

# Quantum Computing



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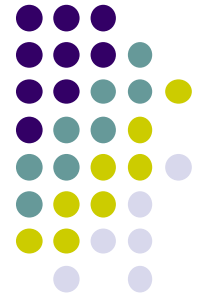
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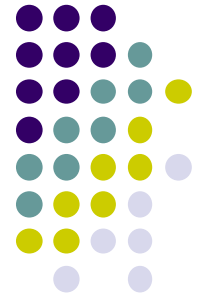


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# Introduction

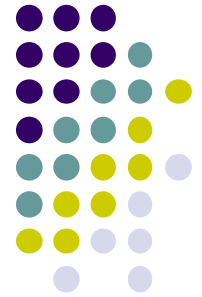
- Quantum computing could be really important in:
  - industries where are significant optimization problems
  - pharmaceuticals and drug discovery
  - new materials, like high temperature superconductors
  - secure information communications and cybersecurity
  - financial services
  - artificial intelligence
- We want a Universal fault-tolerant quantum computer (QC)
  - now there is an approximate quantum computer
  - there are also quantum annealed based QCs



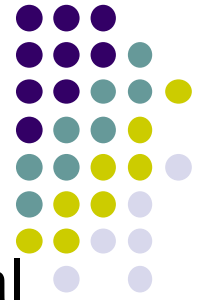
# Introduction

- When Quantum Computers will be available
  - in a few years?
  - in a couple of decades?
  - never [Dyakonov19]?
- Error rate must be lowered
- Coherency time must be improved (now some tens of  $\mu\text{s}$ )
- Topology is important
  - Qubits optimal for the selected algorithm should be found by means of a compiler
- QCs are now coprocessors
- Quantum Advantage [Monroe19]
- Quantum Supremacy
  - solving selected problems faster than a conventional computer

# Classical computers



- Physical model
  - mechanical (Babbage)
  - electrical
  - optical
  - biological (e.g a person)
- Conceptual model
  - Von Neumann architecture
  - Turing machine
  - Cellular automata (e.g. Game of Life)



# History of QC

- Richard P. Feynman(International Journal of Theoretical Physics, Vol. 21, Nos. 6/7, pp. 467-488, 1982)
  - "how can we simulate the quantum mechanics?...Let the computer itself be built of quantum mechanical elements which obey quantum mechanical laws"
  - "Can a quantum system be probabilistically simulated by a classical (probabilistic, I'd assume) universal computer?....No!"
- Shor's algorithm
  - factorization of large numbers
- Quantum error correcting codes
  - to enable QCs to operate also in presence of errors
- QCs are able to solve some problems more efficiently than possible with classical computer, even is classical is strongly improved [Monroe19]
  - QCs can not be emulated from a conventional computer
  - even if  $PH(\text{polynomial hierarchy})=NP(\text{non polynomial time})=P(\text{polynomial time})$ , BQP(Bounded Quantum Polynomial) would still be separate

# Introduction to Quantum Mechanics



- Interference experiment with bullet ([Feynman64 I-37-3])
- Interference experiment with water waves ([Feynman64 I-37-3])
- Interference experiment with electrons ([Feynman64 I-37-5])
  - superposition of probability amplitudes
- Interference experiment with electrons while “watching” them ([Feynman64 I-37-7])
- Quantum mechanics with bullets? ([Feynman64 I-37-10])
- Binary amplitude grating (see video)
- Sinusoidal amplitude grating (see video)

# Introduction to Quantum Mechanics



- Interference experiment with electrons ([Feynman64 I-37-5 III-3-2])
  - superposition of probability amplitudes
- The probability that a particle starting from the electron gun  $s$  will arrive at the detector  $x$  is the absolute square of a complex number called a probability amplitude
- This amplitude is represented with Dirac notation, where  $\langle$   $\rangle$  are equivalent to “the amplitude that”

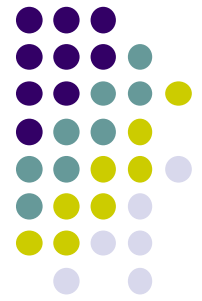
$\langle$ particle arrives at  $x$  | particle leaves  $s$  $\rangle$

final condition is at the left of | starting condition is at the right of the |

it can be written as  $\langle$ X|S $\rangle$  pronounced bra x ket s  $\rightarrow$  bracket notation

“THE AMPLITUDE THAT A PARTICLE FROM S WILL ARRIVE AT X”

# Postulates of Quantum Mechanics [Nielsen00 p.80]



1: any **isolated** physical system is completely described by its state vector

- simplest quantum mechanical system is the qubit; has a two-dimensional state space
- given  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  an orthonormal basis of the space
- state vector is  $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$

where  $|\psi\rangle$  is a unit vector,  $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle=1$

equivalent to  $|\alpha|^2+|\beta|^2=1$  (normalization condition)

2: the evolution of a **closed** quantum system is described by a **unitary** transformation  $U$ , that is  $|\psi'\rangle = U|\psi\rangle$

example of  $U$  is the Hadamard operator

If we apply  $U$ , this means there is a  $w$  who is outside the closed system, therefore the system **is not completely closed**; this **produces noise**; since we need to apply  $U$  (**for programming the computer**) we need to control noise (unitary  $\Rightarrow$  reversible, but reversible is not unitary for sure)

(please note that **a reversible computing system would not expend energy** at all, since it does not erase information [Nielsen00 p.153])

Postulates 3 (observation in quantum mechanics is an invasive procedure) and 4 (entanglement) omitted ([Nielsen00 p.84 and p.94])



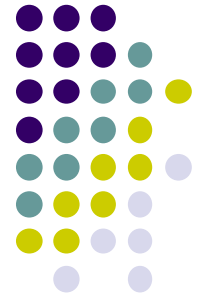
# Introduction to Quantum Mechanics



- Polarization of one photon ([Feynman64 III-11-10])
- Let's suppose a photon is polarized along  $x'$  by a piece of Polaroid; any state can be represented as a linear combination of the two base states  $|x\rangle$  and  $|y\rangle$ 
  - $|x'\rangle = \cos \vartheta |x\rangle + \sin \vartheta |y\rangle$
- Which is the probability that the photon passes through a further Polaroid along  $x$  ( $\vartheta=0$ )?
  - $\langle x|x'\rangle = \cos \vartheta \langle x|x\rangle + \sin \vartheta \langle x|y\rangle$
  - since  $\langle x|y\rangle=0$  and  $\langle x|x\rangle=1$ ,
  - $\langle x|x'\rangle = \cos \vartheta \rightarrow$  the probability is  $\cos^2 \vartheta$  (absolute square of the complex number)

classically the energy is  $\cos^2 \vartheta$  weaker

# Qubit



- a qubit  $q$  is the quantum version of a bit
  - again in base 2
  - built with two-state systems (there exist  $N$  state systems also)
    - 3-level quantum system is called a qutrit (like a trit, base 3 bit)
    - $d$ -level quantum system is called qudit
- quantum state of Qubit can take values of  $|0\rangle$ ,  $|1\rangle$ , or **both at once** (**superposition**)
  - $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  (ket 0 and ket 1) are called the standard (or computational) basis, and  $\langle 0|1\rangle = 0$
- $q = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$  [Nielsen00]
  - where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  ( $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are amplitudes [Nielsen00 p.81]) are complex numbers while  $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$  ( $|\alpha|^2$  is a probability [Nielsen00 p.13])
- measuring a qubit means to project it (collapsing in one of the two states), with a probability of  $|\alpha|^2$  to be 0 and of  $|\beta|^2$  to be 1
- **collapsing** is very useful for computer security!



# Qubit registers

- a qubit register of 2 qubits is:
  - $qr = a|00\rangle + b|01\rangle + c|10\rangle + d|11\rangle$
- Let's suppose having:
  - $\beta = w|00\rangle + w|11\rangle$
- if we measure the second qubit of  $\beta$  and it appears to be 1
  - the first WILL BE 1 => entanglement
- useful for teleportation (no Star Trek, unfortunately)

# Bloch sphere (I)



- Bloch sphere can represent 1 qubit only (2 complex numbers, but probability must sum => 3 values)
- $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  are on the North Pole and on the South Pole and are orthogonal each other

- ATTENTION: on the Bloch sphere North  $|0\rangle$  and South  $|1\rangle$  are NOT orthogonal as required:

- BECAUSE they are orthogonal in the Hilbert space => means that a system cannot be both spin-up and spin-down

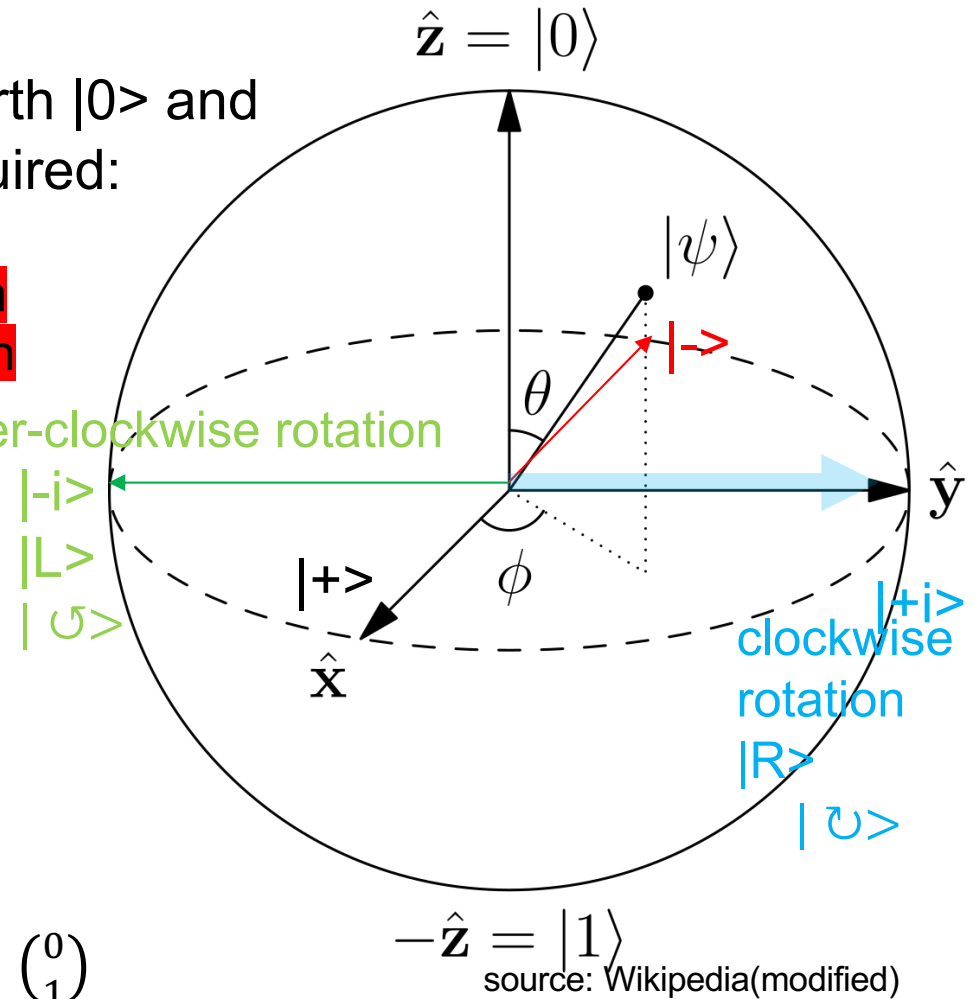
- changing  $\theta$  (e.g. starting from  $|0\rangle$ ) produces a superposition of  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$
- changing  $\phi$  means changing the phase of the qubit (gate Z, S and T)

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$

$$\alpha = \cos(\theta/2) \quad // \text{ real value}$$

$$\beta = e^{i\phi} \sin(\theta/2) \quad // \text{ phase} \quad \text{e.g. } |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Bloch sphere (II)



$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \cos\frac{\theta}{2} \\ e^{i\phi} \sin\frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{cases} x = \sin\theta \cos\phi \\ y = \sin\theta \sin\phi \\ z = \cos\theta \end{cases}$$

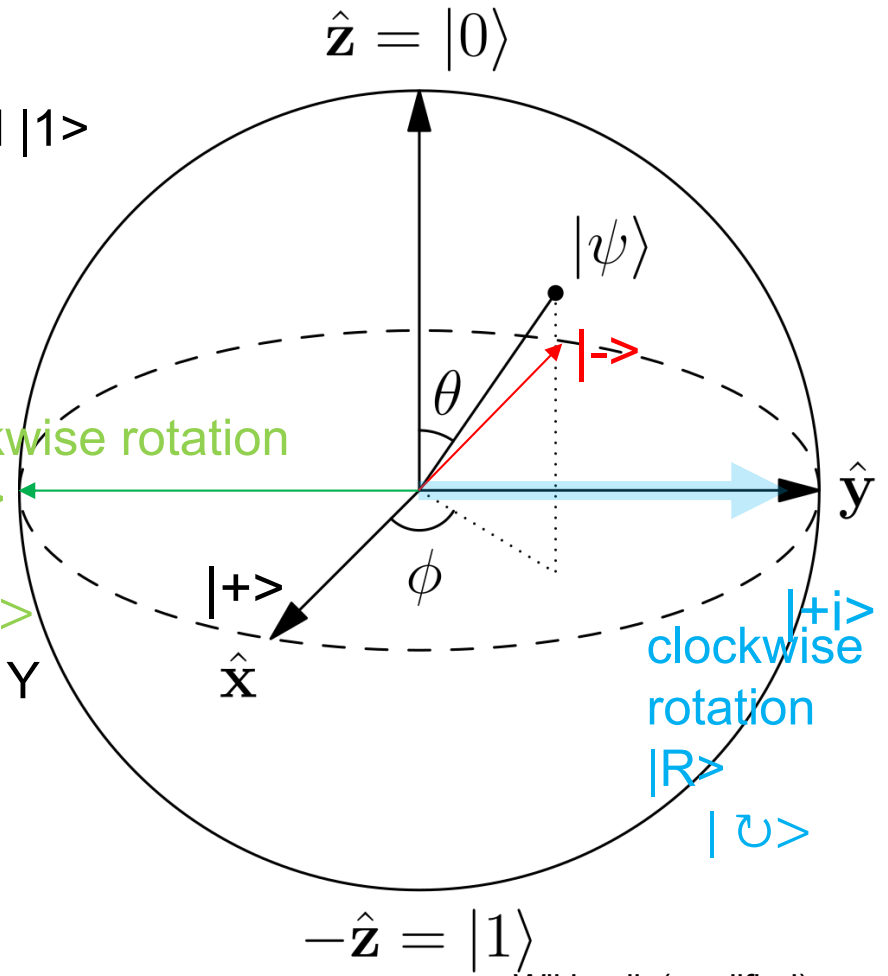
Basis:

- Computational (standard or Z basis)  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$
- Plus and minus basis (diagonal or X basis)

$$|+\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \quad |-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

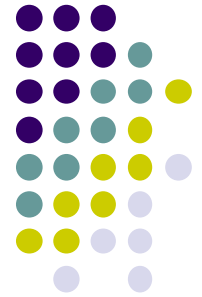
- Clockwise and counterclockwise (circular or Y basis)

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + i|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \quad |\psi\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - i|1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

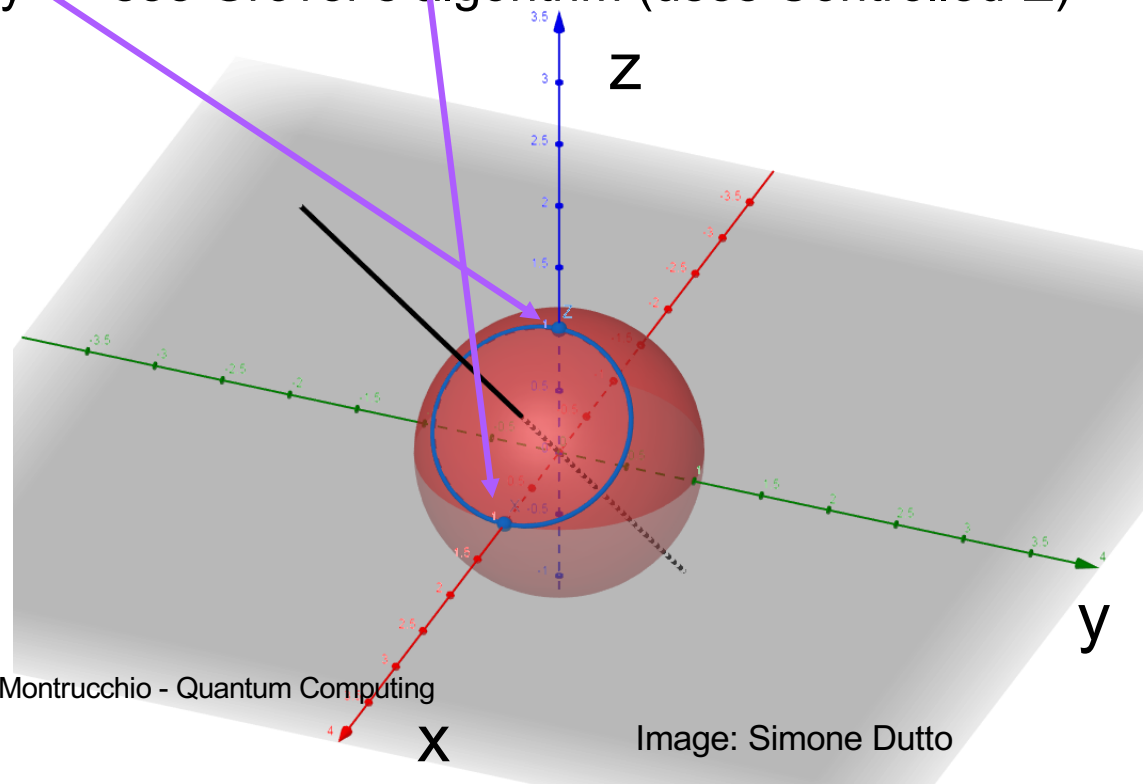


source: Wikipedia(modified)

# Quantum gates (I)



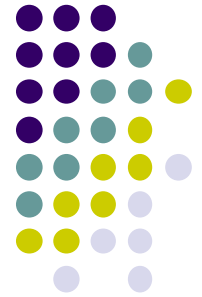
- $X$  gate, which is known as a “bit-flip” (flips  $|0\rangle$  to  $|1\rangle$  and vice versa); it is similar to a classical NOT gate
- $H$  (Hadamard) gate is a rotation around the  $X+Z$  axis
  - starting from  $|0\rangle$  a perfect superposition (50%-50% of  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$ ) is produced
  - applying again  $H$ ,  $|0\rangle$  is obtained again (deterministic)
  - but  $H-Z-H$  changes the phase (amplitude or better probability amplitude) without changing probability => see Grover’s algorithm (uses Controlled- $Z$ )
- Doing  $H-T-H$  there is no more 50%-50% because the second  $H$  starts from a point on the plane  $X-Y$  that is not  $|+\rangle$  and after  $\pi$  rotation around  $X+Z$  axis the final point is with  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$  => superposition



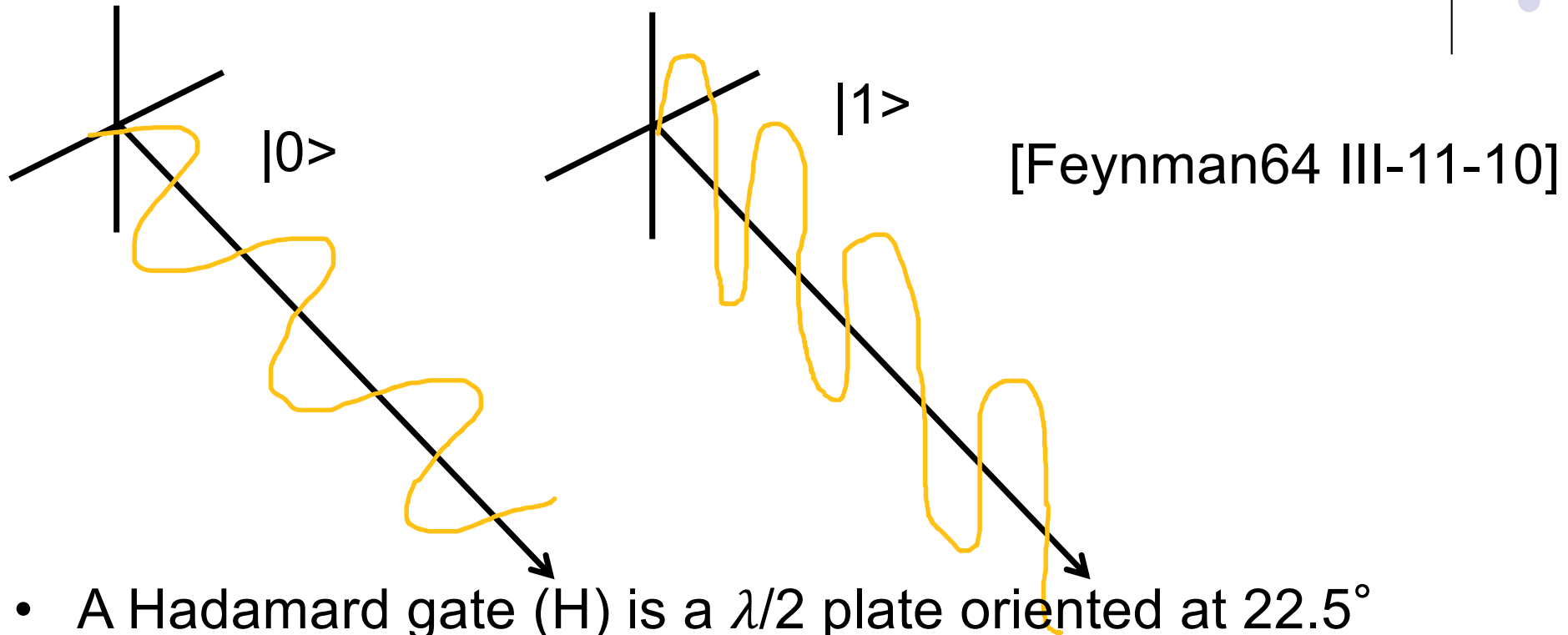


# Quantum gates (II)

- Z gate is a  $\pi$  rotation around the Z axis
  - phase-flip
- S gate is a rotation of  $\pi/2$  around Z
- T gate is a  $\pi/4$  rotation around Z
- $S^\dagger$  is the inverse of S (does a  $-\pi/2$  around Z)
- $T^\dagger$  is the inverse of T (does a  $-\pi/4$  rotation around Z)
- Y is a combined bit-flip (X) and phase-flip(Z)
  - $X+Z$



# Qubit with a photon



- A Hadamard gate (H) is a  $\lambda/2$  plate oriented at  $22.5^\circ$
- A general gate is an arbitrary rotation by means of a  $\lambda/4$ - $\lambda/2$ - $\lambda/4$  sequence of wave plates
- Right circular polarization is  $|+i\rangle$
- Left circular polarization is  $|-i\rangle$

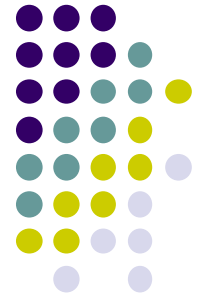


# Quantum gates (III)

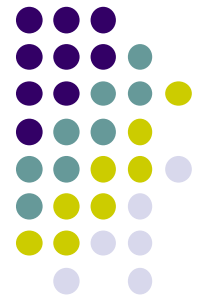


- CNOT is the controlled NOT
  - it is a quantum EXOR, that is a **reversible** EXOR
    - $|A,B\rangle \rightarrow |A,B\oplus A\rangle$  where  $\oplus$  is an addition modulo 2 (the EXOR gate) [Nielsen00 p.21]
  - the controlled value (with the EXOR symbol) is negated if the controller is 1, otherwise it remains equal
  - doing H-CNOT (with H on the controller) on  $|00\rangle$ 
    - after H result is  $(|00\rangle + |10\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$
    - after H-CNOT (with H on the controller), CNOT flips the second qubit if the first is excited  $\Rightarrow (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)/\sqrt{2} \rightarrow$  ENTANGLEMENT ([Corbett19] p.73)
  - controller and controlled values positions depend also from the hardware architecture of the QC qubits
    - In IBM Q custom topology CNOT can be put everywhere
    - In IBM Q actual computers, CNOT controller and controlled positions depends on the qubits topology (directed graph)

# Quantum gates (IV)



- Controlled-Z
  - like CNOT produces a X (that is a NOT) if controller is 1, Controlled-Z produces a Z only if the controller is 1
  - Doing H-ControlledZ-H the phase is reversed under control (see Grover)
- Toffoli
  - it is a universal gate for **reversible** computation
  - similar to NAND used in classical computation

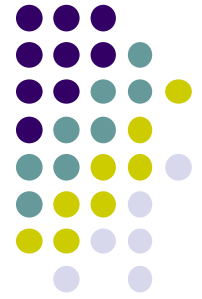


# Quantum gates (V)

- In IBM computer gates:
  - $u1(\lambda)=U(0,0,\lambda)$ ,  $u2(\varphi, \lambda)=U(\pi/2,\varphi,\lambda)$  and  $u3(\theta,\varphi,\lambda)=U(\theta,\varphi,\lambda)$
  - e.g.  $H=u2(0,\pi)$

allow  $|\psi\rangle = U |\psi\rangle$ , where:

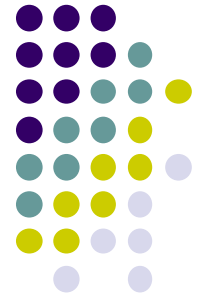
$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -e^{i\lambda} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ e^{i\varphi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & e^{i\lambda+i\varphi} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$



# Examples

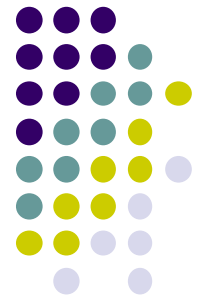
- $|0\rangle \xrightarrow{X} |1\rangle \xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \xrightarrow{X} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle - |0\rangle) \xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{2} (|0\rangle - |1\rangle - |0\rangle - |1\rangle) = -|1\rangle$ 
  - amplitude changes its sign
- $|0\rangle \xrightarrow{H} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \xrightarrow{X} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|1\rangle + |0\rangle) \xrightarrow{H} |0\rangle$ 
  - amplitude does NOT change sign

# QC Computers and Simulators

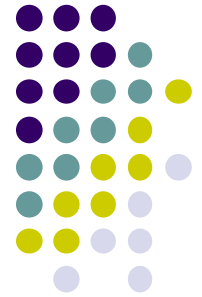


- It is possible to run actual QC programs or simulate quantum circuits (and Bloch sphere)
  - [IBMQ] Graphical interface and Python based emulator and OpenQASM system
    - cloud usage of the true QC computer possible
  - [D-Wave] Quantum annealing based (5000 qubits July 2020) computer
    - cloud usage of the true QC computer possible
  - [MS18] Q# language (emulator)
  - [Rigetti18] development kit
  - [Corbett19] software for IBM Q
  - [QCsim19] with a list of simulators (in particular Quirk)

# IBM Q Quantum Composer and languages



- Quantum Composer is similar to a musical score [Corbett19]
  - each line is a qubit
  - time flows from left to right
- There are 3 possibilities:
  1. Real Quantum Processor => in Simulation
  2. Real Quantum Processor => in Running
  3. Custom Topology (ALL to ALL qubits, max 20) => in Simulation only!
- There is also the possibility of having OpenQASM language version
- Third possibility is QISKit
  - Python based

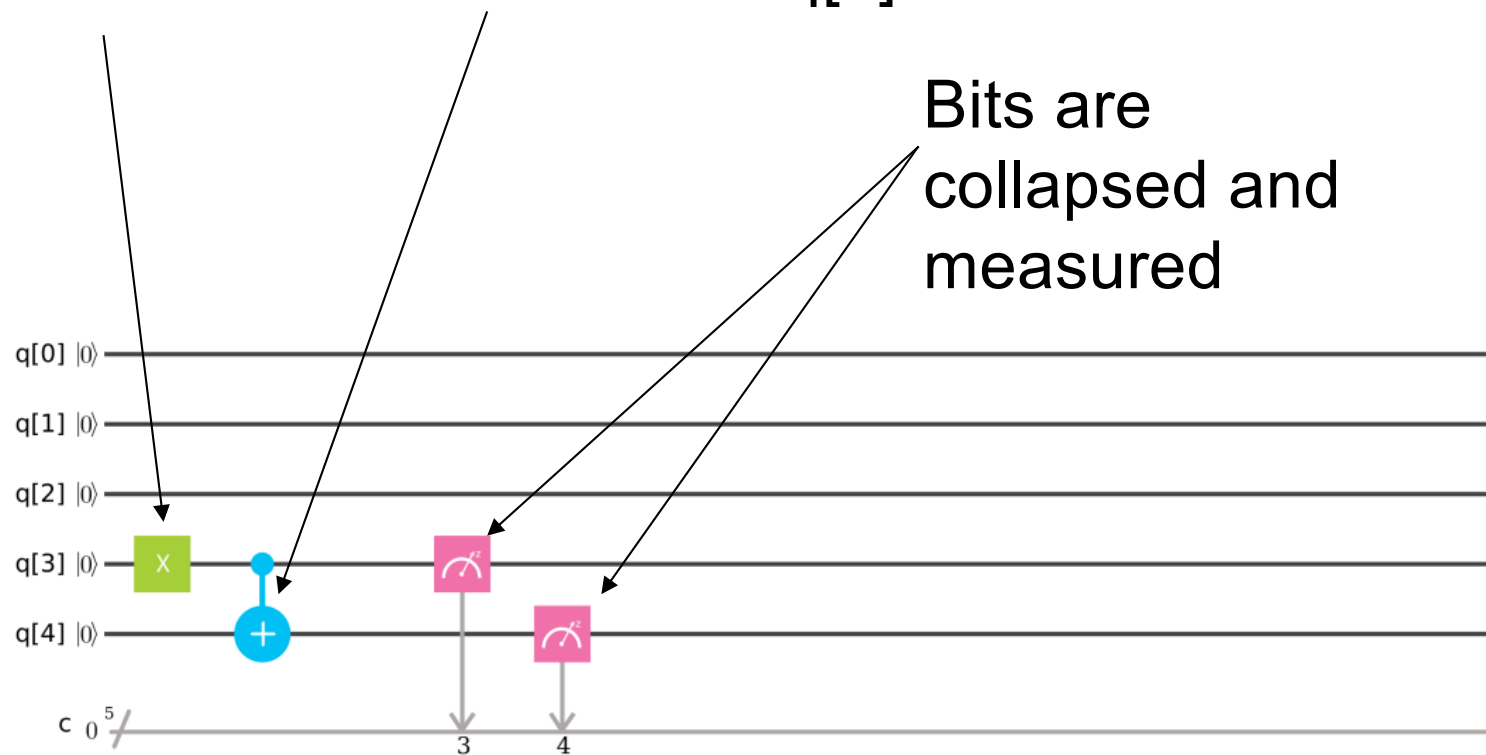


# IBM Q example

$|0\rangle$  is inverted by X gate and becomes  $|1\rangle$

CNOT gate:  $q[4]$  is inverted (NOT) if  $q[3]$  is 1, otherwise  $q[4]$  is unaltered

Bits are collapsed and measured





# Entanglement and teleportation

- Using CNOT it is possible to produce entanglement between two bits
- It is then possible to separate the two qubits (at speed lower than  $c$  !)
- Finally collapsing one qubit (50% of 1 and 50% of 0)
  - the other qubit will be entangled as soon as it will be collapsed also
  - no matter distance



# Classical and Quantum complexity

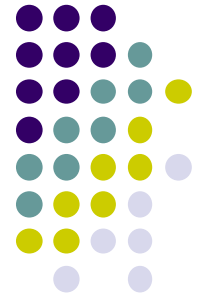


- if superposition is not used, QC is like a classical computer [LaUh09 p.23]
- in terms of computability, classical and quantum computers are almost equivalent
- factorization of a  $n$ -bit integer is a NP problem (non polynomial, in particular exponential for a classical computer)
  - it is polynomial on a QC with Shor's algorithm
- however this improvement is not sure for all NP problems

# Advantages and disadvantages of QC



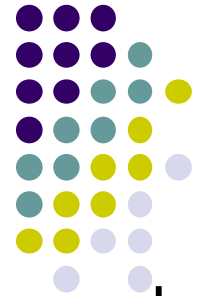
- Entire known universe could be put in  $2^{800}$  bits of information
  - The entire universe could be simulated in parallel with 800 qubits? NO
  - Initialization would require  $2^{800}$  operations, too slow
  - Output would require  $2^{800}$  steps, or in the best case  $2^{400}$
- Quantum information **can not be forged** and the destructive nature of measurements means **we can find eavesdroppers**
  - great for computer security applications!



# Amplitude amplification

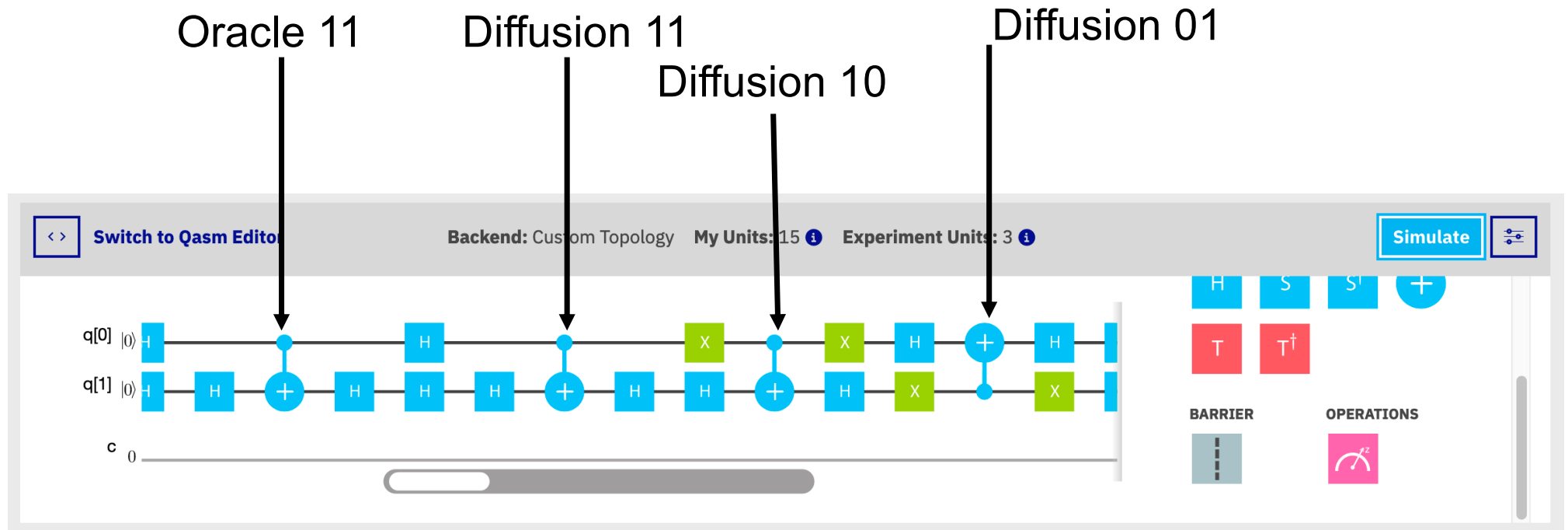
- A standard register of  $n$  bits can have  $N=2^n$  states, but only one at a time
- An  $n$  qubits register has in the same time  $N=2^n$  values
  - when I read it, it collapses in one of the  $2^n$  states
- It is possible:
  - to create a uniform superposition (with Hadamard)
  - to modify the probability distribution increasing the probability of the solution we want
  - to measure the system (collapsing it) and get the result
  - more than one full iteration is required (it is probabilistic)

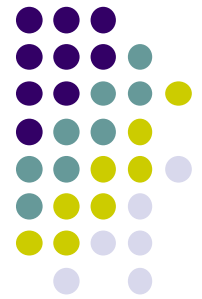
# Grover (I)



- With Grover's algorithm [LaUh09 p. 39] it is possible to search:
  - in an unstructured an unsorted database with  $N$  elements
  - classical complexity is  $O(N)$ 
    - sequential search (binary search  $O(\log(N))$ ) while hash table  $O(1)$ , but data are ordered)
- $O(N^{1/2})$  is sufficient with the QC
- Using more or less than  $O(N^{1/2})$  reduces the probability of success
  - E.g. with  $n=3$  qubits,  $2^n = 8$  elements in the search space, after:
    - 0 iteration with a uniform superposition → probability of success is about 0.125
    - 1 iteration with a uniform superposition → probability of success is about 0.78
    - 2 iteration with a uniform superposition → probability of success is about 0.95
    - 3 iteration with a uniform superposition → probability of success is about 0.33
- See <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Uw6zEMSxKvg>

# Grover (II)

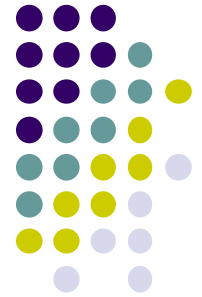




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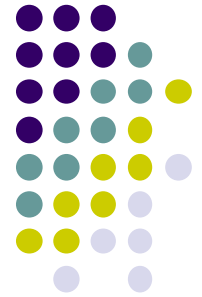
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