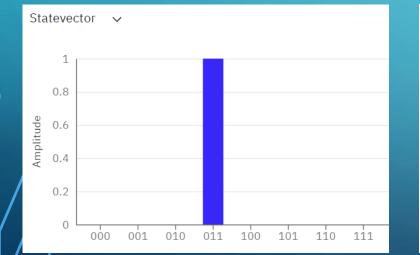


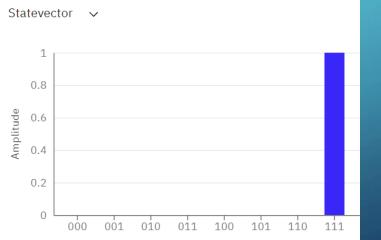
IBM Q EXPERIENCE – QUANTUM PARALLELISM

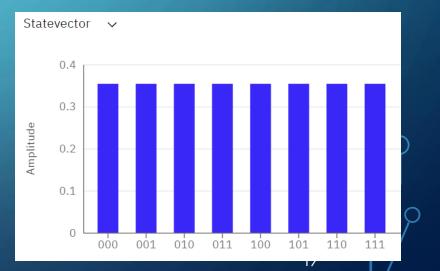












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#4 - QUANTUM PARALLELISM

- Resembles data parallelism: the same algorithm is simultaneously applied to all possible states, but without replication of resources
- Caveat: when a measurement is performed to access the result, only a single state is read, and this is stochastically selected
- Information on all other states is lost
- This irreversible loss of information means that even though the computation evolves on an exponentially large state space, we only have access to a very limited portion of it

#5 - NO-CLONING THEOREM

• Quantum information cannot be copied!

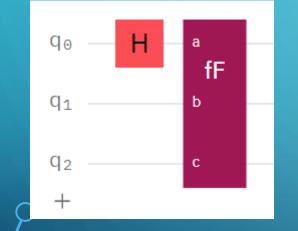
• There is no unitary transformation that copies one arbitrary quantum superposition in one register to another register: $|R\rangle|Q\rangle \longrightarrow U|R\rangle|Q\rangle = |R\rangle|R\rangle$

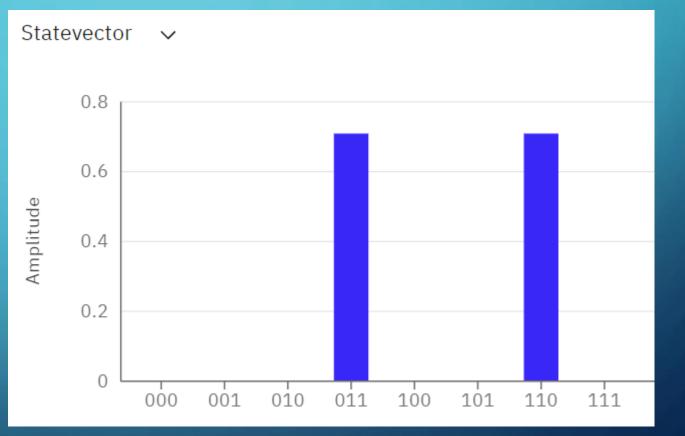
 Copying intermediate results into temporary storage (variables) is thus impossible

#6 – INITIAL STATE

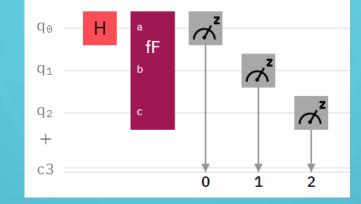
- Quantum algorithms require that quantum registers are initialized to some known state
- This **initial state** is referred to as the **ground state** and usually made to be the **basis state** $|0\rangle$
- Loading data to the quantum registers may in many cases require a number of gates (computation) larger than the number of gates necessary to execute the intended algorithm, offseting the quantum advantage

MEASUREMENTS ON A SIMULATOR





MEASUREMENTS ON A REAL SYSTEM



Histogram

