Quantum Computing and Quantum Communication

Michal Kloc

http://quantumtheory-bruder.physik.unibas.ch

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A little bit of historical context and timeline

- 1920s: foundations of quantum mechanics (QM) Schrödinger, Heisenberg, Planck...
- 1960s-70s: intersection of QM with information theory Bell, Bennett, Holevo...
- early 1980s: conceptual ideas of quantum computation Benioff, Feynman...

'The computer as a physical system: A microscopic quantum mechanical Hamiltonian model of computers as represented by Turing machines'

Paul Benioff, J Stat Phys 22, 563-591 (1980)

"How can we simulate the quantum mechanics?....Can you do it with a new kind of computer - a quantum computer? It is not a Turing machine, but a machine of a different kind."

Richard Feynman, 1981

- early 1990s: quantum algorithms Deutsch, Shor...
- after 2000: dramatic progress in realizations of experimental platforms
 - quantum annealers (D-Wave)
 - quantum simulators (cold atoms in optical lattices, trapped ions)
 - different qubit realizations (superconducting circuits etc.)
 - hybrid systems



Quantum communication link over $7600 \, \mathrm{km}$ distance established:

Phys. Rev. Lett. 120, 030501 (2018)



"Quantum supremacy" demonstrated by Google: quantum computer: 200 s classical computer: 10.000 a (?)

Nature 574, 505 (2019)

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- building blocks of quantum information
 - quantum bits (qubits)
 - superposition and entanglement
 - gates and universal computation
 - Deutsch algorithm
- decoherence, quantum error correction, no-cloning theorem, quantum teleportation
- quantum cryptography, quantum "hardware"

References

- N. D. Mermin, Quantum computer science, Cambridge University Press
- M. A. Nielsen and I. L. Chuang, Quantum computation and quantum information, Cambridge University Press
- Lecture notes by C. Bruder, R. Tiwari, N. Lörch and M. Koppenhöffer

Quantum bits

- a classical computer manipulates bits: possible states 0 or 1 are *discrete*
- a quantum computer manipulates qubits
 ≡ quantum two-level systems:
 possible states (α|0⟩ + β|1⟩) are continuous
 α, β are complex numbers, |α|² + |β|² = 1.
- general qubit state parametrized by two angles $\theta \in [0, \pi]$, $\phi \in [0, 2\pi)$

$$|\psi
angle = \cos{\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)}|0
angle + \sin{\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)}{
m e}^{i\phi}|1
angle$$

$$\alpha = |\alpha| e^{i\phi_{\alpha}}, \ \beta = |\beta| e^{i\phi_{\beta}}$$

parametrize $|\alpha| = \cos \theta/2, \ |\beta| = \sin \theta/2, \ \phi = \phi_{\beta} - \phi_{\alpha}$



- state of a system = state vector $|\psi\rangle$ in a Hilbert space ${\cal H}$
- operators act on states (e.g., Hamiltonian operator \hat{H})
- observables represented by Hermitian operators (real spectrum)

$$\hat{H}^{\dagger} = \hat{H}$$

• Schrödinger equation here for simplicity $\hat{H} \neq \hat{H}(t)$

$$i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} |\Psi\rangle = \hat{H} |\Psi\rangle \rightsquigarrow |\Psi(t)\rangle = \mathrm{e}^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}\hat{H}t} |\Psi(0)
angle$$

 $\hat{U}(t) \equiv \mathrm{e}^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}\hat{H}t}$, evolution operator
 $\hat{U}^{\dagger}\hat{U} = \hat{U}\hat{U}^{\dagger} = 1$, unitary evolution

 states can be written as linear combination (*superposition*) of orthonormal basis states {|n⟩}

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{n} \gamma_{n} |n\rangle$$

• probabilistic outcomes of measurements probability of finding the state $|\Psi\rangle$ in some $|\tilde{n}\rangle \in \{|n\rangle\}$

$$P_{\Psi}(\tilde{n}) = |\langle \tilde{n} | \Psi \rangle|^2 = |\gamma_{\tilde{n}}|^2$$

normalization requires

$$\sum_{n} |\gamma_{n}|^{2} = 1$$

- dim $\mathcal{H} = 2$
 - physical state $|\uparrow
 angle
 ightarrow$ logical state |0
 angle
 - physical state $|\downarrow\rangle \rightarrow$ logical state $|1\rangle$
- operators acting on one qubit can be represented by 2×2 matrices
- e.g., in the basis of eigenstates of $\hat{\sigma}_z$, $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$: Pauli matrices:

$$\hat{\sigma}_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
, $\hat{\sigma}_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\hat{\sigma}_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

• all two-level systems are mathematically equivalent!

- 2 bits can represent 4 numbers: 00, 01, 10, 11
- 2 qubits \Rightarrow 4 basis states
 - $|0\rangle_1\otimes|0\rangle_2$
 - $|0\rangle_1 \otimes |1\rangle_2$
 - $|1\rangle_1 \otimes |0\rangle_2$
 - $|1\rangle_1 \otimes |1\rangle_2$
- we omit the indices 1,2 and write $|00\rangle,\,|01\rangle,\,|10\rangle,\,|11\rangle$
- 2-qubit state: $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$, where $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 + |\gamma|^2 + |\delta|^2 = 1$
- similarly, we define 3-qubit, 4-qubit, ... N-qubit states
- for N qubits, we have 2^N basis states
 ⇒ simulating quantum systems on classical computers is hard!

remember Feynman's quote...

- quantum nature shows non-classical correlations: entanglement
- classical N-bit states can be "factorized"

Example: classical state (11)

- bit 1 is in state "1", bit 2 is in state "1"
- equivalent quantum state: $|11
 angle = |1
 angle \otimes |1
 angle$
- But there are quantum states that cannot be factorized

Example: state $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle) \neq |\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle_2$

• system can only be described as a whole

entanglement (formal definition)

Let \mathcal{H} be a composite system $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{I} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{r}$. We denote orthonormal bases on \mathcal{H}_{I} and \mathcal{H}_{r} as $\{|\psi_{Ii}\rangle\}_{i=1}^{m}$ and $\{|\psi_{rj}\rangle\}_{j=1}^{n}$. A general state $|\Psi\rangle \in \mathcal{H}$ can be expressed as

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \gamma_{ij} |\psi_{li}\rangle |\psi_{rj}\rangle \neq \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} |\psi_{li}\rangle \sum_{j=1}^{n} \beta_{j} |\psi_{rj}\rangle,$$

i. e. the coefficients γ_{ij} cannot be generally factorized as $\gamma_{ij} \neq \alpha_i \beta_j$.

Informally: In the case of a general state I cannot tell which part of $|\Psi\rangle$ belongs to \mathcal{H}_I and which to \mathcal{H}_r . They are entangled.

• where the non-classical correlations show up?

$$rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\ket{00}+\ket{11}
ight)$$

- What happens if we measure $\hat{\sigma}_z$ on qubit 1 and qubit 2?
- either we get 0 for qubit 1 and 0 for qubit 2 (probability $\frac{1}{2}$)
- or we get 1 for qubit 1 and 1 for qubit 2 (probability $\frac{1}{2}$)
- but never any "mixed" result

- $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$: superposition of two 1-qubit states
- $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$: entangled superposition of two 2-qubit states

$$|\psi
angle = rac{1}{2} \left(|00
angle + |10
angle + |01
angle + |11
angle
ight)$$

- superposition state?
- entangled state?

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

 \Rightarrow non-entangled superposition of four 2-qubit states

classical gates: electronic circuits Many gates process the classical information in a non-reversible way

From the output of AND one cannot restore A and B .



כ	0	0	
ו	1	1	
1	0	1	
1	1	1	

Ā

1

A.B

Π

Ο

Π

A+B

OR

• classical NOT gate:

NOT 0 = 1NOT 1 = 0

• quantum NOT gate:
$$\hat{\sigma}_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



•
$$\hat{\sigma}_x |1\rangle = |0\rangle$$

•
$$\hat{\sigma}_{x}(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) = \alpha|1\rangle + \beta|0\rangle$$



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Properties of quantum gates

- quantum gates are linear transformations of state vectors
- *N*-qubit gate can be represented by a $2^N imes 2^N$ matrix \hat{U}
- \hat{U} must be unitary to preserve normalization of state vector:

$$\hat{U}\hat{U}^{\dagger}=\hat{U}^{\dagger}\hat{U}=\mathbb{1}$$

 \Rightarrow quantum gates are *reversible*!

• NOT gate:
$$\hat{\sigma}_{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

 $\hat{\sigma}_{x}|0\rangle = |1\rangle$
 $\hat{\sigma}_{x}|1\rangle = |0\rangle$
• Hadamard gate: $\hat{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\hat{\sigma}_{x} + \hat{\sigma}_{z}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
 $\hat{H}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \equiv |+\rangle, \quad \hat{\sigma}_{x}|+\rangle = |+\rangle$
 $\hat{H}|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \equiv |-\rangle, \quad \hat{\sigma}_{x}|-\rangle = -|-\rangle$

any single qubit gate can be decomposed into rotations on the Bloch sphere, see the exercise sheet...

- 2-qubit gate
- flip second (target) qubit if first (control) qubit is $|1\rangle$:
- circuit diagram:

control qubit:
$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle$$

target qubit: $|0\rangle$ \longrightarrow $\alpha |00\rangle + \beta |11\rangle$

maximally entangled 2-qubit states $|eta_{00}
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00
angle+|11
angle)$ $|eta_{01}
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01
angle+|10
angle)$ $|eta_{10}
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00
angle-|11
angle)$ $|eta_{11}
angle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|01
angle - |10
angle)$

General expression:

 $|eta_{xy}
angle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0y
angle + (-1)^x|1ar{y}
angle)$



1 input state: |xy
angle=|00
angle

2 apply Hadamard gate

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
:
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |10\rangle)$

3 apply CNOT gate:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00\rangle + |11\rangle) = |\beta_{00}\rangle$$

Toffoli gate

- 3-qubit gate
- flip third (target) qubit if the first two (control) qubits are |1
 angle
- in basis $|000\rangle$, $|001\rangle$, $|010\rangle$, $|011\rangle$, $|100\rangle$, $|101\rangle$, $|110\rangle$, $|111\rangle$:



• $\mathcal{TT} = \mathbb{1} \Rightarrow \mathcal{T}^{-1} = \mathcal{T}$, Toffoli gate is reversible

• Toffoli gate can simulate a classical NAND gate



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Λ

N

 Can a quantum circuit simulate a classical logical circuit?

- of course (world around us is quantum !!)
- but: all unitary quantum logic gates are inherently reversible whereas many classical logic gates are irreversible
- classical NAND gate is universal, i.e., all classical logic gates can be built using only NAND gates {AND, NOT} form a *functionally complete* set
- using Toffoli gates, any classical algorithm can be made reversible \Rightarrow can be executed on a quantum computer

Note for universal quantum computation, one needs CNOT, \hat{H} , phase gate $\hat{S} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}$, and $\pi/8$ gate $\hat{T} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ e^{i\pi/4} \end{pmatrix}$

Is $f(x): \{0,1\} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ balanced or constant?

- balanced if $f(0) = \overline{f(1)} \Leftrightarrow f(0) \oplus f(1) = 1$
- constant if $f(0) = f(1) \Leftrightarrow f(0) \oplus f(1) = 0$
- $\hat{U}_f : |x, y\rangle \rightarrow |x, y \oplus f(x)\rangle$ quantum circuit implementing $y + f(x) \mod 2$ in the second qubit
- example: input $|x
 angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0
 angle+|1
 angle)$, |y
 angle=|0
 angle leads to

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

 \Rightarrow one "application" of f results in both f(0) and f(1)!

- but: measurement gives either $|0, f(0)\rangle$ or $|1, f(1)\rangle$
- so, quantum parallelism does not help ...?



• final state is $\propto |f(0) \oplus f(1)\rangle \otimes (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$

⇒ measuring the first qubit gives a global property of f, namely $f(0) \oplus f(1)$, using only one evaluation of f(x)

• this is impossible on a classical computer!

- computation = unitary (reversible) evolution of a set of qubits
- gates act on (possibly entangled) superposition of states
 ⇒ high degree of parallelism
- restrictions on readout of quantum information
 ⇒ use interference to condense information for measurement
- *N*-qubit generalization of Deutsch algorithm and Shor's prime-factoring algorithm show exponential speedup compared to classical algorithms (but the same problems could in principle also be solved on a classical computer)

- Any two-level quantum system can encode a qubit
- Logical operations performed by quantum gates = operators on the system's Hilbert space
- Quantum circuits can perform all operations performed by classical circuits
- Quantum superposition and entanglement allow for quantum parallelism = dramatic speedup in computational times

Try quantum computing yourself

