

Bachelor of Science in Electrical and Electronic Engineering
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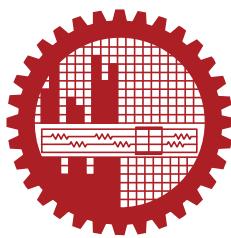
**Design, Tuning and Optimization of a 4-Qubit
Superconducting Quantum Chip**

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March 2025

CANDIDATES' DECLARATION

This is to certify that the work presented in this thesis, titled, "Design, Tuning and Optimization of a 4-Qubit Superconducting Quantum Chip", is the outcome of the investigation and research carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Md. Saifur Rahman.

It is also declared that neither this thesis nor any part thereof has been submitted anywhere else for the award of any degree, diploma or other qualifications.

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CERTIFICATION

This thesis titled, "**Design, Tuning and Optimization of a 4-Qubit Superconducting Quantum Chip**", submitted by me has been accepted as satisfactory in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree B.Sc. in Electrical and Electronic Engineering(EEE) in March 2025.

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ABSTRACT

Superconducting quantum computing is a leading platform for scalable quantum computation, leveraging low-loss superconducting circuits to achieve high coherence and controllability. It enables the realization of quantum algorithms for solving complex problems, with applications in cryptography, optimization, and materials science. In this work, two distinct 4-qubit superconducting quantum chips were designed and analyzed using *Qiskit Metal* and *Ansys Q3D and HFSS*. The first design includes two Transmon Pocket qubits with charge lines and two Transmon Cross qubits with flux lines, each coupled to two neighbors via dedicated resonators, with separate readout for all. The qubit frequencies, anharmonicities, and qubit-resonator coupling strengths and readout dispersive shifts were optimized by tuning geometric parameters and Josephson junction properties, using Lumped Oscillator Model (LOM) analysis. In addition, the coupling and readout resonators were tuned through eigenmode analysis to achieve the desired properties. A full-chip eigenmode simulation verified the expected frequency distribution in 12 modes (qubits, coupling resonators, and readout resonators). The surface participation ratio of the whole chip was also analyzed using Energy Participation Ratio (EPR) calculations to assess dielectric losses. To explore alternative connectivity schemes, a second 4-qubit chip design was developed, where all qubits were coupled to a central bus resonator instead of using individual coupling resonators. Although this design was not fully optimized, it serves as a comparative study to evaluate differences in qubit connectivity. Finally, examples of several practical applications of the 4-qubit chip have been demonstrated. The findings from this research provide insights into the impact of the geometry of components and their coupling architectures on quantum chip performance, forming future superconducting qubit layouts for improved gate operations and coherence.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Quantum computing has emerged as a rapidly advancing field with the potential to redefine computational paradigms across various domains. It harnesses the principles of quantum mechanics to process information. In this chapter, significance of quantum computing is discussed. Among different types of quantum computing mechanisms, superconducting quantum computing is one of the most promising approaches in the quantum computing landscape. This chapter overviews a review of superconducting quantum computers over the decades. Additionally, this chapter includes the motivation for the current work followed by the main objectives of this work.

1.1 Importance of Quantum Computing

Quantum computers hold a distinct advantage over classical counterparts in solving computationally challenging problems that are otherwise intractable. Unlike classical computers, which rely on binary bits (0 or 1) for processing information, quantum computers leverage quantum bits (qubits) that can exist in a superposition of states, offering exponential speedups for specific problem classes [1]. Furthermore, quantum entanglement, a phenomenon where qubits become interdependent regardless of distance—allows for highly correlated computations, significantly enhancing processing power beyond classical architectures [2]. Over the past few decades, quantum computation has transitioned from theoretical exploration to practical implementation, attracting increasing attention from researchers, industry, and investors. Early theoretical breakthroughs in the 1990s, such as Shor’s algorithm for large integer factorization, quantum error correction, and quantum computers as universal quantum simulators, laid the foundation for this field. Shor’s algorithm (1994) enables efficient factorization of large numbers, posing a direct threat to classical cryptographic security [3], while Grover’s algorithm (1996) provides a quadratic speedup in searching unsorted databases [4]. Beyond these theoretical breakthroughs,

quantum computing has demonstrated significant potential in optimization problems [5], drug discovery [6], and materials science, where classical computers struggle due to the exponential growth of complexity. Since Feynman (1982) first proposed quantum simulators for modeling complex physical systems, the field has seen remarkable progress, evolving from fundamental research in quantum mechanics to the engineering of multi-qubit quantum systems capable of real-world computations [7, 8]. The rise of quantum engineering as a distinct discipline has further accelerated this transition, bridging quantum mechanics with engineering applications to develop scalable and fault-tolerant quantum devices [9, 10]. As a result, quantum computing is increasingly seen as a transformative technology that could drive innovation in diverse fields, from logistics and artificial intelligence to financial modeling and cryptography [11]. Additionally, while classical supercomputers require exponential time to simulate quantum systems accurately, quantum processors can solve these problems in polynomial time [12]. However, even though they have theoretical advantages, quantum computers still face significant challenges, including qubit decoherence, noise, and the need for advanced error correction techniques [8]. Despite these hurdles, ongoing advancements in quantum hardware and algorithms continue to push the field toward practical and real-world applications.

1.2 Role of Superconducting Qubits: A Review

Superconducting quantum computing (SQC) has emerged as one of the most promising and scalable platforms for quantum information processing. Unlike other quantum computing paradigms that encode quantum information in natural microscopic systems—such as trapped ions [13], quantum dots [14], and photonic qubits [15]—superconducting qubits are macroscopic in size and lithographically defined on semiconductor chips [16]. This unique property allows researchers to engineer qubits with tailored properties by designing superconducting circuits, often referred to as "artificial atoms," due to their atom-like discrete energy levels [17]. These artificial atoms leverage Josephson junctions as nonlinear inductive elements, which enable the creation of an anharmonic quantum oscillator necessary for quantum computation [18]. The rapid advancements in superconducting quantum circuits over the last two decades have transformed them from interesting physical devices to viable candidates for large-scale quantum computing. Arthur et al. [19] depicted superconducting qubits as the most mature and well-funded quantum computing technology, while other qubit platforms remains in early research phases as shown in Figure 1.1.

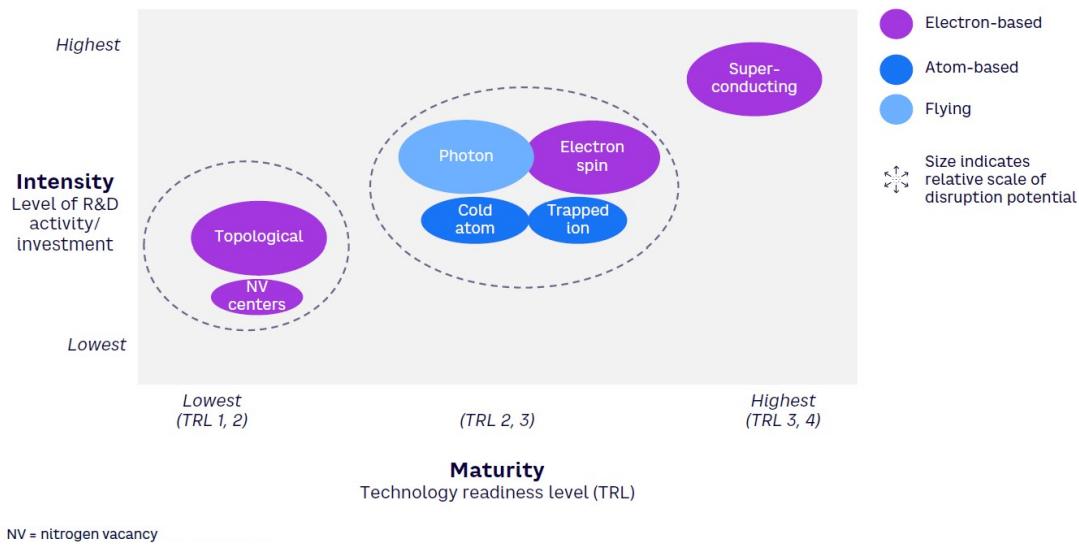


Figure 1.1: Core Qubit Technologies mapped by maturity, intensity and disruption potential. [Source: Arthur D. Little, Olivier Ezratty]

Among the various superconducting qubit designs, transmon qubits have become the most widely used due to their improved coherence times and reduced sensitivity to charge noise [20]. Since the first successful demonstration of superconducting charge qubits in 1999 [18], significant advancements have been made in extending coherence times, enhancing qubit connectivity, and refining error correction techniques. Transmon qubits are modified versions of Cooper-pair box qubits with increased shunt capacitance, improving coherence at the cost of reduced anharmonicity. Other designs include flux qubits, which rely on the quantum states of circulating currents, and fluxonium qubits, which offer long coherence times by utilizing an array of Josephson junctions [21]. Barends et al. [22] presented the 'Xmon' qubit in 2013, paving a way for easily connected designs of superconducting quantum processors. The design included a cross shaped qubit capacitor with coupling capacitances on each end, leading to control and readout lines and a nearby Josephson Junction with a frequency tunable SQUID loop. However, superconducting qubits still face notable challenges, including decoherence and susceptibility to environmental noise, necessitating cryogenic cooling to millikelvin temperatures for stable operation [23]. Their relatively short coherence times require extensive quantum error correction to achieve fault-tolerant quantum computing [24]. Additionally, scaling superconducting qubits in large quantum processors introduces complications such as increased crosstalk and the need for sophisticated control electronics, making scalability a persistent challenge [25].

Efficient quantum computing requires well-controlled qubit-qubit interactions, which are facilitated through capacitive coupling, inductive coupling, or resonator-mediated interactions. Direct capacitive coupling is commonly used in fixed-frequency transmon qubits, but tunable coupling schemes, such as gmon qubits [26] and parametric tunable couplers, allow for dynamic

control of interaction strengths. The use of bus resonators to mediate multi-qubit interactions has proven effective in scaling superconducting quantum processors [27].

One of the key advantages of superconducting qubits is their strong designability, allowing precise control over transition frequencies, anharmonicity, and coherence properties [28]. Unlike naturally occurring atomic systems, superconducting circuits provide a highly flexible and scalable architecture for quantum processors, which has led to significant industry investment from major technology companies such as Google, IBM, and Rigetti Computing [29]. The field saw a major breakthrough with Google’s demonstration of quantum supremacy, where a 53-qubit superconducting processor named Sycamore executed a task in seconds that would take classical supercomputers thousands of years [8]. Recent advancements in superconducting quantum computing, such as Google’s **Willow** processor with 105 qubits and IBM’s cloud-based Quantum Platform, demonstrate rapid progress in scalability and error correction [30]. Microsoft’s **Majorana 1** chip further enhances qubit stability using topological superconductors, advancing the field toward fault-tolerant quantum computing [31]. **Zuchongzhi 3.0**, revealed in **March 3, 2025**, is a 105-qubit superconducting quantum computer prototype that achieves high operational fidelities, with single-qubit gates, two-qubit gates, and readout fidelity at 99.90%, 99.62%, and 99.13%, respectively [32]. Amazon’s **Ocelot**, released in **February, 2025**, represents an important step on the road to practical quantum computers, leveraging chip-scale integration of cat qubits to form a scalable, hardware-efficient architecture for quantum error correction [33].

Superconducting quantum computers compete with various quantum hardware platforms, each with distinct advantages and challenges. Trapped-ion systems, for example, offer long coherence times and high gate fidelities but suffer from slow gate speeds, whereas superconducting qubits operate on nanosecond timescales, enabling faster quantum circuits at the expense of shorter coherence times [13, 34]. Although, the superconducting architecture of quantum computing has made significant strides over the past decades, and much progress in coherence times has been credited to innovative fabrication developments [35, 36]. Photonic qubits, on the other hand, do not require cryogenic cooling and exhibit virtually infinite coherence times; however, implementing logic gates in photonic systems remains challenging due to their inherently probabilistic operations [15]. Another competing platform is neutral atom-based qubits, which provide scalability and long coherence times but still lag in maturity compared to superconducting technology [37]. Additionally, topological qubits, a theoretical approach being actively explored by Microsoft, hold promise for fault tolerance but have yet to be realized in practical quantum computing systems [38]. Despite these competing technologies, superconducting qubits remain one of the most advanced and scalable platforms currently available for quantum computation. According to the recent report “*A Portrait of the Global Patent Landscape in Quantum Technologies*” by European Quantum Industry Consortium (QuIC) in January, 2024 highlights that superconducting qubits currently represent two thirds of patent families related

to hardware quantum computing, with a strong lead from US companies, as shown in Figure 1.2.

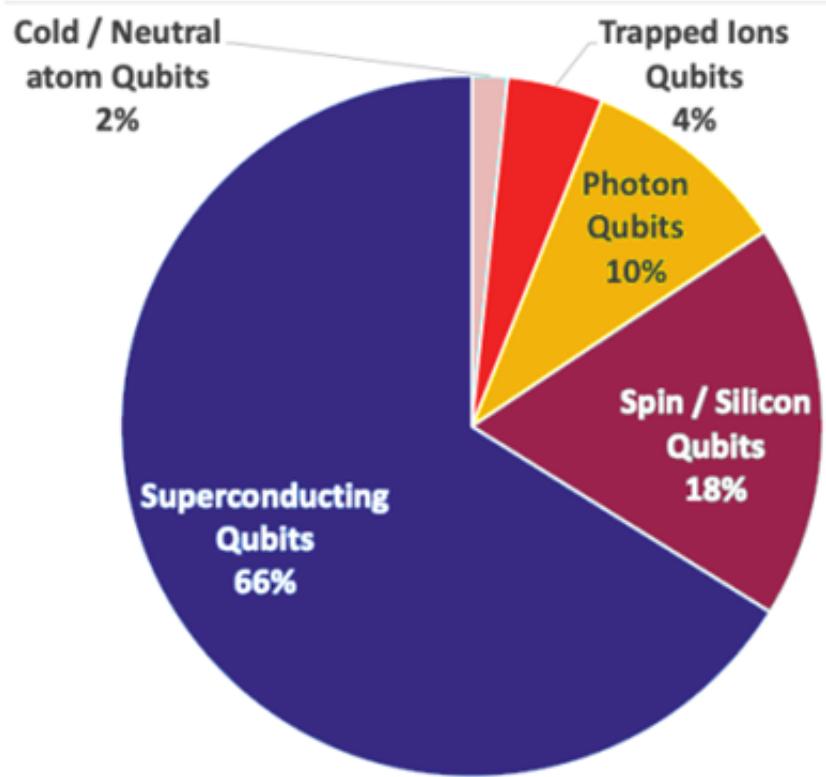


Figure 1.2: Number of patent families by hardware segment in quantum computing.

Overall, superconducting qubits are the basis of many efforts to build large scale quantum computers, and have enabled key demonstrations of quantum algorithms [39], quantum error correction [40–43], quantum many body physics, [44, 45] and quantum advantage in performing specific tasks [8]. Furthermore, they are a promising technology for quantum sensing, hybrid systems coupling different types of quantum emitters [46, 47], and realizing large-scale quantum computing architectures [25].

1.3 Research Motivation for a 4-Qubit Chip

A 4-qubit superconducting quantum chip is a crucial stepping stone in quantum computing research, serving as both a fundamental building block and a practical testbed for scalable systems. It extends beyond simple 2-qubit circuits while remaining feasible in terms of design, simulation, and fabrication. As an experimental platform, it enables researchers to study multi-qubit interactions, entanglement, and gate fidelities, which are essential for improving coherence times and error rates before scaling to larger quantum processors. Many commer-

cial quantum computing companies, including IBM, Rigetti, and Google, have utilized smaller multi-qubit architectures to benchmark small-scale quantum systems and validate their methodologies before moving to larger-scale implementations. Figure 1.3 is one of IBM’s earlier smaller superconducting device consisting 5 qubits.

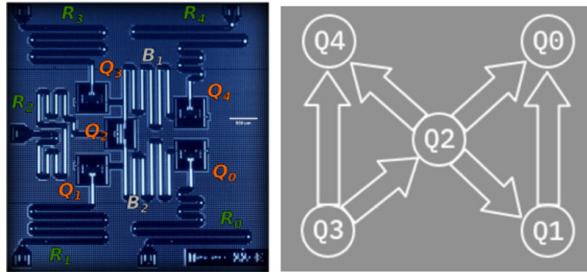


Figure 1.3: (a) IBM’s 5-Qubit chip structure *ibmqx4*, (b) Connectivity diagram of *ibmqx4*.

Additionally, a 4-qubit system is large enough to execute fundamental quantum algorithms such as Grover’s Search, the Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT), and Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)—providing insights into quantum advantage. This chip size also facilitates research into qubit connectivity and coupling, allowing different topologies (e.g., linear, star, or fully connected) to be tested, optimizing gate execution and mitigating crosstalk effects. Furthermore, the simulation feasibility of 4-qubit systems using tools like Qiskit Metal and Ansys allows researchers to balance computational complexity with practical implementation. Given that early-stage quantum processors from leading companies began at this scale, a 4-qubit superconducting chip provides a vital framework for testing and optimizing quantum hardware before progressing toward fault-tolerant, large-scale quantum computation.

Furthermore, in recent works, physical qubits in superconducting systems have reached the point where errors are at or below the threshold, and networks of 4-9 superconducting qubits with individual control and readout have been used to show concepts of error correction [40, 42, 48].

1.4 Objectives of the Current Work

The major objectives of this research are as follows-

- Demonstration of design procedure of a small multi-qubit (4-qubit) superconducting quantum chip.
- Overview of tuning mechanisms of the components of this chip.
- Demonstration of the effects of geometric or characteristic changes of the components on the desired chip parameters.

- Comparison between two different qubit-connectivity mechanism.
- Demonstration of probable real world applications using a small quantum chip.

1.5 Contributions of this Thesis

This work overviews an overview of the step-by-step design and tuning process of a small scale superconducting quantum chip. This work includes a brief comparison of two basic qubit-qubit connectivity or coupling schemes in a quantum chip. Also, the computational costs for tuning analysis of various components were demonstrated, along with some small scale applications.

1.6 Organization of this thesis

The first chapter gives a brief overview of the significance of quantum computing as a rapidly emerging technology, role of superconducting chips in realization of a practical quantum computer over the years and the motivation, as well as the objectives of this work. The second chapter includes a brief theoretical background of the foundation of quantum computing and superconducting quantum computing, the real word challenges for building a quantum computer, followed by the structure of a practical superconducting quantum computer. The third chapter depicts the simulation methodology, the designs of the chip and fabrication considerations. The fourth chapter includes tuning results of various components and comparison between two chips having different qubit connectivity and the final chapter includes some probable applications and scope for further optimization of this work.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework

In the previous chapter, the significance of quantum computing and revolution of superconducting quantum computing over last few decades was discussed. In this chapter, a brief theoretical aspect of superconducting qubits and superconducting quantum computer is discussed along with an overview of quantum computing.

2.1 Overview of Quantum Computing

In this section, an overview of fundamental properties of a qubit and operation of different single-qubit gates and multi-qubit gates is provided, which will help understand the design aspects and basic concept of the subject matter.

2.1.1 Properties of a Qubit

In a classical computer, a bit is represented by a physical quantity with two states to represent 0 and 1. It can be the voltage in a circuit (e.g. 5 V for 1 and 0 V for 0), magnetization direction in a magnetic drive (e.g. up for 1 and down for 0) or charge density in the charge storage layer in the flash memory (e.g. low for 1 and high for 0). In a quantum computer, the information is represented by qubits. Like the classical bit, each qubit still has two distinct states which are orthogonal to each other because they cannot exist with 100 % certainty at the same time. They are known as the **basis vectors**. The basis vectors can be written as-

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.1)$$

In addition to the two distinct states, a qubit may also have many other states which are the

superposition of the two distinct states (or the basis states):

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \quad (2.2)$$

where $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ are the computational basis states, and α and β are complex probability amplitudes satisfying $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. This superposition allows quantum computers to process multiple computations in parallel, contributing to their potential computational advantage over classical systems.

A single qubit state can be represented geometrically in three dimensional space using **Bloch Sphere** representation. It provides an intuitive way to visualize the superposition of quantum states and the effects of quantum gates on a qubit. A general qubit state can be written as:

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)|0\rangle + e^{i\phi}\sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)|1\rangle \quad (2.3)$$

where θ (polar angle) and ϕ (azimuthal angle) are real numbers that define the position on the sphere. The term $e^{i\phi}$ represents a phase factor that captures quantum phase information as shown in Figure 2.1.

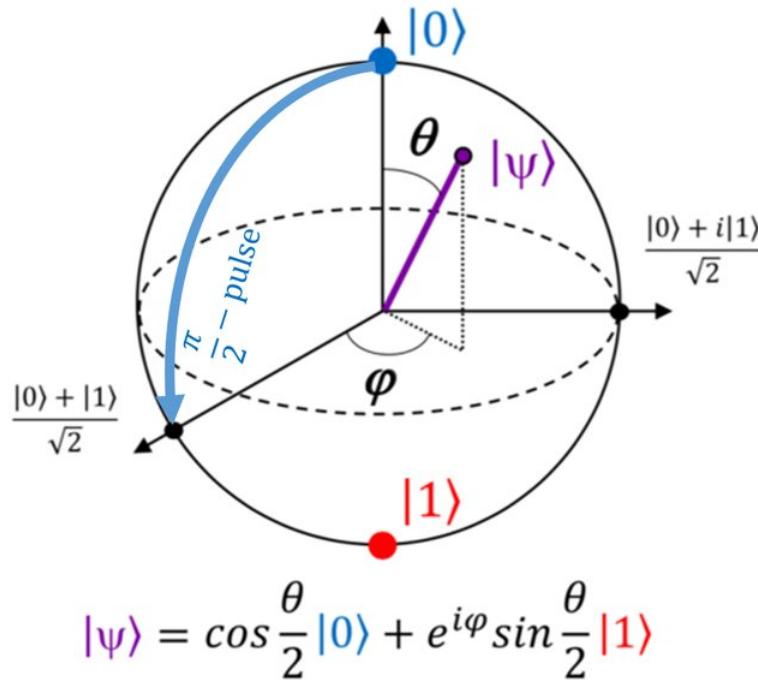


Figure 2.1: Bloch Sphere representation of Qubits.

Quantum measurements are probabilistic. When a qubit is measured, the state is collapsed to one of the basis states associated with the measurement. In general, the probability that a state

$|\psi\rangle$ will be found in the basis state $|\alpha\rangle$ when measured is given by

$$Pr(|\alpha\rangle) = |\langle\psi|\alpha\rangle|^2. \quad (2.4)$$

This is known as the **Born Rule**.

Apart from superposition, some other properties of a qubit are-

- **No Cloning:** Unlike classical bits, quantum states cannot be perfectly copied due to the **no-cloning theorem**. While quantum states can be transferred using **entanglement** (teleportation), this process destroys the original state rather than duplicating it.
- **Reversibility of Gates:** Quantum gates are inherently **reversible**, meaning that applying the correct inverse operation can recover the original state. This contrasts with many classical logic gates, which lose information when processing multiple inputs.
- **Entanglement:** Entangled qubits exhibit strong correlations such that measuring one instantly determines the state of the other, regardless of distance. However, since measurement outcomes are probabilistic, **no information is transmitted faster than light**, preserving the principles of relativity.

Table ?? shows the fundamental differences between classical bits and qubits.

Table 2.1: Comparison between *Classical Bits* and *Quantum bits*

Feature	Classical Bits	Quantum Bits (Qubits)
Representation	0 or 1 (binary voltage levels)	Superposition of 0 and 1 (Basis States)
Processing Power	Processes one n-bit state at a time	Can process 2^n n-bit states at once (Parallelism)
Logical Operations	Based on Boolean Logic Gates (Non-Reversible)	Uses Quantum Gates (Unitary, Reversible)
Error Sensitivity	Resistant to noise and stable at high temperatures	Highly sensitive to decoherence and environmental noise
Measurement	Readout is deterministic and repeatable	Measurement collapses the state probabilistically
Copying Information	Can be copied without restriction	Subject to the No-Cloning theorem, cannot be copied exactly
Hardware	Uses Transistors in Silicon chips	Requires Superconducting circuits, Trapped ions, Neutral atoms or other quantum systems

2.1.2 Quantum Gates

Quantum gates are fundamental operations that manipulate qubits by applying unitary transformations, preserving quantum coherence and enabling reversible computation. Figure 2.2 demonstrates examples of some single qubit gates.

GATE	CIRCUIT REPRESENTATION	MATRIX REPRESENTATION	TRUTH TABLE	BLOCH SPHERE						
I Identity-gate: no rotation is performed.		$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$0\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$1\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$									
X gate: rotates the qubit state by π radians (180°) about the x-axis.		$X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$1\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$0\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$									
Y gate: rotates the qubit state by π radians (180°) about the y-axis.		$Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$i 1\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$-i 0\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$i 1\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$-i 0\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$i 1\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$-i 0\rangle$									
Z gate: rotates the qubit state by π radians (180°) about the z-axis.		$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$0\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$- 1\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$- 1\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$- 1\rangle$									
S gate: rotates the qubit state by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ radians (90°) about the z-axis.		$S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$0\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} 1\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} 1\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} 1\rangle$									
T gate: rotates the qubit state by $\frac{\pi}{4}$ radians (45°) about the z-axis.		$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$0\rangle$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} 1\rangle$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$	$ 1\rangle$	$e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} 1\rangle$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$ 0\rangle$									
$ 1\rangle$	$e^{i\frac{\pi}{4}} 1\rangle$									
H gate: rotates the qubit state by π radians (180°) about an axis diagonal in the x-z plane. This is equivalent to an X-gate followed by a $\frac{\pi}{2}$ rotation about the y-axis.		$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th> <th>Output</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$0\rangle$</td> <td>$\frac{ 0\rangle + 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$1\rangle$</td> <td>$\frac{ 0\rangle - 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 0\rangle$	$\frac{ 0\rangle + 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$	$ 1\rangle$	$\frac{ 0\rangle - 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$	
Input	Output									
$ 0\rangle$	$\frac{ 0\rangle + 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$									
$ 1\rangle$	$\frac{ 0\rangle - 1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$									

Figure 2.2: Examples of Single Qubit Gates.

In quantum computing, any **single-qubit unitary operation** can be expressed in terms of the **$U3$** gate, making it a universal single-qubit gate.

$$U3(\theta, \phi, \lambda) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} & -e^{i\lambda} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \\ e^{i\phi} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} & e^{i(\phi+\lambda)} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.5)$$

The effect of a single qubit gate is to change α and β into a new mixture α' and β' , which can be written as a matrix equation-

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha' \\ \beta' \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} \\ U_{21} & U_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.6)$$

where,

$$|\psi'\rangle \equiv U|\psi\rangle.$$

where, the matrix U is referred to as unitary operator.

Examples of single-qubit gates include the **Pauli gates** (X, Y, Z), the **Hadamard gate** (H), and the **Phase gate** (S, T).

Multi-qubit gates include the **CNOT (Controlled-NOT) gate**, the **Toffoli gate (CCNOT)**, and the **SWAP gate**. Figure 2.3 demonstrates some examples of multi-qubit gates.

GATE	CIRCUIT REPRESENTATION	MATRIX REPRESENTATION	TRUTH TABLE										
Controlled-NOT gate: apply an X-gate to the target qubit if the control qubit is in state $ 1\rangle$		$\text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	<table> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th><th>Output</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$00\rangle$</td><td>$00\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$01\rangle$</td><td>$01\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$10\rangle$</td><td>$11\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$11\rangle$</td><td>$10\rangle$</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 00\rangle$	$ 00\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$
Input	Output												
$ 00\rangle$	$ 00\rangle$												
$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$												
$ 10\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$												
$ 11\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$												
Controlled-phase gate: apply a Z-gate to the target qubit if the control qubit is in state $ 1\rangle$		$\text{CPHASE} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	<table> <thead> <tr> <th>Input</th><th>Output</th></tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>$00\rangle$</td><td>$00\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$01\rangle$</td><td>$01\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$10\rangle$</td><td>$10\rangle$</td></tr> <tr> <td>$11\rangle$</td><td>$- 11\rangle$</td></tr> </tbody> </table>	Input	Output	$ 00\rangle$	$ 00\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$	$- 11\rangle$
Input	Output												
$ 00\rangle$	$ 00\rangle$												
$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$												
$ 10\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$												
$ 11\rangle$	$- 11\rangle$												

Figure 2.3: Examples of Multi Qubit Gates.

In superconducting quantum circuits, qubit interactions are often mediated through capacitive or inductive coupling, making **SWAP-based gates** more natural than **CNOT gates**. The **iSWAP gate** is a crucial two-qubit gate in superconducting quantum computing, where it facilitates **state**

exchange between qubits while introducing a phase factor. Unlike the **CNOT gate**, which is commonly used for quantum logic operations, the iSWAP gate naturally fits superconducting architectures due to the way qubits interact via capacitive or inductive coupling. Mathematically, it is represented as:

$$\text{iSWAP} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.7)$$

This gate can be implemented using resonant qubit interactions or tunable couplers in superconducting quantum circuits, allowing for high-fidelity **entanglement generation**. Additionally, its variant, the $\sqrt{\text{iSWAP}}$ gate, is frequently used in **universal gate sets**, and the **fSim gate** extends iSWAP with a tunable phase term, enabling efficient quantum simulations.

2.2 Superconducting Quantum Circuits

This section describes the basics of superconductivity, theory of Josephson Junctions, the building block of a superconducting quantum chip and different types of superconducting qubits.

2.2.1 Theory of Superconductivity

Superconductors exhibit zero resistance to DC currents and display unique properties below a critical temperature, distinguishing them from ordinary conductors. Below a **critical temperature**, conduction electrons in certain materials form **Cooper pairs** due to an attractive interaction, lowering the system's ground state energy. Figure 2.4 shows the formation of Cooper pair in an ion lattice.

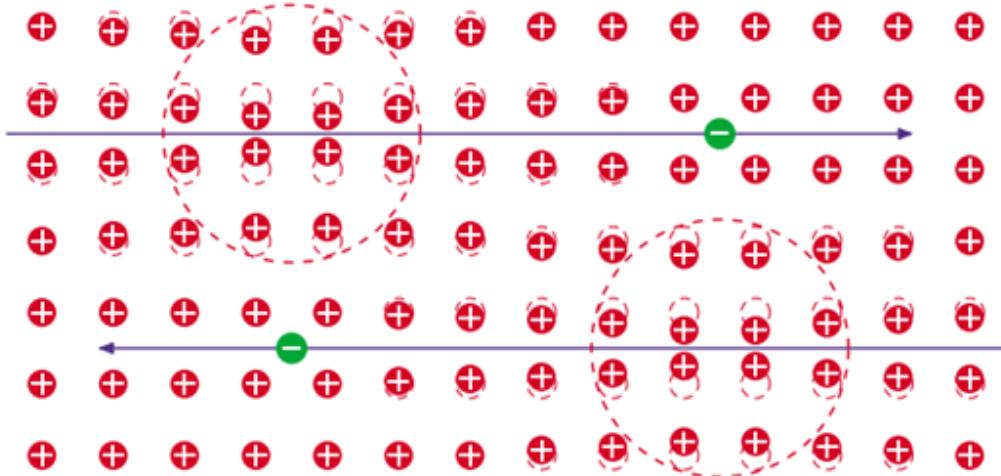


Figure 2.4: The delayed response of heavy ions to a rapidly moving electron creates a local positive charge concentration, which subsequently attracts another electron, effectively leading to an electron-phonon interaction that mediates **Cooper pair formation**.

The **superconducting energy gap** (Δ) prevents small perturbations from disrupting the Cooper pairs, leading to effects like persistent supercurrents and magnetic field expulsion (**Meissner effect**), unless the applied energy exceeds 2Δ . Other properties include macroscopic quantum coherence [49], and distinctive behavior in weakly coupled junctions (Josephson effect) [50].

2.2.2 From LC Resonator to Josephson Junction

In quantum mechanics, the **Hamiltonian** of a simple harmonic oscillator is given by:

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}kx^2. \quad (2.8)$$

The Hamiltonian is a mathematical operator that represents the total energy (sum of kinetic and potential energy) of a quantum system and governs its time evolution via the Schrödinger equation.

Using the **ladder operator formalism**, we define the **creation** and **annihilation** operators [51]:

$$a^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} (-ip + m\omega x), \quad a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} (ip + m\omega x). \quad (2.9)$$

Rewriting the **Hamiltonian** in terms of these operators:

$$H = \hbar\omega \left(a^\dagger a + \frac{1}{2} \right). \quad (2.10)$$

The **energy eigenvalues** are given by:

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (2.11)$$

where the **zero-point energy** is $E_0 = \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$, indicating that even in the lowest energy state, the oscillator has a nonzero energy due to quantum fluctuations [51].

A **Linear LC resonator** consists of an **inductor** (L) and a **capacitor** (C), forming an electrical circuit that behaves like a harmonic oscillator. The total energy in the circuit is the sum of **electric energy** stored in the capacitor and **magnetic energy** stored in the inductor:

$$H = \frac{q^2}{2C} + \frac{\Phi^2}{2L} \quad (2.12)$$

where q is the charge on the capacitor and Φ is the magnetic flux. The system oscillates with a natural **resonant frequency**:

$$\omega_r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}. \quad (2.13)$$

In quantum mechanics, the LC circuit can be treated analogously to the quantum harmonic oscillator, with **quantized energy levels** given by equation (2.11).

Although a bare LC circuit cannot function as a qubit due to its harmonic energy spectrum, it still plays a fundamental role in superconducting qubits by serving as a building block for quantum state manipulation and coupling mechanisms. [52, 53].

Now an important question arises: **Can a harmonic oscillator (like LC resonator) circuit act as a qubit?** The answer is **NO!** For a system to function as a qubit, it must have exactly two states. From figure 2.5 collected from [54], a harmonic oscillator has an infinite number of equally spaced energy levels, making it unsuitable for qubit implementation. If we attempt to use a harmonic oscillator as a qubit, initializing it in the **ground state** and applying a π -pulse would move it to the **first excited state**. However, a second π -pulse intended to return it to the ground state could just as easily excite it to the $n = 2$ level, due to the uniform energy spacing and lack of **anharmonicity**. Hence, any physical systems with more than two states can function as qubits, provided that their energy level spacings are sufficiently different, allowing selective excitation of only two levels using appropriately tuned pulse frequencies. The challenge with the harmonic oscillator is its **equally spaced energy levels**, a direct result of its quadratic potential. By introducing **anharmonicity**—a deviation from the quadratic potential—the level spacing becomes non-uniform, enabling selective two-state manipulation necessary for qubit operation.

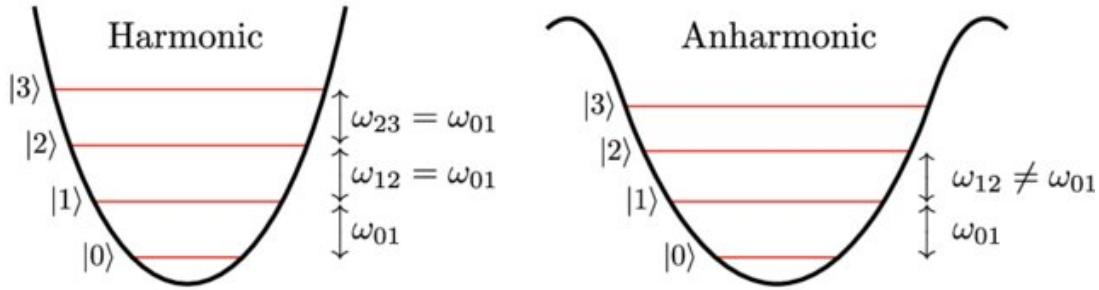


Figure 2.5: Harmonic and anharmonic systems and their suitability as qubits. In the quadratic potential of a harmonic system, energy levels are equally spaced ($\omega_{j,j+1} = \omega_{01}$), allowing population transfer beyond $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$, whereas in an anharmonic system (e.g., Josephson junctions), unequal level spacing ($\omega_{01} \neq \omega_{12}$) ensures selective two-level transitions, forming a qubit.

To introduce the required nonlinearity to modify the harmonic potential, the Josephson junction – a nonlinear, dissipation-less circuit element that forms the backbone in superconducting circuits is mostly used [50, 55]. By replacing the linear inductor of the QHO with a Josephson junction, playing the role of a nonlinear inductor, we can modify the functional form of the potential energy.

The Josephson Junction consists of two superconducting regions separated by a non superconducting layer—usually an insulator. A typical junction is fabricated from aluminum films with thicknesses in the range of 35–85 nm, where the native oxide of aluminum serves as the insulating barrier. The key quantum mechanical effect underlying the Josephson junction’s behavior is Cooper pair tunneling across the non-superconducting barrier, leading to the **Josephson equations: Current-Phase Relation(Josephson Super Current Equation):**

$$I = I_c \sin \phi \quad (2.14)$$

Voltage-Phase Relation (Josephson Voltage Equation):

$$V = \frac{\hbar}{2e} \frac{d\phi}{dt}. \quad (2.15)$$

where, I_c is the **critical current** of the junction, and ϕ is the **phase difference** across the junction. A Josephson junction is shown in Figure 2.6.

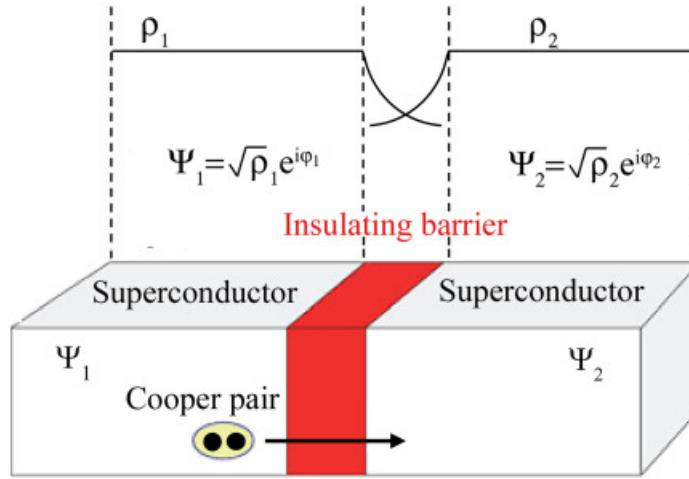


Figure 2.6: A Josephson junction, where φ represents the phase.

The Josephson junction therefore looks like a non-linear inductor; i.e., an inductor whose value depends on the current through it. The effective non-linear inductance of a Josephson Junction can be represented as -

$$L_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi I_c \sqrt{1 - (I/I_c)^2}}. \quad (2.16)$$

The potential energy stored in a Josephson junction is given by:

$$U(\phi) = -E_J \cos \phi. \quad (2.17)$$

where E_J is the **Josephson energy**, which can be written as:

$$E_J = \frac{\hbar I_c}{2e}. \quad (2.18)$$

A **SQUID (Superconducting Quantum Interference Device)** consists of two Josephson junctions forming a loop, allowing control of the effective Josephson energy via an external magnetic flux Φ . The **effective Josephson energy** of a SQUID is:

$$E_{J,\text{eff}} = E_J \cos \left(\frac{\pi \Phi}{\Phi_0} \right). \quad (2.19)$$

By tuning the external magnetic flux Φ , the Josephson energy can be dynamically controlled, enabling tunable qubits and coupling elements.

There are several types of superconducting qubits incorporating the Josephson Junction or a SQUID. A few are discussed below:

Charge Qubit

The **charge qubit**, also known as the **Cooper-Pair Box (CPB)**, consists of a small superconducting island connected to a superconducting lead via a Josephson junction. The **charging energy** E_C dominates, making the system highly sensitive to the number of Cooper pairs. The Hamiltonian is given by:

$$H = 4E_C(n - n_g)^2 - E_J \cos \phi. \quad (2.20)$$

where: n is the number of Cooper pairs on the island, $n_g = C_g V_g / 2e$ is the **offset charge** controlled by an external gate voltage.

Charge qubits operate in the **strong charging regime**, where $E_C \gg E_J$. However, they suffer from **charge noise**, which severely limits coherence times.

Flux Qubit

The **flux qubit** consists of a superconducting loop interrupted by one or more Josephson junctions. The **phase degree of freedom** is used to encode quantum information, and the qubit is operated in the **strong Josephson regime** ($E_J \gg E_C$). The Hamiltonian of a flux qubit is:

$$H = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta\sigma_x - \frac{1}{2}\epsilon\sigma_z, \quad (2.21)$$

where, Δ is the **tunneling energy** between the two persistent current states and $\epsilon = 2I_p(\Phi - \Phi_0/2)$ is the **energy bias** due to an external magnetic flux Φ .

Flux qubits are **resistant to charge noise** but suffer from **flux noise**, which can limit their coherence times.

Phase Qubit

A **phase qubit** is similar to a flux qubit but operates in the **phase regime**, where the Josephson energy E_J dominates over the charging energy E_C ($E_J \gg E_C$). It is based on a **current-biased Josephson junction**. The Hamiltonian of a phase qubit is given by:

$$H = \frac{Q^2}{2C} - E_J \cos \phi - I_{\text{bias}}\Phi_0 \frac{\phi}{2\pi} \quad (2.22)$$

where I_{bias} is the external bias current.

Phase qubits were among the earliest superconducting qubits but have largely been **superseded**

by **transmon qubits** due to their longer coherence times.

Transmon Qubit: Enhancing Charge Qubits

The **transmon qubit** is an improved version of the charge qubit, where a **large shunting capacitance** is added to suppress charge noise. It operates in the **weak charging regime** ($E_J \gg E_C$), reducing sensitivity to charge fluctuations. The energy levels are given by:

$$\hbar\omega_q \approx \sqrt{8E_C E_J} - E_C. \quad (2.23)$$

A key feature of transmon qubits is their **anharmonicity**, which allows selective two-level operation. The anharmonicity is defined as:

$$\alpha = E_{12} - E_{01} \approx -E_C. \quad (2.24)$$

The resonant frequency ω_0 of a transmon qubit in terms of the charging energy E_C and Josephson energy E_J is given by:

$$\omega_0 = \frac{\sqrt{8E_C E_J}}{\hbar} \quad (2.25)$$

where ω_0 is the resonant frequency of the transmon qubit, E_C is the charging energy, given by $E_C = \frac{e^2}{2C}$, where C is the total capacitance, E_J is the Josephson energy, related to the critical current I_c by $E_J = \frac{\hbar I_c}{2e}$.

Transmon qubits are widely used due to their **long coherence times**, ease of fabrication, and scalability. However, they require **stronger microwave control pulses** for gate operations due to their reduced anharmonicity.

Fluxonium Qubit

The **Fluxonium qubit** is a superconducting qubit designed to mitigate the limitations of charge and flux qubits by incorporating a large inductance. It consists of a Josephson junction shunted by a large superconducting inductance, typically implemented as a **Josephson junction array**. The large inductance suppresses phase fluctuations while preserving strong anharmonicity, making Fluxonium a promising candidate for long-lived quantum states. The Hamiltonian of a Fluxonium qubit is given by:

$$H = 4E_C \hat{n}^2 - E_J \cos \hat{\phi} + \frac{1}{2} E_L \hat{\phi}^2. \quad (2.26)$$

where $E_C = \frac{e^2}{2C}$ is the **charging energy**, $E_J = \frac{\hbar I_c}{2e}$ is the **Josephson energy**, $E_L = \frac{\Phi_0^2}{4\pi^2 L}$ is the **inductive energy**, determined by the large inductance L , \hat{n} is the **Cooper pair number operator** and $\hat{\phi}$ is the **superconducting phase difference** across the junction. Fluxonium operates in the **strong inductive regime**, characterized by $E_L \sim E_C \ll E_J$.

This distinguishes Fluxonium from transmon and flux qubits. The large inductance leads to a highly anharmonic energy spectrum, enabling high-coherence qubits with reduced charge noise and long relaxation times. Fluxonium qubits are increasingly being considered for near-term quantum processors due to their enhanced coherence properties and compatibility with existing superconducting circuit architectures. Figure 2.7 shows a Charge Qubit and a Transmon Qubit.

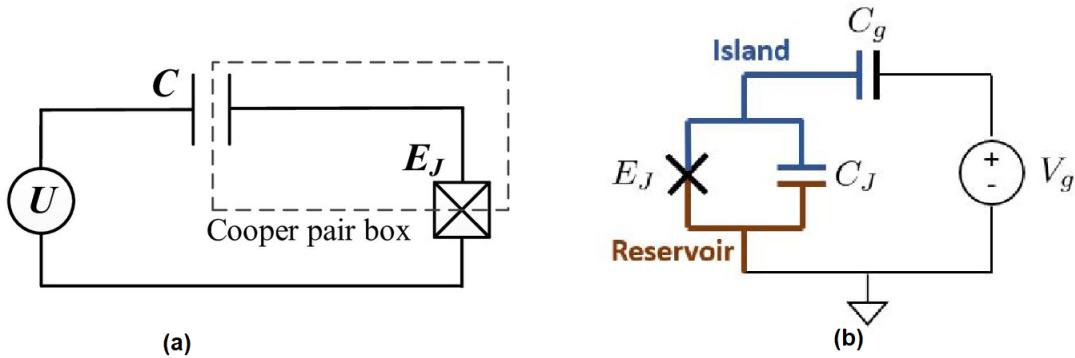


Figure 2.7: (a) Charge Qubit, (b) Transmon Qubit

There are also some **tunable Qubits** like **Xmon**, **Gmon**, **C-Shunt Flux Qubit** which provides better tunability and connectivity.

The summary of various superconducting qubit's operation regime is listed in the table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Operation Regimes and Value Ranges of Superconducting Qubits

Qubit Type	Operation Regime	Typical Value Range
Charge Qubit	Charge Regime	$E_J/E_C \ll 1$
Flux Qubit	Flux Regime	$E_J/E_C \gg 1$
Transmon Qubit	Weak Charge Dispersion	$E_J/E_C \approx 50 - 100$
Fluxonium Qubit	Hybrid Regime	$E_J \sim E_C \sim E_L$

Illustration of various superconducting qubits operating at various regimes is shown in Figure 2.8.

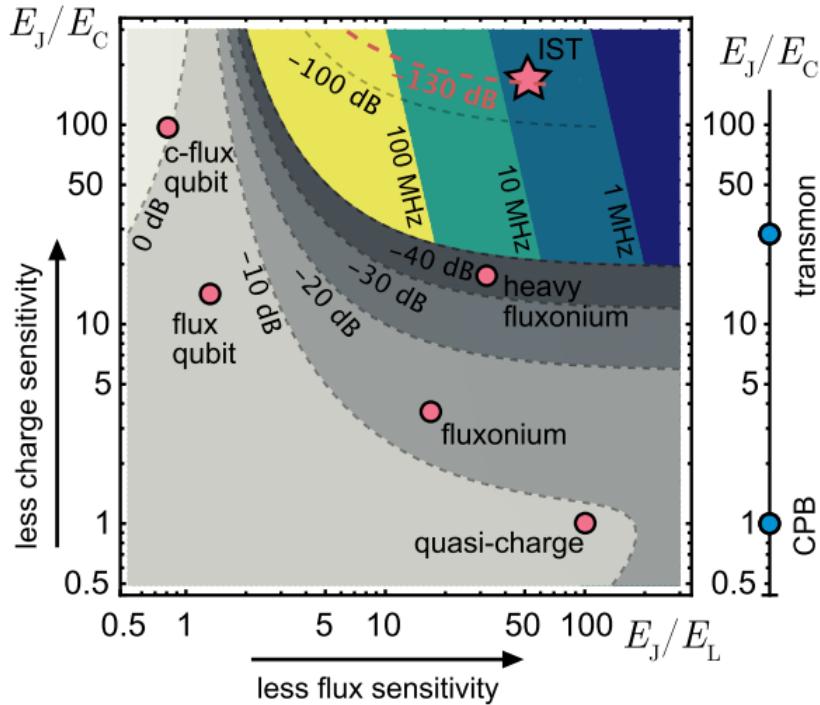


Figure 2.8: Classification Scheme for Superconducting Qubits (image extracted from [56]).

2.2.3 Circuit QED

Circuit Quantum Electrodynamics (cQED) describes the interaction between superconducting qubits and microwave resonators, enabling strong light-matter interactions in the microwave regime. This architecture is crucial for quantum computing with superconducting circuits.

Coupling of a Qubit to a Microwave Resonator

A superconducting qubit, such as a transmon, is coupled to a microwave resonator in cQED. The interaction is described by the Jaynes–Cummings Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hbar\omega_q}{2}\hat{\sigma}_z + \hbar\omega_r\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a} + \hbar g(\hat{a}\hat{\sigma}_+ + \hat{a}^\dagger\hat{\sigma}_-), \quad (2.27)$$

where, ω_q is the qubit frequency, ω_r is the resonator frequency, g is the qubit-resonator coupling strength, \hat{a}^\dagger , \hat{a} are the creation and annihilation operators of the resonator and $\hat{\sigma}_z$, $\hat{\sigma}_+$, $\hat{\sigma}_-$ are the Pauli operators for the qubit.

This Hamiltonian describes the *coherent exchange of excitations* between the qubit and the resonator, known as **vacuum Rabi oscillations**. Different coupling mechanisms exist for qubit-resonator interaction:

- **Capacitive Coupling:** Capacitive coupling involves a shared capacitor between the qubit and the resonator. The coupling strength g depends on the capacitance values:

$$g \propto C_{qr} \sqrt{\frac{\omega_q \omega_r}{C_q C_r}}, \quad (2.28)$$

where C_{qr} is the coupling capacitance, and C_q, C_r are the qubit and resonator capacitances.

- **Inductive Coupling:** For flux qubits and fluxonium qubits, coupling is achieved via a mutual inductance:

$$g \propto \frac{M}{\sqrt{L_q L_r}}, \quad (2.29)$$

where M is the mutual inductance, and L_q, L_r are the qubit and resonator inductances.

The interaction strength g defines different coupling regimes:

- **Weak coupling:** $g \ll \kappa, \gamma$, where κ is the resonator decay rate, and γ is the qubit dephasing rate.
- **Strong coupling:** $g > \kappa, \gamma$, allowing coherent energy exchange.
- **Ultrastrong coupling:** $g \sim \omega_q, \omega_r$, where the rotating wave approximation (RWA) no longer holds.

Additionally, tunable couplers enable dynamic control over qubit interactions by adjusting the coupling strength between qubits or between qubits and resonators, allowing for flexible gate operations, suppression of crosstalk, and optimized quantum computing performance.

Qubit Readout

One of the key advantages of cQED is **non-demolition qubit readout** via dispersive coupling. In the **dispersive limit**, where the qubit-resonator detuning is large ($\Delta = \omega_q - \omega_r \gg g$), the system Hamiltonian can be approximated as:

$$\hat{H}_{\text{disp}} = \frac{\hbar}{2} (\omega_q + \chi \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}) \hat{\sigma}_z + \hbar \omega_r \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}, \quad (2.30)$$

where χ is the **dispersive shift**, given by:

$$\chi = \frac{g^2}{\Delta}. \quad (2.31)$$

Figure 2.9 shows the dispersive shift in frequency of the readout resonator depending on qubit state.

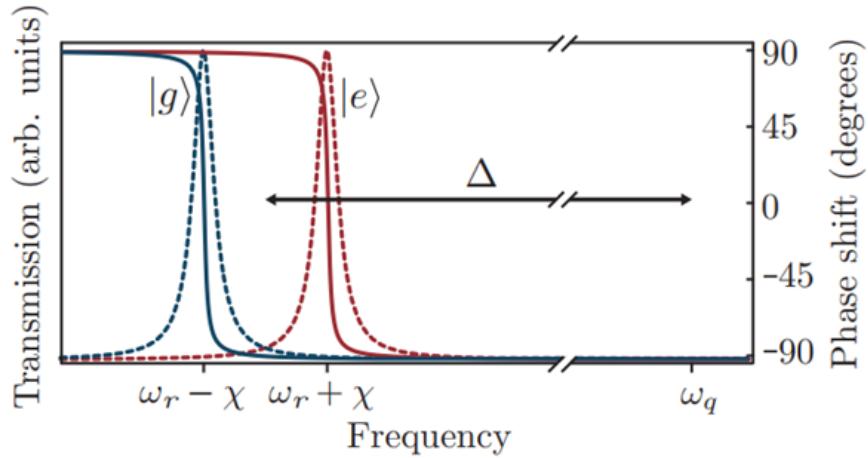


Figure 2.9: Readout resonator's dispersive shift depending on qubit state

The fidelity of dispersive readout depends on: Dispersive shift χ (larger χ improves contrast), cavity decay rate κ (too large κ leads to information loss), and qubit dephasing γ (dephasing should be minimized). For high-fidelity readout:

$$\frac{\chi}{\kappa} > 1. \quad (2.32)$$

The qubit readout process is essential in quantum computing for determining the quantum state of a qubit. Typically, the qubit is coupled to a resonator, which interacts with the qubit's quantum state. A microwave signal is sent through the resonator, and the interaction modifies the outgoing signal's properties, such as its amplitude or phase. By carefully analyzing these changes, the state of the qubit, whether $|0\rangle$ or $|1\rangle$ (or even a superposition), can be inferred. The measurement process is enumerated in a flow diagram shown in Figure 2.10.

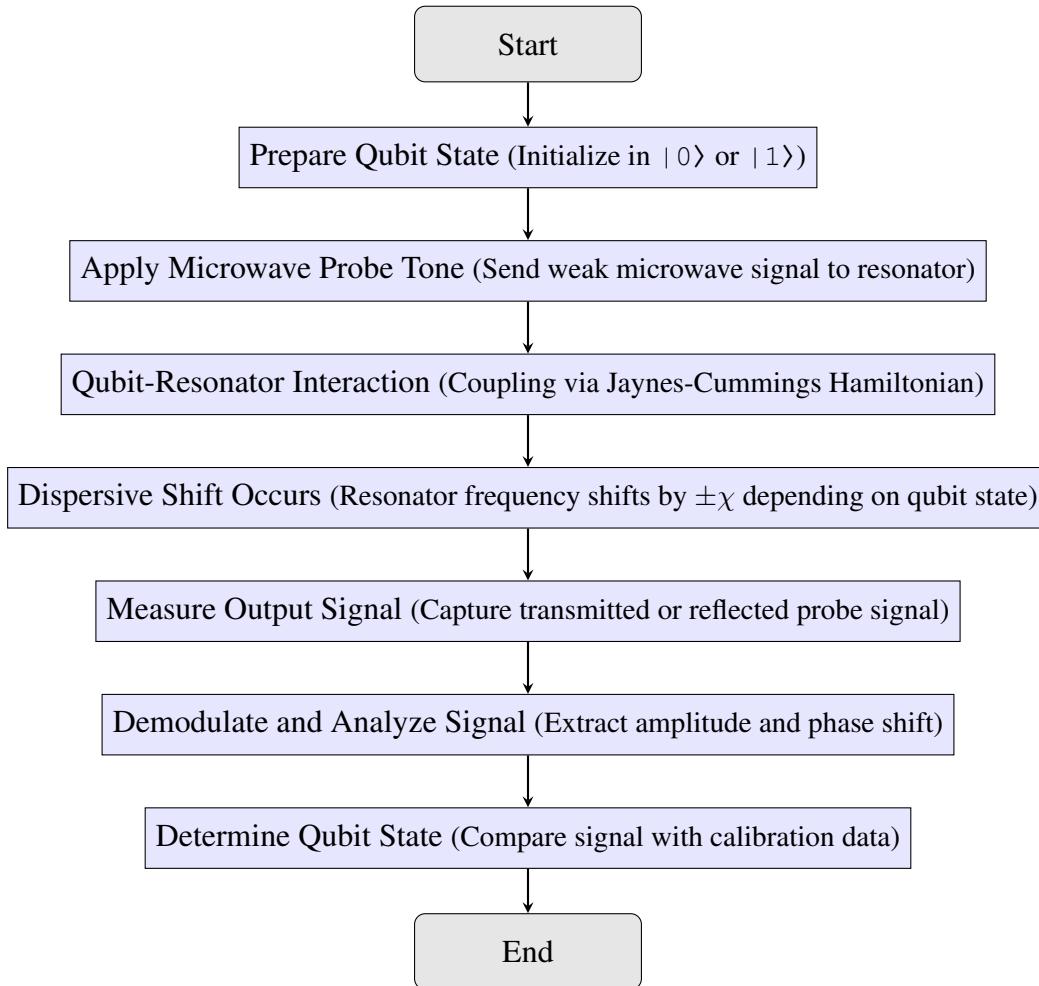


Figure 2.10: Qubit Readout and Measurement Process

2.2.4 Challenges

Scalability Limitation

Scalability is a major challenge in superconducting quantum circuits (SQC), as increasing the number of qubits leads to issues such as *crosstalk*, *frequency crowding*, and *wiring complexity*. As qubit numbers grow, unwanted interactions between nearby qubits and control lines introduce *spurious couplings*, reducing gate fidelity [8]. Additionally, superconducting qubits operate within a limited frequency range, making *frequency crowding* a critical problem where qubits with similar frequencies suffer from unwanted resonances and leakage errors [57]. The complexity of interconnecting a large number of qubits with *microwave control lines and cryogenic wiring* further complicates scalability, requiring advanced multiplexing techniques and novel architectures such as *modular quantum processors* and *chip-to-chip coupling strategies* to support large-scale quantum computing [58].

Control Electronics Complexity

Superconducting qubits rely on *precisely shaped microwave pulses* for gate operations, requiring sophisticated *high-speed, low-noise control electronics*. The need for *high-fidelity waveform generation, low-latency feedback loops, and scalable microwave routing* poses a major challenge, as current control hardware is often *bulky, power-hungry, and difficult to scale* to thousands of qubits [59]. Furthermore, operating qubits at *millikelvin temperatures* necessitates cryogenic-compatible control systems, pushing the development of *cryogenic electronics and on-chip control architectures* [60]. Innovations such as *high-density microwave signal routing, cryo-CMOS technology, and digital-to-analog converters (DACs) optimized for quantum systems* are being explored to overcome these challenges and enable practical large-scale superconducting quantum processors [61].

Qubit Decoherence

Qubit decoherence in superconducting quantum circuits arises from energy relaxation (T_1) and dephasing (T_2) mechanisms, ultimately limiting quantum coherence and computational fidelity.

- **Dielectric Loss:** Energy dissipation due to two-level system (TLS) defects in lossy interfaces of superconducting materials, leading to reduced qubit relaxation time (T_1). High-purity materials, surface passivation, and reduction of lossy dielectric participation enhance coherence.
- **Quasiparticle Poisoning:** Excess quasiparticles tunnel into Josephson junctions, causing parity fluctuations and increased energy relaxation [62]. Implementing quasiparticle traps and infrared shielding reduces the generation of non-equilibrium quasiparticles.
- **Flux Noise:** Magnetic fluctuations in superconducting loops introduce $1/f$ noise, leading to qubit frequency instability and dephasing [20]. Flux bias stabilization, improved fabrication techniques, and dynamical decoupling suppress flux noise effects [63].
- **Photon-Induced Dephasing:** Stray infrared and microwave photons excite qubits, leading to fluctuating energy levels and decoherence. Infrared shielding, cryogenic filtering, and improved thermalization help minimize photon-induced dephasing.
- **Charge Noise:** Trapped charge fluctuations in dielectrics cause shifts in qubit energy levels, particularly in charge-sensitive superconducting qubits. Using transmon qubits with reduced charge sensitivity and optimizing substrate cleanliness minimize charge noise [64].

- **Purcell Decay:** Qubit relaxation is accelerated by coupling to a lossy readout resonator, limiting excited-state lifetime [65]. Increasing qubit-resonator detuning, implementing Purcell filters, and using tunable couplers reduce unwanted energy loss [66].

2.3 Structure of a Superconducting Quantum Computer

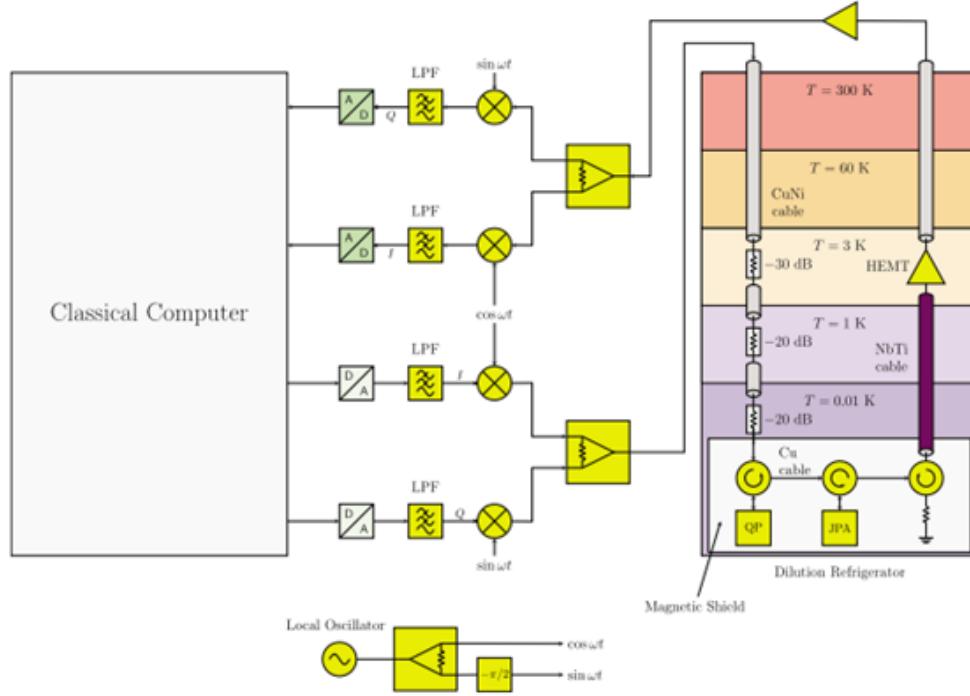


Figure 2.11: Structure of a Superconducting Quantum Computer

This system diagram in figure 2.11 illustrates the interaction between a **classical computer** and the **quantum processor housed in a dilution refrigerator**. The classical computer generates **IQ-modulated microwave signals** (in-phase I and quadrature Q) using a **local oscillator**, low-pass filters (LPF), and mixers to control the qubits. These signals are transmitted through **attenuated and thermally managed microwave lines** inside the dilution refrigerator, ensuring minimal noise interference. The qubit signals are amplified using **Josephson Parametric Amplifiers (JPA)** at the millikelvin stage and further boosted by **High Electron Mobility Transistors (HEMT)** at **3K** before reaching room temperature for digitization and processing by the classical computer. The setup includes different thermal stages ($300K, 60K, 3K, 1K, 10mK$) with materials like **CuNi and NbTi cables**, optimized for minimal heat load and signal integrity. This architecture ensures precise **control and readout of superconducting qubits** while maintaining quantum coherence.

Chapter 3

Design Methodology and Fabrication Considerations of the Proposed 4-Qubit Superconducting Quantum Chip

In the previous chapter, we discussed the theoretical background of superconducting quantum computing, including structure and characteristics of a Josephson Junction, different qubit structures etc. This chapter presents the design, tuning and fabrication considerations of the proposed 4-qubit chips.

3.1 Workflow

The workflow of this research begins with creating two chip designs: both consisting 2 transmon pockets and 2 transmon crosses, but one with ring-type coupling and another with qubits coupled to a central bus resonator. The process involves tasks like tuning components using LOM and Eigenmode analysis, verifying modes, and calculating surface participation ratios. Finally, the two designs are compared for aspects like qubit connectivity and required swaps. This provides a structured approach to optimizing quantum chip performance. Overall workflow of this research is shown in the process chart of Figure 3.1.

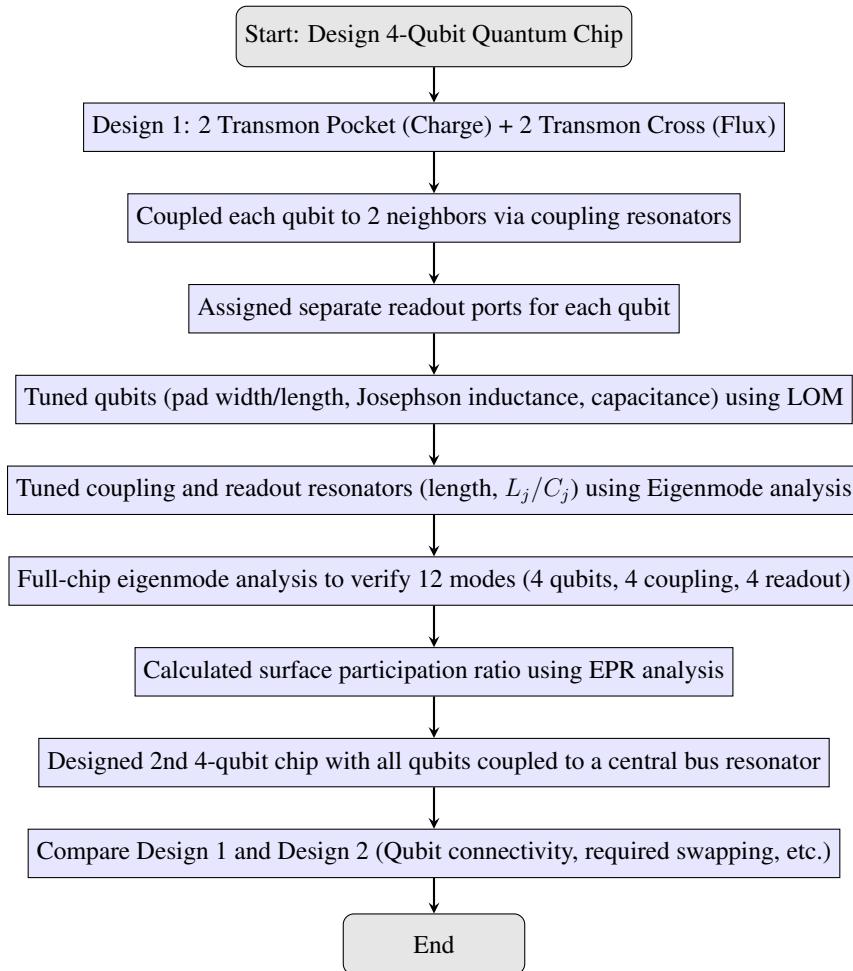


Figure 3.1: Process Chart of the overall workflow.

3.2 Circuit Design

For constructing a superconducting quantum circuit, **Qiskit Metal** is used. In Qiskit Metal, there are various types of qubits, including Transmon Pocket Qubit with or without charge/drive line, Transmon Cross Qubit with or without flux line, Concentric Transmon Qubit, Star Qubit etc. Some of these qubits are shown in Figure 3.2.

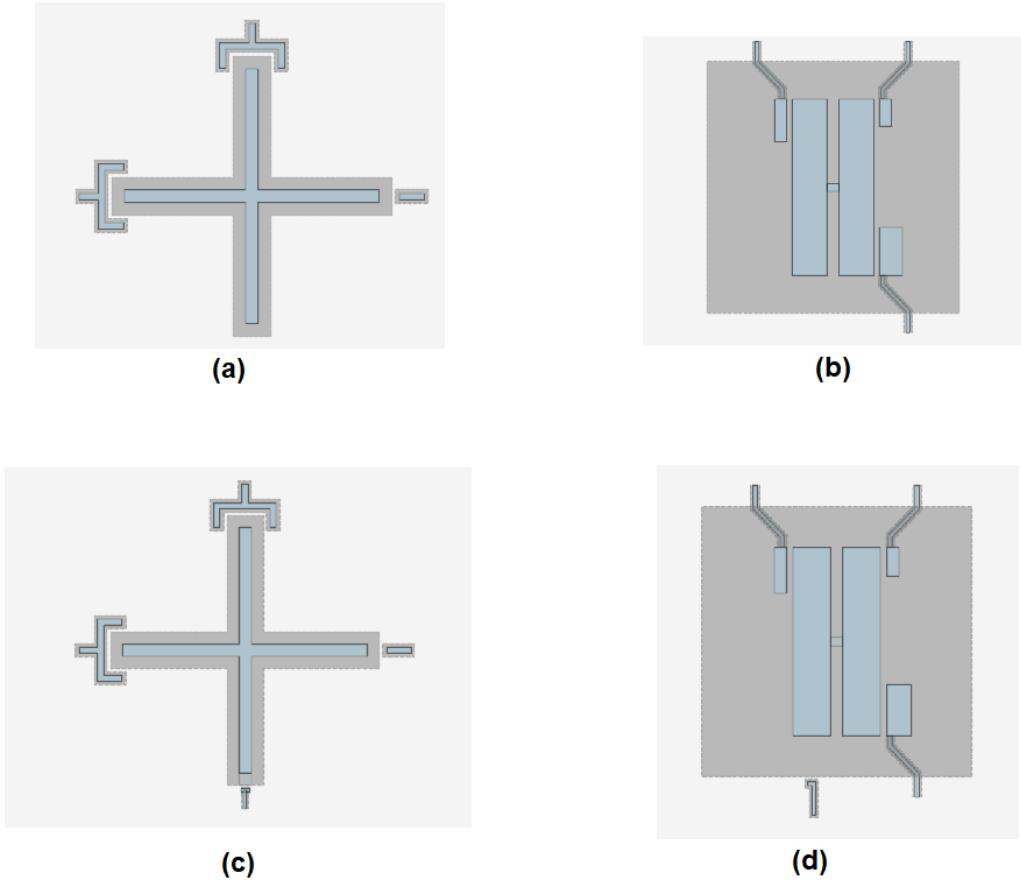


Figure 3.2: Different Types of Superconducting Qubit Structure - (a) Single Transmon Grounded or Xmon (**TransmonCross**), (b) Single Transmon - Floating (**TransmonPocket**), (c) Single Transmon Grounded (Xmon) Flux Lines (**TransmonCrossFL**), (d) Single Transmon - Floating with Charge Line (**TransmonPocketCL**)

Structural and characteristic difference among these are listed in table shown in Figure 3.3. Apart from these structures there are several other structures of superconducting qubits in the Metal library. Moreover, one can create a custom superconducting qubit structure using Qiskit Metal.

Feature	Transmon Pocket (Floating)	Transmon Pocket CL (Floating + Charge Line)	Transmon Cross (Grounded Xmon)	Transmon Cross FL (Grounded Xmon + Flux Line)
Structure	Floating capacitor-based design	Floating capacitor with charge line	Cross-shaped capacitor (Xmon)	Cross-shaped capacitor (Xmon) with flux bias
Grounding	Floating	Floating	Grounded	Grounded
Control Lines	No direct control line	Charge line added for direct frequency control	No charge line, but capacitive coupling	Flux bias line for tunability
Junction Type	Single Josephson Junction (JJ)	Single JJ with charge control	Single JJ (Xmon structure)	SQUID (two JJs) for flux tunability
Readout & Coupling	Capacitive coupling to resonator	Charge line allows external frequency tuning	Readout via capacitive coupling	Flux bias enables tunability of transition frequency
Frequency Tunability	Fixed after fabrication	Some tunability via charge line	Fixed due to grounding	Tunable via SQUID loop (magnetic field control)
Noise Susceptibility	Charge noise due to floating	Charge noise, but mitigated by charge line	Lower charge noise (grounded)	Susceptible to flux noise from external field
Decoherence Sources	Charge noise and dielectric losses	Charge noise + external drive effects	Lower charge noise, but dielectric loss	Flux noise + dielectric loss
Applications	Standard transmon, used in 3D architectures	Charge-controlled qubits for improved coherence	Xmon qubits for high coherence	Tunable qubits for quantum annealing, parametric control

Figure 3.3: Comparison between different Types of Transmon Structures

To couple two qubits there exists different types of couplers in the Metal library, for example -

- Direct Coupler
- Bus Resonator Coupler
- Tunable Coupler (designed in MIT)

3.2.1 Proposed Design-1

Qubit Geometry: The first design consists of two Transmon Pocket qubits with charge line and two Transmon Cross with flux line.

Coupling: Each qubit is coupled with 2 neighbouring qubits via bus coupling resonators.

Readout: Each qubit has separate readout resonator. Readout port of the qubits are coupled to the readout launchpads via an **Interdigitated Capacitor**.

Charge Line and Flux Lines: The transmon pocket qubits have charge line and transmon cross qubits have flux lines. Each charge line and flux line is connected to separate launchpads for convenience.

Figure 3.4 shows the first design of a 4-Qubit Superconducting Chip.

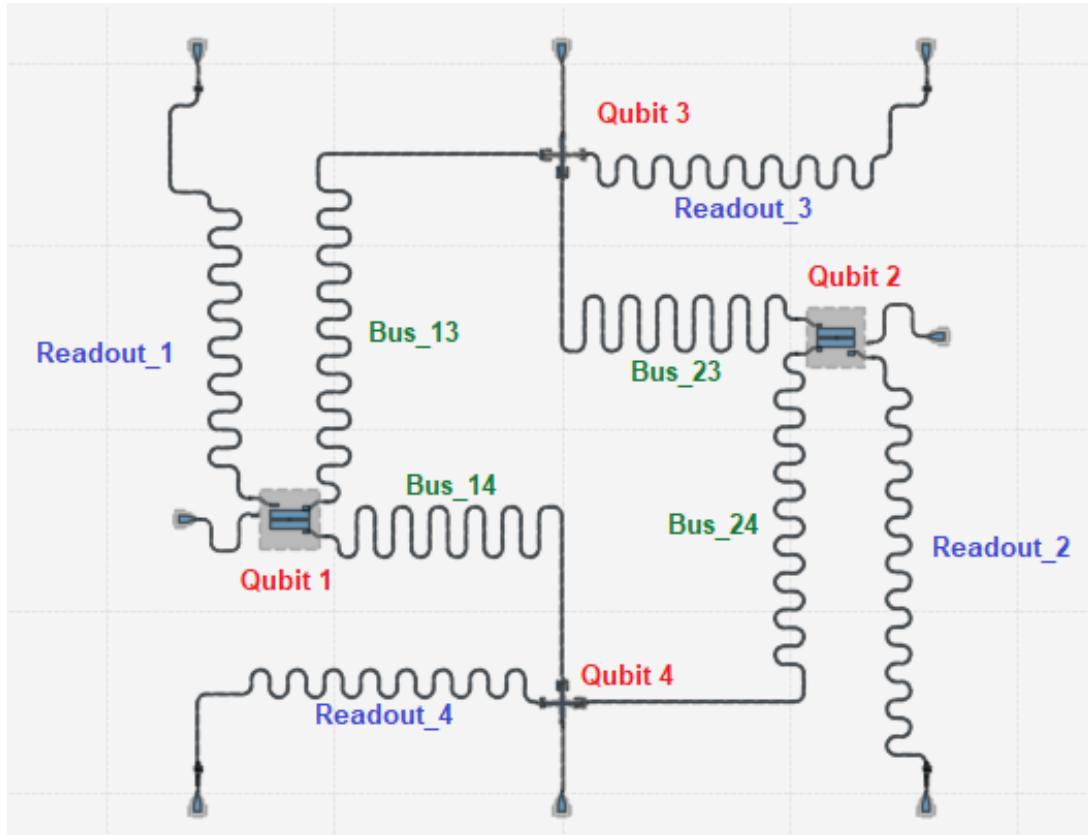


Figure 3.4: 4 Qubit Chip: Design 1

On the other hand, Figure 3.5 shows the same design, rendered in Ansys.

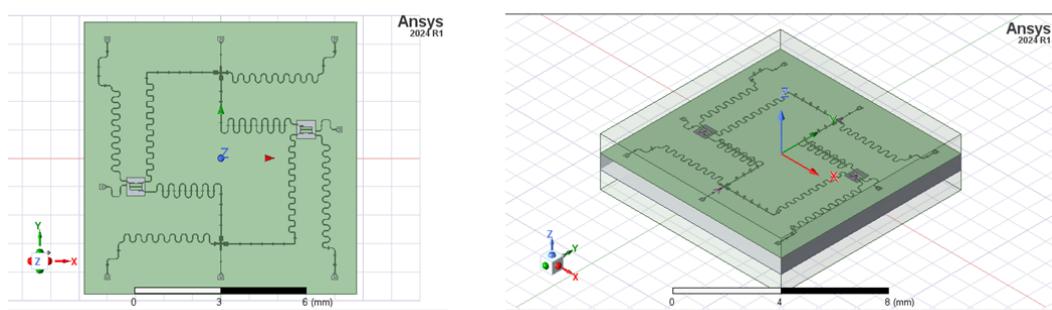


Figure 3.5: Rendered in Ansys: 4 Qubit Chip - Design 1

3.2.2 Proposed Design-2

Qubit Geometry: The second design consists of two Transmon Pocket qubits with charge line and two Transmon Cross with flux line, similar to the first design.

Coupling: All qubits are coupled to a central bus resonator via an **Interdigitated Tee Capacitor**. In this structure, qubits do not directly couple to each other but exchange information via the bus.

Readout: Each qubit has separate readout resonator. Readout port of the qubits are coupled to the readout launchpads via an **Interdigitated Capacitor**, similar to the first design.

Charge Line and Flux Lines: The transmon pocket qubits have charge line and transmon cross qubits have flux lines. Each charge line and flux line is connected to separate launchpads for convenience, similar to the first design. Figure 3.6 shows the Design-2 of a 4-Qubit Superconducting Chip.

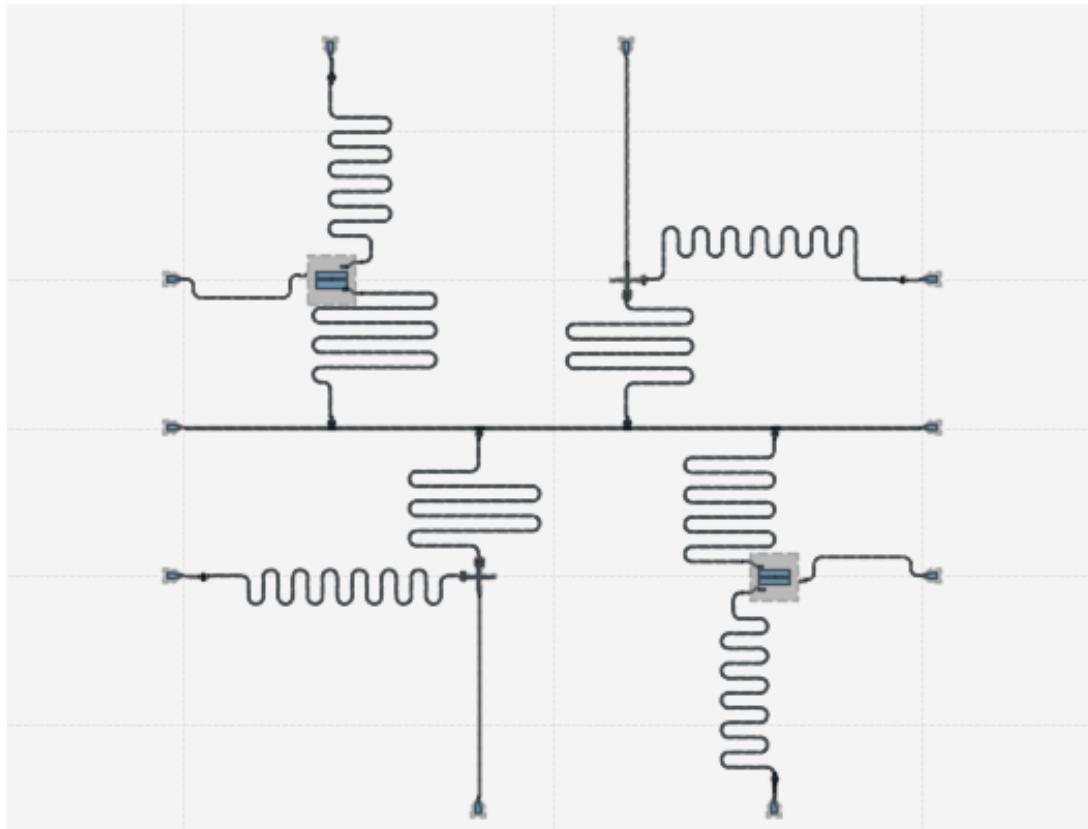


Figure 3.6: 4 Qubit Chip: Design 2

3.3 Circuit Tuning and Method of Analysis

The Hamiltonian of a superconducting quantum circuit system is fundamental in describing its dynamic evolution, making its accurate quantification essential for chip design. Various methods have been developed for this purpose, with the Lumped Oscillator Model (LOM) and Energy Participation Ratio (EPR) being among the most widely used approaches. Yuan et al. [28] validated the applicability of these methods to the design of 2D transmon quantum chips, showing that LOM provides greater data diversity and more precise qubit frequency calculations due to its comprehensive consideration of system couplings. Given that superconducting quantum chips function as open quantum systems, determining their Hamiltonian is crucial for deriving their dynamics. Several quantization techniques, including *impedance-based black-box quantization*, *LOM*, and *EPR*, have been proposed to refine these calculations, aiding in the optimization of superconducting quantum chip architectures [67–69].

3.3.1 Analysis Method: LOM

The lumped oscillator model (LOM) method is derived based on the quantization of the lumped model. In the LOM method, the distributed microwave circuit is equivalent to a lumped circuit [70], and the computational efficiency is higher than the full-wave method [68]. Its core idea is to divide the physical layout of a quantum processor into disjoint units, each of which can independently extract electrical parameters. Yuan et al. [28] described the theoretical framework and methodology for analyzing a superconducting quantum system consisting of qubits, readout resonators, and a transmission bus. The system's Hamiltonian is formulated by considering interactions between subsystems, incorporating effective capacitance and inductance values. These values are structured into a capacitance matrix, derived using Ansys Q3D Extractor, to compute qubit frequencies accurately. Figure 3.7 shows the layout of a qubit coupled to a readout resonator, the Q3D cell model, the capacitance matrix and the LOM analysis method.

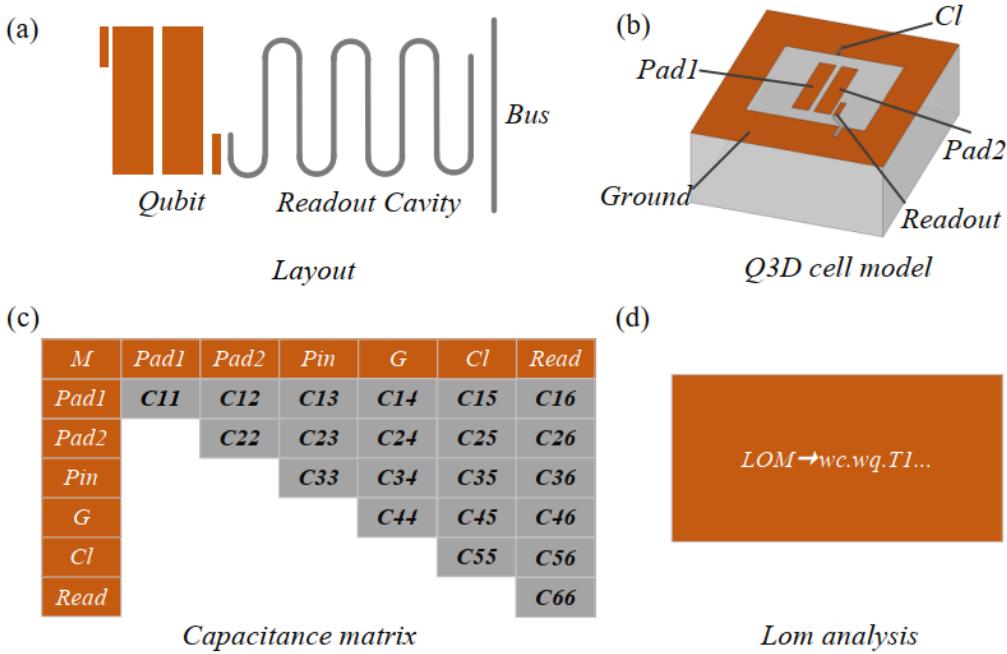


Figure 3.7: (a) the physical layout of a qubit coupled to a readout resonator, (b) the Q3D model of a transmon qubit, (c) the capacitance matrix, and (d) LOM analysis. The capacitance matrix plays a crucial role in quantifying qubit coupling and self-capacitance, ensuring precise calculations for quantum system design. [28]

In the LOM method, the qubit frequency is determined by the following formula:

$$\omega_q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L_j C_q}} - E_c \quad (3.1)$$

where E_c is the capacitance energy of the superconducting qubit, L_j is the inductance of the Josephson junction, and C_q is the capacitance of the qubit. The relationship between E_c and C_q is

$$E_c = \frac{e^2}{2C_q} \quad (3.2)$$

The inductance of the Josephson junction can be determined by the magnetic flux quantum and the critical current,

$$L_j = \frac{\Phi_0}{I_c}. \quad (3.3)$$

In this method, equivalent capacitance and inductance and length-frequency relation for a full-wavelength, half wavelength and a quarter-wavelength readout resonator are given in the table 3.1, where ω_c is the frequency of the resonator, and Z_c represents the characteristic impedance of the resonator.

Table 3.1: Capacitance, Inductance, and Length-Frequency Relations for Different Resonators

Resonator Type	Capacitance C	Inductance L	Length-Frequency Relation
Quarter-Wave	$\frac{\pi}{4\omega_c Z_c}$	$\frac{1}{\omega_c^2 C'}$	$\omega_c = \frac{c\pi}{2l} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\varepsilon_r+1}}$
Half-Wave	$\frac{\pi}{2\omega_c Z_c}$	$\frac{1}{\omega_c^2 C'}$	$\omega_c = \frac{c\pi}{l} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\varepsilon_r+1}}$
Full-Wave	$\frac{\pi}{\omega_c Z_c}$	$\frac{1}{\omega_c^2 C'}$	$\omega_c = \frac{2c\pi}{l} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\varepsilon_r+1}}$

3.3.2 Analysis Method: EPR

The Energy Participation Ratio (EPR) method is a computational framework that quantifies how different circuit elements contribute to the system's total energy. It assigns a fraction of the stored electromagnetic energy to each component, enabling precise calculations of qubit frequencies, anharmonicity, coupling strengths, and dielectric losses, which are crucial for coherence. Derived from first principles, EPR transforms circuit quantization into an energy distribution problem, where the *energy participation ratio* (P_{mj}) represents the fraction of a mode's energy stored in a given circuit element. This ratio is fundamental in resolving the system's Hamiltonian and constructing the many-body quantum model. The Hamiltonian of a system of simple Transmon qubits coupled directly to a readout resonator \hat{H}_{full} can be divided into linear and nonlinear parts:

$$\hat{H}_{full} = \hat{H}_{lin} + \hat{H}_{nl} \quad (3.4)$$

where \hat{H}_{lin} is composed of the linear energy part of the Josephson junction and the linear energy correlation term of the resonator, and \hat{H}_{nl} is the nonlinear energy correlation term of the Josephson junction. The **linear Hamiltonian** (\hat{H}_{lin}) represents the harmonic energy of the system, describing the independent contributions of the resonator and qubit modes using their respective annihilation operators. It includes terms proportional to their angular frequencies, ω_c and ω_q , which characterize the eigenmode frequencies of the resonator and qubit, respectively. On the other hand, the **nonlinear Hamiltonian** (\hat{H}_{nl}) accounts for the Josephson junction's nonlinearity, incorporating a cosine potential term that leads to anharmonicity in the qubit spectrum. This nonlinearity arises due to quantum zero-point fluctuations in both the cavity and qubit modes, denoted by φ_c and φ_q , which can be determined using the **Energy Participation Ratio (EPR)** method. The nonlinear component is essential for defining the transmon qubit's anharmonicity, enabling controlled quantum operations.

The **effective Hamiltonian** of the system is obtained by approximation:

$$\hat{H}_{eff} = (\omega_q - \Delta_q)\hat{n}_q + (\omega_c - \Delta_c)\hat{n}_c - \chi_{qc}\hat{n}_q\hat{n}_c - \frac{1}{2}\alpha_q\hat{n}_q(\hat{n}_q - \hat{\mathbb{I}}) - \frac{1}{2}\alpha_c\hat{n}_c(\hat{n}_c - \hat{\mathbb{I}}) \quad (3.5)$$

where $\hat{n}_q = \hat{a}_q^\dagger \hat{a}_q$ and $\hat{n}_c = \hat{a}_c^\dagger \hat{a}_c$ represent the cavity and qubit particle number operators, respectively, Δ_q is the **Lamb shift** of the qubit frequency, α_q is the **anharmonicity** of the qubit, and χ_{qc} is the **dispersion shift**. The qubit's anharmonicity (α_q) and the cavity's self-Kerr effect (α_c) are derived from the energy participation ratio (EPR), quantifying how much of the system's energy is stored in each component.

$$\alpha_q = \frac{1}{2}\chi_{qq} = p_q^2 \frac{\hbar\omega_q^2}{8E_j} \quad (3.6)$$

$$\alpha_c = \frac{1}{2}\chi_{cc} = p_c^2 \frac{\hbar\omega_c^2}{8E_j} \quad (3.7)$$

Additionally, the dispersive coupling term (χ_{qc}) represents the frequency shift caused by the interaction between the qubit and the resonator.

$$\chi_{qc} = p_q p_c \frac{\hbar\omega_q\omega_c}{4E_j} \quad (3.8)$$

Finally, the sum of the energy participations must satisfy $p_q + p_c = 1$, ensuring proper energy distribution in the system.

3.3.3 Comparison of Lumped Oscillator Model and Energy Participation Ratio Methods in Designing Two-Dimensional Superconducting Quantum Chips

A comparative analysis between both the methods are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Comparison between EPR Method and Lumped Oscillator Model

Feature	EPR Method	Lumped Oscillator Model
Energy distribution approach	Uses field simulations	Uses circuit parameters
Qubit frequency accuracy	High	Moderate
Resonator frequency accuracy	High	Moderate
Loss analysis	Explicitly considers dielectric losses	Less direct loss estimation
Computation	Requires electromagnetic simulations	Analytical calculations
Timing consideration	Computationally expensive	Faster analytical approach

3.4 Fabrication Considerations

After the tuning is complete, a **GDS** file needs to be prepared to create a mask and fabricate a chip. Firstly, a `gds render` instance has to be created. When preparing a superconducting qubit chip for fabrication using Qiskit Metal’s GDS renderer, several key considerations must be addressed to ensure compatibility with lithography processes. The bounding box scaling factors can expand or shrink the design area, preventing clipping issues, while short segment adjustments help refine small feature transitions and avoid unnecessary fillets in CPW bends. Josephson junction placement is controlled by **`junction_pad_overlap`** which ensures proper connectivity between the junction and superconducting pads, a critical factor in maintaining circuit performance. The cheese pattern is used to mitigate stress in the chip during fabrication, preventing unwanted defects. The ground plane setting is enabled to suppress spurious microwave modes, essential for high-coherence qubit operation. Additionally, the GDS file export precision ensures nanometer-scale accuracy, while **`width_LineString`** defines the minimum metal linewidth, which must align with the foundry’s process constraints. The circuit’s geometry is refined using **`corners = circular bend`** to minimize RF reflections, improving transmission line performance. Before finalizing the GDS export, it is crucial to validate the design in a GDS viewer like **KLayout** to check layer assignments, feature sizes, and cheese hole placements, ensuring the chip is fabrication-ready.

An example GDS view of proposed design 1 in KLayout is shown in Figure 3.8.

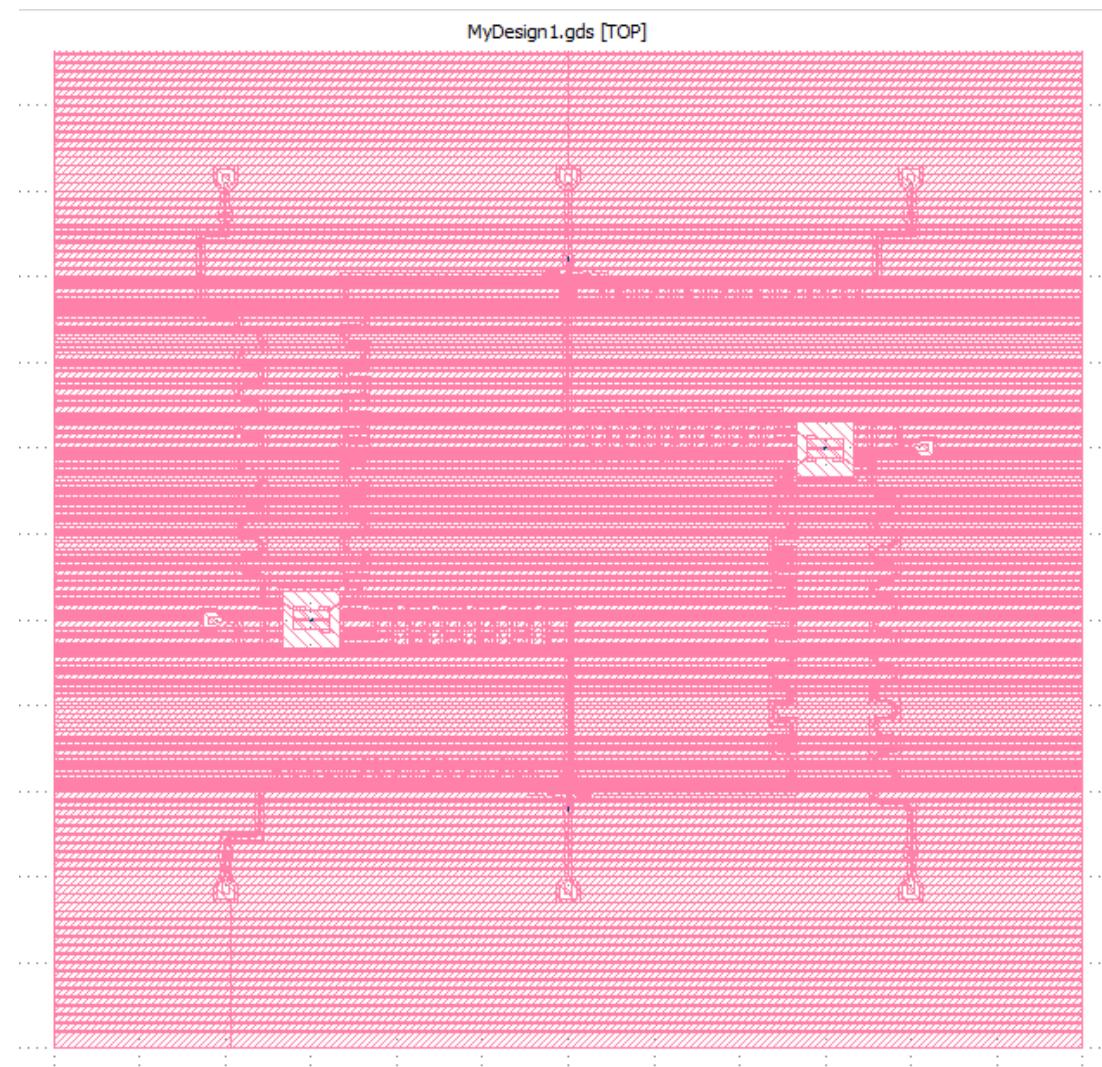


Figure 3.8: GDS rendered view of the Proposed Design-1

Chapter 4

Results and Discussion

The previous chapter described the design procedure of two-Qubit Superconducting Quantum Chips. This chapter describes the performance and tuning of one of the designed chips using various simulation analysis.

4.1 Tuning The Qubits using LOM Analysis

The desired range of qubit properties is extracted and listed in the Table 4.1. The literature are also included in this table.

Table 4.1: Key Transmon Qubit Parameters with References

Parameter	Typical Range	Importance	Reference
Qubit Frequency (ω_q)	4 GHz – 7 GHz	Ensures efficient control and readout	Koch et al., 2007 [20]
Anharmonicity (α_q)	100 MHz – 400 MHz	Prevents leakage to higher levels	Barends et al., 2013 [22]
Relaxation Time (T_1)	10 μ s – 500 μ s	Measures qubit lifetime	Place et al., 2021 [71]
Dispersive Shift (χ_{qc})	-1 MHz to -5 MHz	Enables qubit readout	Walter et al., 2017 [72]
Qubit-Bus Coupling (g_{q-bus})	10 – 80 MHz	Controls qubit interaction with resonator	Blais et al., 2020 [58]

Therefore, for the purpose of the design, the target values are listed in the table 4.2.

The dispersive shift (χ) is primarily important for the readout resonator, as it enables **quantum non-demolition (QND) readout** by shifting the resonator frequency depending on the qubit state, allowing efficient state measurement.

Table 4.2: Target Values for Qubit Parameters

Parameter	Target Value
Frequency (ω_q)	Qubit 1 = 4.8 GHz Qubit 2 = 5 GHz Qubit 3 = 5.2 GHz Qubit 4 = 5.4 GHz
Anharmonicity (α_q)	\sim 300 MHz
Dispersive Shift (χ_{qc})	\sim 1 MHz
Qubit-bus Coupling (g_{q-bus})	\sim 80 MHz

4.1.1 Tuning Qubit 1

Before tuning the qubit, lets look at some important default parameters of Transmon Pocket Qubit with Charge Line are listed in the table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Qubit 1 Default Parameters including Connection Pads, Bus Connections, and other Qubit Properties

Category	Parameter	Value
Connection Pads		
	readout_pad_gap	50um
	pad_width	80um
	pad_height	30um
	pad_cpw_shift	5um
	pad_cpw_extent	25um
	cpw_extend	100um
	pocket_extent	5um
	pocket_rise	65um
Bus Resonator		
	pad_gap	10um
	pad_width	60um
	pad_height	30um
	pad_cpw_shift	5um
	pad_cpw_extent	25um
	cpw_extend	100um
	pocket_extent	5um
	pocket_rise	65um
Other Qubit Parameters		
	pad_gap	30um
	inductor_width	20um
	pad_width	425um
	pad_height	90um
	pocket_width	650um
	pocket_height	650um
	make_CL	True
	cl_gap	60um
	cl_width	10um
	cl_length	120um
	cl_ground_gap	6um
	cl_pocket_edge	0
	cl_off_center	50um

The tuning of the qubits were performed by modifying the geometric configuration of the qubits or by changing Josephson Junction properties. The results of the tuning iterations are listed in the table shown in Figure 4.1.

Serial No.	Modifications	Parameter	Target Value	Resulted Value
1	Geometric Modification: (Default) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qubit Pad Gap = 30um, Readout Pad Gap = 50um, Readout Pad Width = 80um, Bus_13 Pad Width = 60um, Bus_14 Pad Width = 60um Lj = 14.9 nH, Cj= 2fF	Frequency	4.8 GHz	4.917 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-375.09 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-0.23 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -35.14 MHz
				Bus_13: -49.17 MHz
				Bus_14: 53.65 MHz
2	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qubit Pad Gap = 28um, Readout Pad Gap = 20um, Readout Pad Width = 100um, Bus_13 Pad Width = 130um, Bus_14 Pad Width = 130um Lj = 14.9 nH, Cj= 2fF	Frequency	4.8 GHz	4.794 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-352.829 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-0.544 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -59.327 MHz
				Bus_13: -80.695 MHz
				Bus_14: 93.068 MHz
3	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qubit Pad Gap = 28um, Readout Pad Gap = 15um, Readout Pad Width = 150um, Bus_13 Pad Width = 130um, Bus_14 Pad Width = 110um Lj = 14.9 nH, Cj= 2fF	Frequency	4.8 GHz	4.783 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-350.86 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-1.127 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -86.008 MHz
				Bus_13: -75.86 MHz
				Bus_14: 84.94 MHz
4	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qubit Pad Gap = 28um, Readout Pad Gap = 15um, Readout Pad Width = 150um, Bus_13 Pad Width = 130um, Bus_14 Pad Width = 110um Lj = 16 nH, Cj= 2fF	Frequency	4.8 GHz	4.604 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-353.826 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-0.942 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -84.49 MHz
				Bus_13: -74.519 MHz
				Bus_14: 83.439 MHz
5	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Qubit Pad Gap = 28um, Readout Pad Gap = 15um, Readout Pad Width = 150um, Bus_13 Pad Width = 130um, Bus_14 Pad Width = 110um Lj = 14.9 nH, Cj= 4 fF	Frequency	4.8 GHz	4.717 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-339.285 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-1.05 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -86.66 MHz
				Bus_13: -76.43 MHz
				Bus_14: 85.58 MHz

Figure 4.1: Tuning for Qubit 1.

From the table shown in Figure 4.1, it can be stated that results shown in the **third row** is the closest to our target tuning parameter values. Moreover, effects of the changes in geometry or

inductance or capacitance is shown in figure 4.2.

Modified Parameter	Change	Effect on Frequency	Effect on Anharmonicity	Effect on Qubit-Bus Coupling	Effect on Dispersive Shift
$L_j \uparrow$	$14.9\text{nH} \rightarrow 16\text{nH}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
$C_j \uparrow$	$2\text{fF} \rightarrow 4\text{fF}$	↑	↑	↑	↓
Qubit Pad Gap ↓	$30\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 28\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
Bus_13 Pad Width ↑	$60\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 130\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
Bus_14 Pad Width ↑	$60\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 130\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
Bus_14 Pad Width ↓	$130\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 110\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
Readout Pad Width ↑	$80\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 150\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓
Readout Pad Gap ↓	$50\mu\text{m} \rightarrow 15\mu\text{m}$	↓	↓	↓	↓

Figure 4.2: Effect of Changes in Tuning for Qubit 1.

The extracted **capacitance matrix** for the tuned qubit (according to the values of the *third row* of Table shown in Figure 4.1) is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Capacitance Matrix for Superconducting Qubit Circuit

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} & \text{bus_13} & \text{bus_14} & \text{cl_metal} & \text{ground} & \text{pad_bot} & \text{pad_top} & \text{readout} \\ \text{bus_13} & 53.33077 & -0.33159 & -0.00965 & -34.13588 & -1.63182 & -15.89420 & -0.48710 \\ \text{bus_14} & -0.33159 & 50.24319 & -0.00780 & -33.39629 & -14.15842 & -1.42492 & -0.14047 \\ \text{cl_metal} & -0.00965 & -0.00780 & 16.52001 & -15.93983 & -0.13809 & -0.18193 & -0.16703 \\ \text{ground} & -34.13588 & -33.39629 & -15.93983 & 249.39844 & -38.99769 & -33.19551 & -35.40139 \\ \text{pad_bot} & -1.63182 & -14.15842 & -0.13809 & -38.99769 & 92.28256 & -32.74671 & -1.84476 \\ \text{pad_top} & -15.89420 & -1.42492 & -0.18193 & -33.19551 & -32.74671 & 101.60921 & -15.69293 \\ \text{readout} & -0.48710 & -0.14047 & -0.16703 & -35.40139 & -1.84476 & -15.69293 & 54.65882 \end{bmatrix}$$

The convergence plots of frequency and anharmonicity of Qubit-1 are shown in the Figure 4.3.

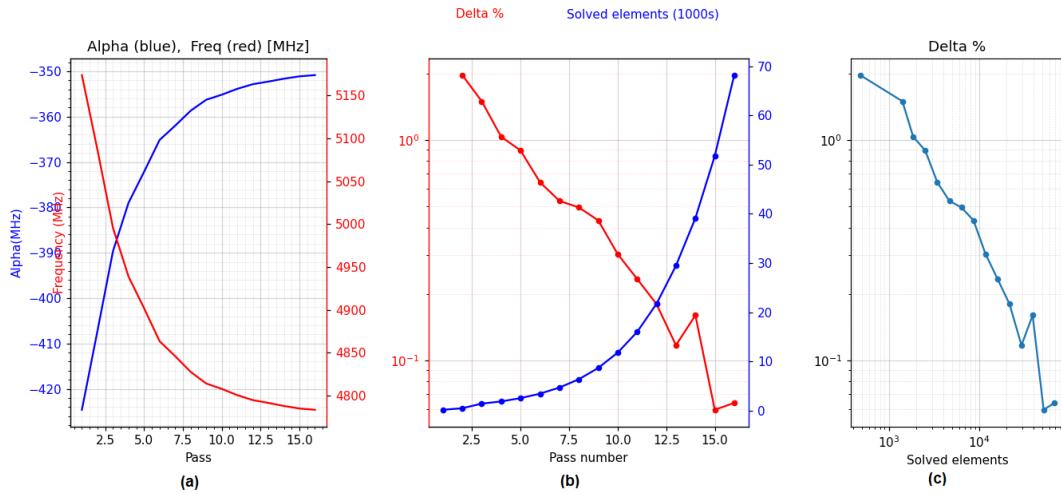


Figure 4.3: Convergence Plots for Qubit 1.(a)Convergence of Frequency and Anharmonicity with Pass Number, (b)Change in Delta and Solved Elements vs. Pass Number, (c)Delta Percentage vs. Number of Solved Elements

The first graph in figure 4.3, "Convergence of Frequency and Anharmonicity with Pass Number" illustrates how the qubit frequency (red) and anharmonicity (blue) stabilizes as the simulation progresses through multiple passes. The second graph, "Change in Delta and Solved Elements vs. Pass Number," shows how the relative error ($\Delta\%$) (red) decreases while the number of solved elements (blue) rises exponentially, indicating simulation refinement. The third graph, "Delta Percentage vs. Number of Solved Elements" highlights how $\Delta\%$ decreases with increasing solved elements, demonstrating the diminishing rate of improvement beyond a certain threshold. From these graphs collectively, it can be stated that the parameters-frequency and anharmonicity are well converged after 15 passes. Thus, these graphs help estimate the optimal pass number for balancing computational efficiency and accuracy.

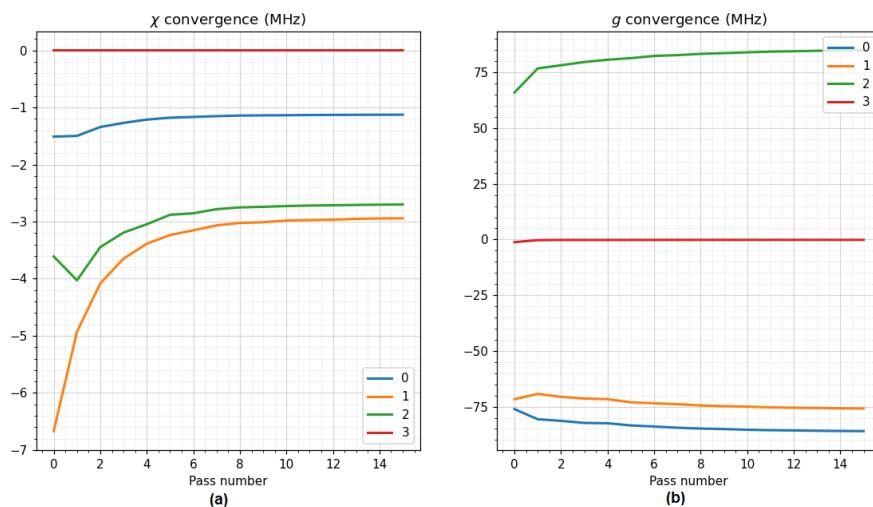


Figure 4.4: Convergence Plots for Qubit 1.(a)Convergence of χ , (b)Covergence of g

In figure 4.4, the left graph, "χ Convergence (MHz)" shows the dispersive shift (χ) of four different modes as a function of pass number, where most modes stabilize after a few passes, indicating convergence in qubit-resonator interaction strength. Of all the modes, we can distinguish the readout resonator mode which is the **blue curve** converging near -1. The right graph, "g Convergence (MHz)" represents the coupling strength (g) across different modes, showing that while some modes maintain near-zero values, others stabilize at positive or negative values, highlighting distinct coupling behaviors.

4.1.2 Tuning Qubit 2, Qubit 3 and Qubit 4

Similar to the process shown in Sub-section 4.1.1, rest of the Qubits are tuned and their capacitance matrix can be extracted along with similar convergence plots. Figure 4.5 shows the updated parameters of the Qubits after tuning.

Qubit	Modifications	Parameter	Target Value	Resulted Value
Qubit 2	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qubit Pad Gap = 28um, • Readout Pad Gap = 15um, • Readout Pad Width = 130um, • Bus_13 Pad Width = 100um, • Bus_14 Pad Width = 110um Lj = 13.3 nH, Cj= 2 fF	Frequency	5 GHz	5.032 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-338.49 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-1.085 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -83.97 MHz
				Bus_23: 83.99 MHz
				Bus_24: -77.89 MHz
Qubit 3	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qubit Cross Width = 18um, • Bus_13 Claw Width = 20um, • Bus_13 Claw Length = 120um, • Bus_14 Claw Width = 20um, • Bus_14 Claw Length = 120um, Lj = 8 nH, Cj= 3 fF	Frequency	5. GHz	5.22 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-288.49 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-0.985 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -82.27 MHz
				Bus_23: 79.59 MHz
				Bus_24: -81.45 MHz
Qubit 4	Geometric Modification: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Qubit Cross Width = 18um, • Bus_13 Claw Width = 20um, • Bus_13 Claw Length = 120um, • Bus_14 Claw Width = 20um, • Bus_14 Claw Length = 120um, Lj = 7.5 nH, Cj= 3 fF	Frequency	5.4 GHz	5.474 GHz
		Anharmonicity	~300 MHz	-345.56 MHz
		Dispersive Shift	~1 MHz	-1.118 MHz
		Qubit-bus Coupling	~80 MHz	Readout: -82.29 MHz
				Bus_23: 83.67 MHz
				Bus_24: -76.93 MHz

Figure 4.5: Table of Updated Parameters after Tuning of Qubit 2, Qubit 3 and Qubit 4

4.2 Tuning Coupling and Readout Resonators using EPR

While designing the chip, the resonator length was determined using a classical formula. At first, the guided wavelength of a planar CPW transmission line is given by:

$$\lambda_g = \frac{\lambda_0}{\sqrt{\epsilon_{\text{eff}}}} = \frac{c}{f\sqrt{\epsilon_{\text{eff}}}} \quad (4.1)$$

where: λ_g is the guided wavelength, $\lambda_0 = \frac{c}{f}$ is the free-space wavelength, c is the speed of light, f is the operating frequency, ϵ_{eff} is the effective dielectric constant.

The resonator length is then determined as:

$$L = \frac{\lambda_g}{N} \quad (4.2)$$

where: L is the resonator length, N determines the fraction of λ_g (e.g., $N = 2$ for $\lambda/2$, $N = 4$ for $\lambda/4$).

4.2.1 Tuning the Bus Resonators

The table in Figure 4.6 shows the updated lengths of the coupling buses after tuning. Resonator tuning was performed using EPR analysis method.

Bus	Target Frequency (GHz)	Theoretical Value (mm)	Value after Tuning (mm)	Resulted Frequency (GHz)
Bus_13	5.8	10.65	9.5	5.808
Bus_23	6	10.297	9.2	5.961
Bus_24	6.2	9.965	9	6.13
Bus_14	6.4	9.653	8.5	6.417

Figure 4.6: Table of Upadated Lengths after Tuning of Coupler Buses

4.2.2 Tuning the Readout Resonators

The table in Figure 4.7 shows the updated lengths of the readout resonator buses after tuning. This process of tuning was also performed using EPR analysis method, similar to the coupling buses.

Readout	Target Frequency (GHz)	Theoretical Value (mm)	Value after Tuning (mm)	Resulted Frequency (GHz)
Readout_1	6.8	8.95	8.3	6.808
Readout_2	7	8.69	8	7.022
Readout_3	7.2	8.45	7.9	7.232
Readout_4	7.4	8.224	7.7	7.424

Figure 4.7: Table of Updated Lengths after Tuning of Readout Resonators

While rendering the readout resonators, the interdigitated capacitor is neglected. But in a fabricated chip, the interdigitated capacitor can also affect the frequency of the resonator by a small amount.

4.3 Verification of the Tuning

For further verification of the tuning, the whole chip was rendered at once, which is computationally expensive. Then using eigenmode and EPR analysis all the mode frequencies were figured out using upto 10 passes. The resulting modes are listed in the table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Mode Frequencies in GHz

Mode	Freq. (GHz)
0	4.872064
1	5.073668
2	5.228010
3	5.242823
4	5.318098
5	5.455883
6	5.751513
7	5.953469
8	6.061440
9	6.380419
10	6.724154
11	6.829460

From the mode frequencies we can easily differentiate the qubits, bus resonators and readout resonators. Another important factor is the difference in mode frequencies are somewhat around 200KHz (apart from mode 2 and mode 3). As the simulation is computationally quite expensive, the convergence quality is poor as shown in figure 4.8.

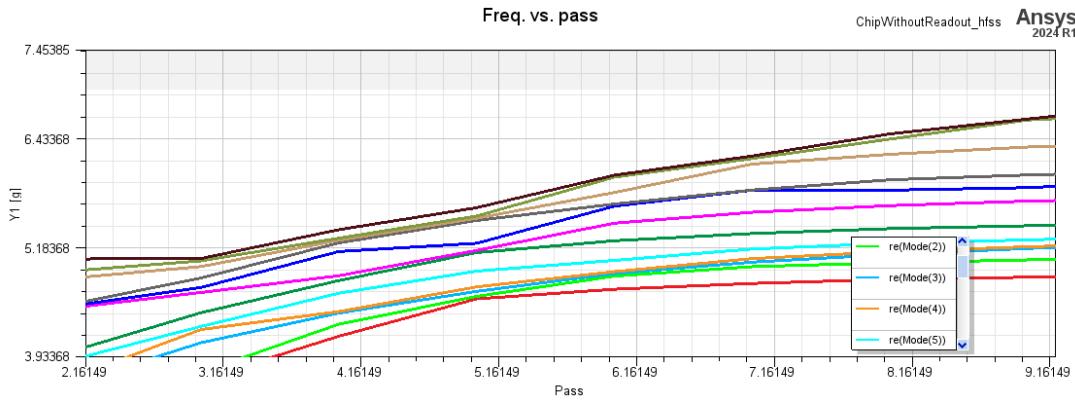


Figure 4.8: Convergence of all modes in Design 1

4.3.1 Calculation of Energy Participation ratio

The **Energy Participation Ratio (EPR)** of the substrate is defined as:

$$\text{EPR}_{\text{substrate}} = \frac{U_{\text{elec, substrate}}}{U_{\text{elec, total}}} \times 100\%$$

where $U_{\text{elec, substrate}}$ is the electric energy stored in the substrate, and $U_{\text{elec, total}}$ is the total electric energy in the system. In this case, the **EPR of the substrate is 91.8%** as shown in table 4.6, indicating that a significant portion of the electric energy resides in the substrate. A high substrate EPR suggests that dielectric losses in the substrate could limit qubit coherence, making it an essential factor in superconducting quantum circuit design.

Table 4.6: Energy Participation Ratio (EPR) Analysis of the Whole chip: Design 1

Parameter	Value
Total Electric Energy (energy_elec_all)	$5.58443313187822 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J}$
Substrate Electric Energy (energy_elec_substrate)	$5.12845080623539 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J}$
EPR of Substrate	91.8%
Magnetic Energy (energy_mag)	$2.33590433444508 \times 10^{-25} \text{ J}$
Magnetic Energy as % of Total Electric Energy	4.2%

4.4 Computational Cost

In this section, the computational cost for tuning a Qubit and a resonator is shown for various number of passes. Additionally, the overall computational cost for redeling the tuning the whole chip at once is also mentioned.

4.4.1 Computational Cost for Tuning a Qubit

Convergence graphs for qubit 1 shown in figure 4.3 and 4.4 had maximum 15 passes with minimum error threshold as 0.05%. The same convergence plots were created varying number of maximum passes and minimum error threshold to figure out optimal number of passes and simulation time for each case was measured.

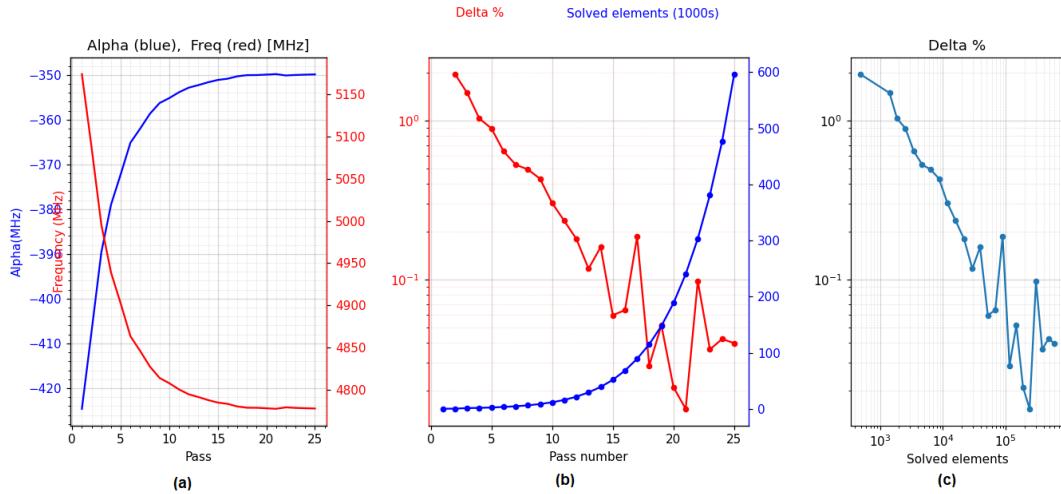


Figure 4.9: Convergence Plots for Qubit 1 for max passes = 25, min error threshold = 0.01%.(a)Convergence of Frequency and Anharmonicity with Pass Number, (b)Change in Delta and Solved Elements vs. Pass Number, (c)Delta Percentage vs. Number of Solved Elements

From the second graph in figure 4.9, it can be stated that, the values of frequency and anharmonicity of Qubit 1 have converged far better than the previous case. But the rate of change slows significantly after pass 15, showing diminishing improvement. In the previous case, the error percentage ($\Delta\%$) stabilized around pass 12-14, with fluctuations beyond this point. In the current case, $\Delta\%$ continues to decrease but exhibits high fluctuations after pass 18, suggesting over-refinement. Comparing the third graph in figure 4.9 with the previous case, it is visualized that both cases show a rapid drop in $\Delta\%$ initially, but after 10^4 solved elements, the decrease slows down.

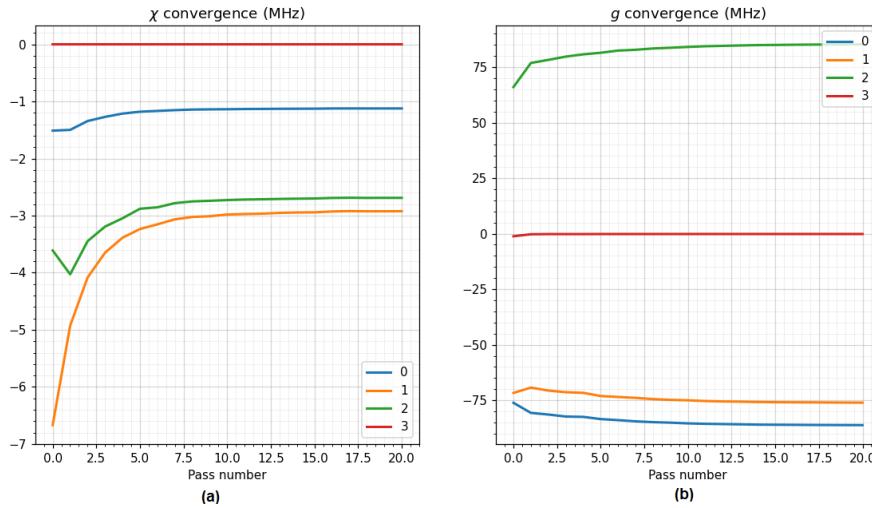


Figure 4.10: Convergence Plots for Qubit 1 for max passes =25, min error threshold = 0.01%. (a)Convergence of χ , (b)Covergence of g

Time taken for the LOM simulations of Qubit 1 are listed in the following table along with its convergence quality for various number of passes. Hardware used for the purpose of simulation in Ansys -

- **Processor:** AMD Ryzen 5 3600 6-Core Processor (3.60 GHz)
- **GPU:** NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1660 SUPER

Table 4.7: Convergence Behavior with Increasing max_pass Number for Qubit 1

Max no of passes	Time (seconds)	Convergence
10	42.8335	Poor
15	146.59	Moderate
21	620.338	Good
25	1521.411	Best

The data above can be plotted and fitted in an exponential model as shown in figure 4.11. So, it can be stated that with the increase in number of passes, the computational cost increases exponentially. The main metric for calculating computational cost is time required for simulation in our case.

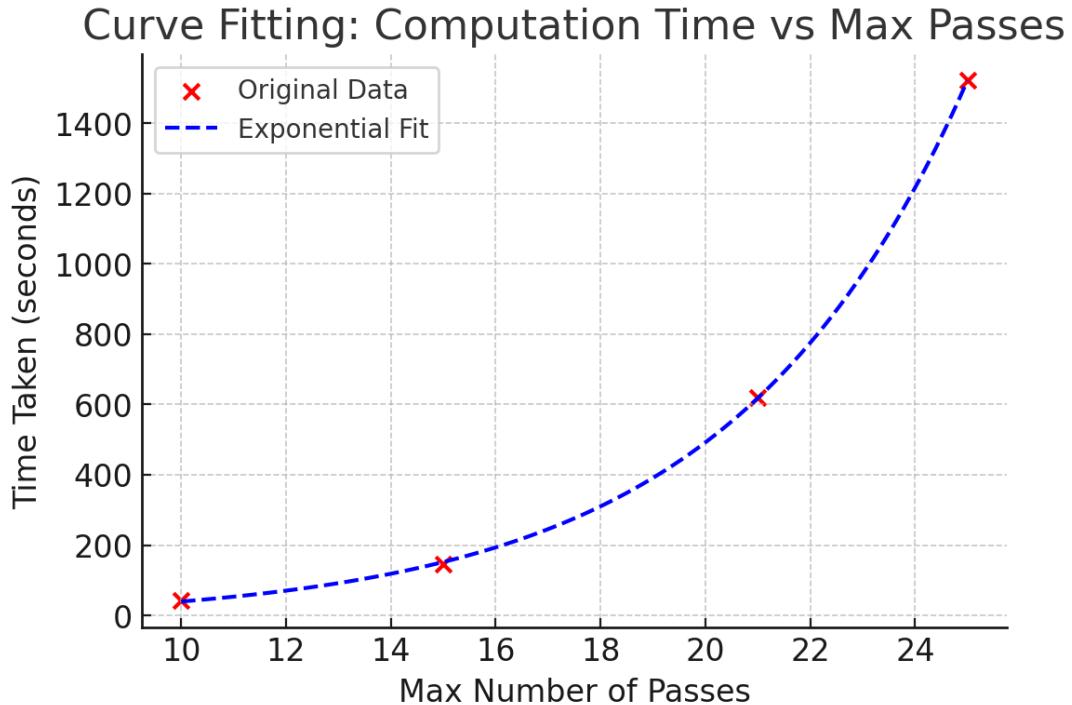


Figure 4.11: Time taken for LOM Simulation in seconds vs Number of Maximum passes for a Qubit

4.4.2 Computational Cost for Tuning a Resonator

For tuning a resonator using EPR analysis, time elapsed for simulation was measured **160.225 seconds for 12 passes**. The resulting convergence was satisfactory as shown in figure 4.12.

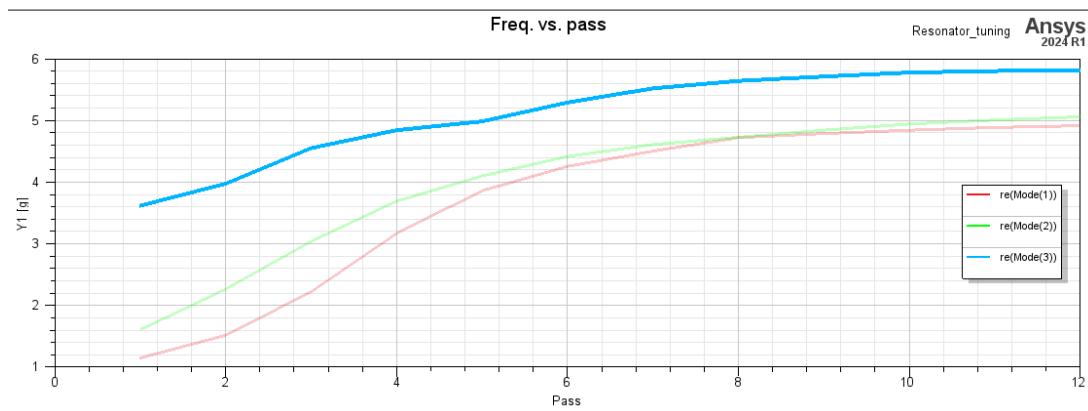


Figure 4.12: Convergence Plot for Resonator for max passes = 12

4.5 Comparison between Design 1 and Design 2

This section discusses a comparative analysis of Qubit-Connectivity between Design-1 and Design-2. In Design 1 each qubit is coupled to two neighbouring qubits, creating a Ring type architecture. The connectiviy diagram of Design 1 is shown in Figure 4.13.

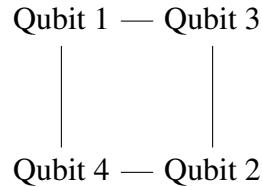


Figure 4.13: Connectivity Diagram of Design-1

Whereas the qubit connectiviy diagram of Design 2 is shown in Figure 4.14.

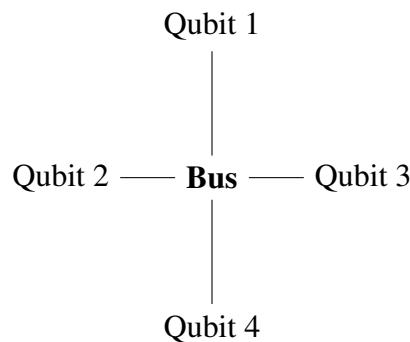


Figure 4.14: Connectivity Diagram of Design-2

As stated in Table 4.8, if 2 non neighbouring qubits in Design 1 has to interact, SWAP operations are needed, which increases error probability. In Design 2 on the other hand, SWAP operations are not required for any 2 qubits to interact. So Design 2, in this aspect, provides optimized coupling properties. A brief comparison regarding some other important aspects between the two designs have also been shown in this table .

Table 4.8: Comparison of Qubit Connectivity and Applications

Feature	Design 1: Direct Coupling	Design 2: Bus Resonator Coupling
Qubit Connectivity	Each qubit connects to two neighbors (e.g., a ring/chain).	Qubits interact through a shared bus resonator .
Gate Operations	Two-qubit gates (CZ, iSWAP, etc.) are executed via direct coupling.	Gates require resonator-mediated interactions.
Gate Feasibility (Q1-Q3)	No direct interaction → requires SWAP gates to move information through Q2 or Q4.	Q1 and Q3 can interact directly through the bus .
Crosstalk	Higher risk of parasitic coupling between qubits.	More controlled coupling , but can introduce resonator-induced loss .
Scalability	Extending to more qubits requires careful routing.	Easier to scale by adding qubits to the bus .
Error Accumulation	More SWAP gates = higher error rates .	No extra SWAP gates = lower error .
Readout Performance	Each qubit has a dedicated readout , avoiding interference.	Same dedicated readout , but bus interactions may introduce readout crosstalk .
Application Suitability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Efficient for nearest-neighbor algorithms (e.g., VQE, QAOA). - Good for local entanglement operations. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better for multi-qubit entanglement (e.g., GHZ state preparation, quantum memories). - Useful for global operations like quantum simulation.
Fabrication Complexity	More inter-qubit wiring; requires precise capacitance tuning .	More straightforward fabrication, but resonator design is crucial .

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Scope for Future Work

In the previous chapters, a brief overview of design and tuning process of a small multi-qubit superconducting quantum chip was discussed along with two cusomized designs were proposed. In this chapter, concluding remarks of this work including some applications of a small scale multi-qubit chip will be discussed, followed by novelty of the work and a discussion on future aspects of this research.

5.1 Conclusion

This section includes some applications of a 4-Qubit chip along with potentials for further optimization of the chip.

5.1.1 Application of a 4-Qubit Chip

A 4-qubit superconducting quantum chip serves as a fundamental building block, as well as a practical testbed for scalable systems. Many commercial quantum computing companies, including IBM, Rigetti, and Google, have utilized smaller multi-qubit architectures to benchmark small-scale quantum systems and validate their methodologies before moving to larger-scale implementations. Additionally, a 4-qubit system is large enough to execute fundamental quantum algorithms such as Grover’s Search, the Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT), and Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE)—providing insights into quantum advantage. This chip size also facilitates research into qubit connectivity and coupling, allowing different topologies (e.g., linear, star, or fully connected) to be tested, optimizing gate execution and mitigating crosstalk effects. Furthermore, in recent works, physical qubits in superconducting systems have reached the point where errors are at or below the threshold, and networks of 4-9 superconducting qubits with individual control and readout have been used to show concepts of error

correction [40, 42, 48].

Application 1: A Basic Entanglement Swapping Circuit

In quantum networks, we need to transmit entanglement over long distances. Since entanglement decoheres over distance, quantum repeaters perform entanglement swapping at intermediate nodes to extend the range of entanglement without sending fragile quantum states directly. This is the core principle behind a quantum repeater. In Figure 5.1, an entanglement swapping circuit using 4 qubits is shown.

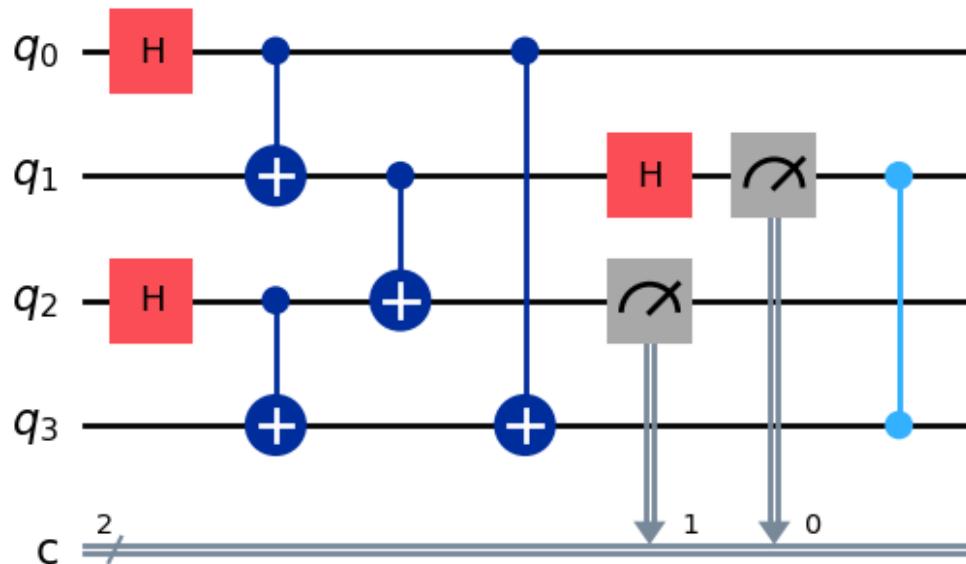


Figure 5.1: A Quantum circuit consisting 4 qubits. Initially, (Q0-Q1) and (Q2-Q3) were entangled separately. After entanglement swapping, Q1 and Q2 are measured, which transfers entanglement to Q0 and Q3. Q0 and Q3 are now entangled, though they are not directly connected

Application 2: Quantum Error Detection Code (Bit-Flip Code)

The goal of an error detection circuit is to encode information in such a way that we can detect (and potentially correct) errors caused by decoherence or noise. The simplest quantum error detection code is the bit-flip code, which encodes one logical qubit into multiple physical qubits. In Figure 5.1, an error detection circuit using 4 qubits is shown.

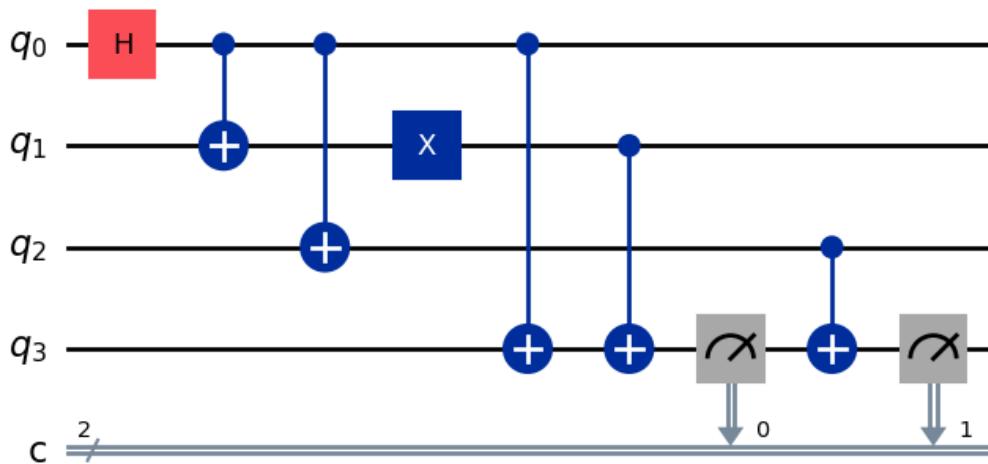


Figure 5.2: A Quantum circuit consisting 4 qubits implementing a quantum error detection code, specifically a bit-flip code. It can detect single-qubit bit-flip errors using syndrome measurements. If an error is detected, additional correction steps could be applied.

5.1.2 Further Optimization of Superconducting Chips

This research was based on design and tuning of a superconducting quantum chip. To further optimize the design and tuning to achieve better performance more rigorous electromagnetic and microwave simulation is needed. Due to heavy computational cost, the simulation of the whole chip in chapter 4 was limited to a few number of passes demonstrating poor convergence. Further optimization can be done incorporating a machine learning method for optimization and tuning.

Electromagnetic and Microwave Simulation Optimization

To ensure optimal qubit performance, full-wave simulations and eigenmode analysis are employed to prevent frequency crowding and minimize crosstalk.

- **Eigenmode and S-Parameter Analysis:** Ansys HFSS simulations help identify mode distributions and impedance matching.
- **Parasitic Element Reduction:** Using Q3D Extractor minimizes stray capacitance and inductance.
- **High-Q Resonator Design:** Coplanar waveguide (CPW) and microstrip adjustments increase quality factors.

- **Choosing different substrate:** In our simulation silicon was chose as substrate with effective dielectric constant = 11.45. Choice of substrate can help optimize and gain better results.

Machine Learning Optimization for Tuning

Machine learning (ML) techniques, such as reinforcement learning and Bayesian optimization, can enhance qubit parameter tuning and stability.

- Reinforcement Learning for Gate Calibration: ML models optimize qubit frequency tuning and detect frequency collisions [73].
- - Quantum Kernel Methods: ML-based noise classification aids in decoherence mitigation.
- Closed-Loop Control Systems: Real-time feedback mechanisms adjust qubit parameters dynamically [73].

Shanto et al. [74] in 2024 presented an open-source database of superconducting quantum device designs named **SQUAADS**, programmatically generated using Qiskit Metal and validated through simulations and experiments, providing a user-friendly interface to facilitate high-accuracy design customization and lower the barrier for new research.

5.2 Novelty of the Work

This study introduces two innovative designs for 4-qubit superconducting quantum chips. While small-scale superconducting quantum chips with Transmon qubits already exist, the proposed circuits stand out due to their unique circuit geometry. Furthermore, the inclusion of computational cost analysis for tuning qubit and resonator simulations sets this work apart from previous research.

5.3 Scope for Further Research and Future of Superconducting Quantum Chip

Recent advancements in superconducting quantum computing, such as Google's Willow processor with 105 qubits and IBM's cloud-based Quantum Platform, demonstrate rapid progress in scalability and error correction [30]. Microsoft's Majorana 1 chip further enhances qubit

stability using topological superconductors, advancing the field toward fault-tolerant quantum computing [31]. Zuchongzhi 3.0, revealed in March 3, 2025, is a 105-qubit superconducting quantum computer prototype that achieves high operational fidelities, with single-qubit gates, two-qubit gates, and readout fidelity at 99.90%, 99.62%, and 99.13%, respectively [32]. Amazon's Ocelot, released in February 2025, represents an important step on the road to practical quantum computers, leveraging chip-scale integration of cat qubits to form a scalable, hardware-efficient architecture for quantum error correction [33]. With ongoing improvements in fabrication, integrating larger qubit systems is becoming feasible, pushing quantum supremacy closer to reality. Tech giants like Google, IBM, Amazon, and Microsoft are heavily investing in commercialization, with applications in cryptography, drug discovery, and complex modeling. Resources like IBM's Qiskit and Quantum Platform provide researchers with tools to develop quantum algorithms. As coherence and error rates improve, superconducting quantum computing is set to revolutionize next-generation computational technologies. A roadmap illustrating the projected advancements in quantum computing across different technologies spanning from 2022 to beyond 2040 is shown in Figure 5.3.

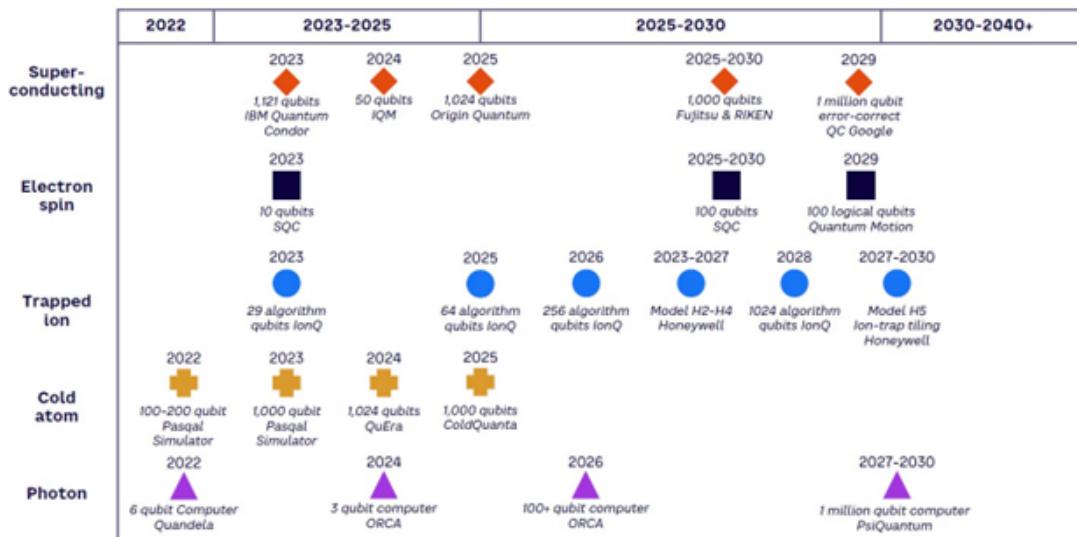


Figure 5.3: A roadmap illustrating the projected advancements in quantum computing across different technologies spanning from 2022 to beyond 2040.

The roadmap depicts that in superconducting qubits, IBM, IQM, and Origin Quantum are scaling their systems, with Google aiming for a 1-million-qubit error-corrected quantum computer by 2029. Electron spin-based quantum computing is progressing from 10 qubits in 2023 (SQC) to 100 logical qubits by 2029 (Quantum Motion). Trapped ion systems, led by IonQ and Honeywell, show a steady increase in qubit counts, targeting 1024 algorithmic qubits by 2028 and multi-qubit tiling models by 2030. Cold atom platforms, including Pasqal, QuEra, and ColdQuanta, project systems exceeding 1000 qubits by 2025. Meanwhile, photon-based quantum computing, represented by ORCA and PsiQuantum, is advancing toward 100+ qubits by

2026, with PsiQuantum aiming for a 1-million-qubit machine by 2030-2040. This roadmap highlights the rapid progress and competition among different quantum computing technologies, emphasizing scalability, error correction, and the path toward fault-tolerant quantum computation. In this paper, the design and tuning of a 4-qubit superconducting quantum chip were explored, comparing direct qubit coupling with a bus resonator architecture to evaluate their impact on qubit performance, connectivity, and coherence. The findings highlight the importance of geometric parameter optimization, resonator tuning, and loss mitigation strategies, paving the way for future improvements in scalability, error correction, and quantum gate fidelity for more robust superconducting quantum processors.

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Appendix A

Codes

A.1 Chip Design 1

This code is written in Qiskit Metal for the first design of quantum chip....

```
1 import qiskit_metal as metal
2 from qiskit_metal import designs, draw
3 from qiskit_metal import MetalGUI, Dict, open_docs
4
5 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_pocket_6 import TransmonPocket6
6 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_cross_fl import TransmonCrossFL
7 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_pocket_cl import TransmonPocketCL
8
9 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.straight_path import RouteStraight
10 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.meandered import RouteMeander
11 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.pathfinder import RoutePathfinder
12 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.anchored_path import RouteAnchors
13
14 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.lumped.cap_n_interdigital import CapNInterdigital
15 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.couplers.cap_n_interdigital_tee import CapNInterdigitalTee
16 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.couplers.coupled_line_tee import CoupledLineTee
17
18 from qiskit_metal qlibrary terminations.launchpad_wb import LaunchpadWirebond
19 from qiskit_metal qlibrary terminations.launchpad_wb_coupled import LaunchpadWirebondCoupled
20
21 design = metal.designs.DesignPlanar()
22 gui = metal.MetalGUI(design)
23
24 design.overwrite_enabled = True
25 design.chips.main
26
27 # Size of the chip
28 design.chips.main.size.size_x = '12mm'
29 design.chips.main.size.size_y = '12mm'
30
31 #Define Qubits
32 Q_1 = TransmonPocketCL(design, 'Q_1', options = dict(
33     pos_x=' -3mm',
34     pos_y=' -1mm',
35     gds_cell_name = 'FakeJunction_01',
```

```

36     hfss_inductance = '14nH',
37     pad_width = '425 um',
38     pocket_height = '650um',
39     connection_pads=dict(
40         readout = dict(loc_W=-1, loc_H=1, pad_width = '80um', pad_gap = '50um'),
41         bus_13 = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=1, pad_width = '60um', pad_gap = '10um'),
42         bus_14 = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=-1, pad_width = '60um', pad_gap = '10um')
43     )
44 ))
45
46 Q_2 = TransmonPocketCL(design,'Q_2', options = dict(
47     pos_x='3mm',
48     pos_y='1mm',
49     orientation='180',
50     gds_cell_name = 'FakeJunction_01',
51     hfss_inductance = '14nH',
52     pad_width = '425 um',
53     pocket_height = '650um',
54     connection_pads=dict(
55         readout = dict(loc_W=-1, loc_H=1, pad_width = '80um', pad_gap = '50um'),
56         bus_23 = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=-1, pad_width = '60um', pad_gap = '10um'),
57         bus_24 = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=1, pad_width = '60um', pad_gap = '10um')
58     )
59 ))
60
61 Q_3 = TransmonCrossFL(design, 'Q_3', options=dict(
62     pos_x='0mm',
63     pos_y='3mm',
64     orientation='180',
65     connection_pads=dict(
66         bus_13=dict(connector_location='180', claw_length='95um'),
67         bus_23=dict(connector_location='90', claw_length='95um'),
68         readout=dict(connector_location=' -90')
69     ),
70     fl_options=dict()
71 ))
72
73 Q_4 = TransmonCrossFL(design, 'Q_4', options=dict(
74     pos_x='0mm',
75     pos_y=' -3mm',
76     orientation='0',
77     connection_pads=dict(
78         bus_14=dict(connector_location='90', claw_length='95um'),
79         bus_24=dict(connector_location='180', claw_length='95um'),
80         readout=dict(connector_location='0')
81     ),
82     fl_options=dict()
83 ))
84
85 # Resonator Length Approximation from theory
86 from qiskit_metal.analyses.em.cpw_calculations import guided_wavelength
87 def find_resonator_length(frequency, line_width, line_gap, N):
88     # frequency in GHz
89     # line_width/line_gap in um
90     # N -> 2 for lambda/2, 4 for lambda/4
91     # substrate dimensions and properties already set (Default dielectric constant value is
92     # used)
93

```



```

153     pin_inputs = Dict(
154         start_pin = Dict(
155             component = 'Q_2',
156             pin = 'bus_24'
157         ),
158         end_pin = Dict(
159             component = 'Q_4',
160             pin = 'bus_24'
161         )
162     ),
163     lead = Dict(
164         start_straight = '125um',
165         end_straight = '225um'
166     ),
167     meander = Dict(
168         asymmetry = '50um'),
169         fillet = "99um",
170         total_length = '9.97mm'
171
172     ))
173
174 bus_14 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_14', options = dict(
175     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
176     pin_inputs = Dict(
177         start_pin = Dict(
178             component = 'Q_1',
179             pin = 'bus_14'
180         ),
181         end_pin = Dict(
182             component = 'Q_4',
183             pin = 'bus_14'
184         )
185     ),
186     lead = Dict(
187         start_straight = '125um',
188         end_straight = '225um'
189     ),
190     meander = Dict(
191         asymmetry = '50um'),
192         fillet = "99um",
193         total_length = '9.65mm'
194
195     ))
196
197 # Adding jogs to create smooth meandered lines
198 from collections import OrderedDict
199 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
200 jogs_start[0] = ['L', '350um']
201 jogs_start[1] = ['L', '500um']
202
203 jogs_end = OrderedDict()
204 jogs_end[0] = ['L', '680um']
205 jogs_end[1] = ['L', '700um']
206
207 bus_13 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_13', options = dict(
208     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
209     pin_inputs = Dict(
210         start_pin = Dict(
211             component = 'Q_1',

```

```

212             pin = 'bus_13'
213         ),
214         end_pin = Dict(
215             component = 'Q_3',
216             pin = 'bus_13'
217         )
218     ),
219     lead = Dict(
220         start_straight = '125um',
221         end_straight = '225um'
222     ),
223     meander = Dict(
224         asymmetry = '50um'),
225         fillet = "99um",
226         total_length = '10.65mm'
227
228     ))
229
230 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
231 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
232 jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
233
234 bus_23 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_23', options = dict(
235             hfss_wire_bonds = True,
236             pin_inputs = Dict(
237                 start_pin = Dict(
238                     component = 'Q_2',
239                     pin = 'bus_23'
240                 ),
241                 end_pin = Dict(
242                     component = 'Q_3',
243                     pin = 'bus_23'
244                 )
245             ),
246             lead = Dict(
247                 start_straight = '125um',
248                 end_straight = '225um'
249             ),
250             meander = Dict(
251                 asymmetry = '50um'),
252                 fillet = "99um",
253                 total_length = '10.3mm'
254
255     ))
256
257 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
258 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
259 jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
260
261 bus_24 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_24', options = dict(
262             hfss_wire_bonds = True,
263             pin_inputs = Dict(
264                 start_pin = Dict(
265                     component = 'Q_2',
266                     pin = 'bus_24'
267                 ),
268                 end_pin = Dict(
269                     component = 'Q_4',
270                     pin = 'bus_24'

```

```

271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284 joggs_start = OrderedDict()
285 joggs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
286 joggs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
287 bus_14 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_14', options = dict(
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300
301
302
303
304
305
306
307
308
309
310
311
312 #Define Readout Resonators
313 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(6.8,10,6,2) #Readout_Q1
314 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7,10,6,2) #Readout_Q2
315 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7.2,10,6,2) #Readout_Q3
316 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7.4,10,6,2) #Readout_Q4
317
318 joggs_start = OrderedDict()
319 joggs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
320 joggs_end[0] = ['R', '300um']
321
322 readout_1 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_1', options=dict(
323
324
325
326
327
328
329
)
),
lead = Dict(
    start_straight = '125um',
    end_straight = '225um'
),
meander = Dict(
    asymmetry = '50um',
    fillet = "99um",
    total_length = '9.97mm'
)
))

jogs_start = OrderedDict()
jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
bus_14 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_14', options = dict(
hfss_wire_bonds = True,
pin_inputs = Dict(
    start_pin = Dict(
        component = 'Q_1',
        pin = 'bus_14'
    ),
    end_pin = Dict(
        component = 'Q_4',
        pin = 'bus_14'
    )
),
lead = Dict(
    start_straight = '125um',
    end_straight = '225um'
),
meander = Dict(
    asymmetry = '50um',
    fillet = "99um",
    total_length = '9.65mm'
)
))
)

#Define Readout Resonators
Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(6.8,10,6,2) #Readout_Q1
Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7,10,6,2) #Readout_Q2
Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7.2,10,6,2) #Readout_Q3
Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7.4,10,6,2) #Readout_Q4
joggs_start = OrderedDict()
joggs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
joggs_end[0] = ['R', '300um']
readout_1 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_1', options=dict(
hfss_wire_bonds=True,
pin_inputs=Dict(
    start_pin=Dict(
        component='Q_1',
        pin='readout'
    ),
    end_pin=Dict(

```

```

330                     component='Cap_Readout_Q_1',
331                     pin='south_end'
332                 )
333             ),
334             lead=Dict(
335                 start_straight='125um',
336                 end_straight='125um',
337                 start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
338                 end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
339             ),
340             meander=Dict(
341                 asymmetry='150um'),
342                 fillet='99um',
343                 total_length='8.95mm'
344
345         ))
346
347
348
349
350
351 readout_2 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_2', options=dict(
352     hfss_wire_bonds=True,
353     pin_inputs=Dict(
354         start_pin=Dict(
355             component='Q_2',
356             pin='readout'
357         ),
358         end_pin=Dict(
359             component='Cap_Readout_Q_2',
360             pin='south_end'
361         )
362     ),
363     lead=Dict(
364         start_straight='125um',
365         end_straight='125um',
366         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
367         # end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
368     ),
369     meander=Dict(
370         asymmetry='150um'),
371         fillet='99um',
372         total_length='8.69mm'
373
374     ))
375
376
377
378 readout_3 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_3', options=dict(
379     hfss_wire_bonds=True,
380     pin_inputs=Dict(
381         start_pin=Dict(
382             component='Q_3',
383             pin='readout'
384         ),
385         end_pin=Dict(
386             component='Cap_Readout_Q_3',
387             pin='south_end'
388         )

```

```

389         ) ,
390         lead=Dict(
391             start_straight='125um',
392             end_straight='125um',
393             start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
394             # end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
395         ) ,
396         meander=Dict(
397             asymmetry='150um'),
398             fillet='99um',
399             total_length='8.45mm'
400
401     ))
402
403
404
405 readout_4 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_4', options=dict(
406     hfss_wire_bonds=True,
407     pin_inputs=Dict(
408         start_pin=Dict(
409             component='Q_4',
410             pin='readout'
411         ) ,
412         end_pin=Dict(
413             component='Cap_Readout_Q_4',
414             pin='south_end'
415         )
416     ) ,
417     lead=Dict(
418         start_straight='125um',
419         end_straight='125um',
420         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
421         # end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
422     ) ,
423     meander=Dict(
424         asymmetry='150um'),
425         fillet='99um',
426         total_length='8.22mm'
427
428 ))
429
430
431 #Defining Launchpads and coupling capacitors
432
433 launch_readout_q_1 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_Readout_Q_1',
434                                         options = dict(
435                                             pos_x = '-4mm',
436                                             pos_y = '4mm',
437                                             orientation = '-90'
438                                         ))
439
440 launch_readout_q_2 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_Readout_Q_2',
441                                         options = dict(
442                                             pos_x = '4mm',
443                                             pos_y = '-4mm',
444                                             orientation = '90'
445                                         ))
446
447 launch_readout_q_3 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_Readout_Q_3',

```

```
448     options = dict(
449         pos_x = '4mm',
450         pos_y = '4mm',
451         orientation = '-90'
452     ))
453 launch_readout_q_4 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_Readout_Q_4',
454                                         options = dict(
455                                             pos_x = '-4mm',
456                                             pos_y = '-4mm',
457                                             orientation = '90'
458                                         ))
459
460
461
462 launch_cl_q_1 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_CL_Q_1',
463                                     options = dict(
464                                         pos_x = '-4mm',
465                                         pos_y = '-1mm',
466                                         orientation = '0',
467                                         trace_width = '5um',
468                                         trace_gap = '3um'
469                                     ))
470
471 launch_cl_q_2 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_CL_Q_2',
472                                     options = dict(
473                                         pos_x = '4mm',
474                                         pos_y = '1mm',
475                                         orientation = '180',
476                                         trace_width = '5um',
477                                         trace_gap = '3um'
478                                     ))
479
480
481 launch_fl_q_3 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_FL_Q_3',
482                                     options = dict(
483                                         pos_x = '0mm',
484                                         pos_y = '4mm',
485                                         orientation = '-90',
486                                         trace_width = '5um',
487                                         trace_gap = '3um'
488                                     ))
489
490 launch_fl_q_4 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_FL_Q_4',
491                                     options = dict(
492                                         pos_x = '0mm',
493                                         pos_y = '-4mm',
494                                         orientation = '90',
495                                         trace_width = '5um',
496                                         trace_gap = '3um'
497                                     ))
498
499
500
501 cap_readout_q_1 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_1',
502                                     options=dict(
503                                         pos_x=' -4mm',
504                                         pos_y=' 3.8mm',
505                                         orientation=' 0'
506                                     ))
```

```
507
508 cap_readout_q_2 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_2',
509     options=dict(
510         pos_x='4mm',
511         pos_y='−3.8mm',
512         orientation='180'
513     ))
514
515 cap_readout_q_3 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_3',
516     options=dict(
517         pos_x='4mm',
518         pos_y='3.8mm',
519         orientation='0'
520     ))
521
522 cap_readout_q_4 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_4',
523     options=dict(
524         pos_x='−4mm',
525         pos_y='−3.8mm',
526         orientation='180'
527     ))
528
529 #Define charge lines and flux lines
530 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
531 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
532 jogs_end[0] = ['R', '100um']
533
534
535 charge_line_q_1 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Charge_Line_Q_1', options = dict(
536     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
537     fillet='99um',
538     trace_width = '5um',
539     trace_gap = '3um',
540
541     lead=dict(
542         start_straight='125um',
543         end_straight='125um',
544         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
545         #end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
546         #end_straight='150um'
547     ),
548     pin_inputs=Dict(
549         start_pin=Dict(
550             component='Launch_CL_Q_1',
551             pin='tie'),
552         end_pin=Dict(
553             component='Q_1',
554             pin='Charge_Line')
555     )))
556
557
558
559
560
561 charge_line_q_2 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Charge_Line_Q_2', options = dict(
562     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
563     fillet='99um',
564     trace_width = '5um',
565     trace_gap = '3um',
```

```

566
567             lead=dict(
568                 start_straight='125um',
569                 end_straight='125um',
570                 start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
571             ),
572             pin_inputs=Dict(
573                 start_pin=Dict(
574                     component='Launch_CL_Q_2',
575                     pin='tie'),
576                 end_pin=Dict(
577                     component='Q_2',
578                     pin='Charge_Line')
579             )))
580
581 flux_line_q_3 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Flux_Line_Q_3', options = dict(
582     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
583     pin_inputs=Dict(
584         start_pin=Dict(
585             component='Q_3',
586             pin='flux_line'
587         ),
588         end_pin=Dict(
589             component='Launch_FL_Q_3',
590             pin='tie'
591         )
592     ),
593     fillet = '99um',
594     trace_width = '5um',
595     trace_gap = '3um'
596 ))
597 flux_line_q_4 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Flux_Line_Q_4', options = dict(
598     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
599     pin_inputs=Dict(
600         start_pin=Dict(
601             component='Q_4',
602             pin='flux_line'
603         ),
604         end_pin=Dict(
605             component='Launch_FL_Q_4',
606             pin='tie'
607         )
608     ),
609     fillet = '99um',
610     trace_width = '5um',
611     trace_gap = '3um'
612 ))
613
614 #Define transmission lines
615 tl_readout_q_1 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_1', options = dict(
616     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
617     pin_inputs=Dict(
618         start_pin=Dict(
619             component='Cap_Readout_Q_1',
620             pin='north_end'
621         ),
622         end_pin=Dict(
623             component='Launch_Readout_Q_1',
624             pin='tie'

```

```
625
626
627
628
629
630 tl_readout_q_2 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_2', options = dict(
631     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
632     pin_inputs=Dict(
633         start_pin=Dict(
634             component='Cap_Readout_Q_2',
635             pin='north_end'
636         ),
637         end_pin=Dict(
638             component='Launch_Readout_Q_2',
639             pin='tie'
640         )
641     ),
642     trace_width = '10um',
643     trace_gap = '6um'
644 ))
645
646 tl_readout_q_3 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_3', options = dict(
647     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
648     pin_inputs=Dict(
649         start_pin=Dict(
650             component='Cap_Readout_Q_3',
651             pin='north_end'
652         ),
653         end_pin=Dict(
654             component='Launch_Readout_Q_3',
655             pin='tie'
656         )
657     ),
658     trace_width = '10um',
659     trace_gap = '6um'
660 ))
661
662 tl_readout_q_4 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_4', options = dict(
663     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
664     pin_inputs=Dict(
665         start_pin=Dict(
666             component='Cap_Readout_Q_4',
667             pin='north_end'
668         ),
669         end_pin=Dict(
670             component='Launch_Readout_Q_4',
671             pin='tie'
672         )
673     ),
674     trace_width = '10um',
675     trace_gap = '6um'
676 ))
677
678 gui.rebuild()
679 gui.autoscale()
680
681 #Taking Screeeshot
682 gui.screenshot()
```

A.2 Tuning of Chip 1

This is a Qiskit Metal code for tuning the first design of quantum chip. To avoid lengthy code section, tuning process of only 1 qubit and 1 resonator is shown...

```

1 #Tuning the Qubits using LOM
2
3 #Qubit 1
4 from qiskit_metal.analyses.quantization import LOManalysis
5
6 #Rendering using Ansys Q3D
7 c1 = LOManalysis(design, "q3d")
8 c1.sim.run(name="Q_1", components=['Q_1'], open_terminations=[('Q_1', 'readout'), ('Q_1', 'bus_13'), ('Q_1', 'bus_14'), ('Q_1', 'Charge_Line')])
9
10 #Extracting Capacitance Matrix
11 c1.sim.capacitance_matrix
12
13 c1.setup.junctions = Dict({'Lj': 14.9, 'Cj': 2})
14 c1.setup.freq_readout = 6.8
15 c1.setup.freq_bus = [5.8, 6, 8]
16
17 c1.run_lom()
18 c1.lumped_oscillator_all
19
20 # Plotting Convergence graphs
21
22 c1.plot_convergence()
23 c1.plot_convergence_chi()
24
25 #Closing design window
26 c1.sim.renderer.clean_active_design()
27
28
29 #Run simulations until best tuning parameters are found
30 #Rest of the qubits are tuned in similar manner. To avoid length of this thesis book, rest of
   the codes are not shared here
31
32 #Tuning the resonators using EPR
33 from qiskit_metal.analyses.quantization import EPRanalysis
34 eig_res = EPRanalysis(design, "hfss")
35
36 bus_13_hfss = eig_res.sim.renderer
37 bus_13_hfss.start()
38
39 bus_13_hfss.activate_ansys_design("Resonator_tuning", 'eigenmode') # use new_ansys_design()
   to force creation of a blank design
40
41 bus_13_hfss.render_design(selection = ['Bus_13', 'Q_1', 'Q_3'], ignored_jjs = [(Q_1, 'rect_jj'), (Q_3, 'rect_jj')], box_plus_buffer = False)
42
43 bus_13_setup = bus_13_hfss.pinfo.setup
44 bus_13_setup.passes = 12
45 bus_13_setup.n_modes = 2
46
47 print(f"""
48 Number of eigenmodes to find      = {bus_13_setup.n_modes}
49 Number of simulation passes      = {bus_13_setup.passes}

```

```

50 Convergence freq max delta percent diff = {bus_13_setup.delta_f}
51 """
52
53 # Next 2 lines are counterintuitive, since there is no junction in this resonator.
54 # However, these are necessary to make pyEPR work correctly. Please do note delete
55 bus_13_hfss.pinfo.design.set_variable('Lj', '10 nH')
56 bus_13_hfss.pinfo.design.set_variable('Cj', '0 fF')
57
58 bus_13_setup.analyze()
59
60 bus_13_setup.get_solutions().eigenmodes()
61
62 #Plotting Convergence
63 eig_res.sim.convergence_t, eig_res.sim.convergence_f, _ = bus_13_hfss.get_convergences()
64 eig_res.sim.plot_convergences()
65 bus_13_hfss.modeler._modeler.ShowWindow()
66
67 #Ploting Electric Fields
68 bus_13_hfss.plot_fields('main')
69
70 # Changing variable and redo the whole process
71 bus_13.options.total_length = '10.5mm'
72 gui.rebuild()
73 bus_13_hfss.clean_active_design()
74
75 #Rest of the buses are tuned in the similar manner

```

A.3 Tuning Verification of Chip 1

This is a Qiskit Metal code for verification of tuning the first design of quantum chip....

```

1 #updating the parameters
2 Q_1.options.pad_gap = '28um'
3 Q_1.options.connection_pads.readout.pad_gap = '15um'
4 Q_1.options.connection_pads.readout.pad_width = '150um'
5 Q_1.options.connection_pads.bus_13.pad_width = '130um'
6 Q_1.options.connection_pads.bus_14.pad_width = '110um'
7 Q_1.options.hfss_inductance = '14.9nH'
8 Q_1.options.hfss_capacitance = '2fF'
9
10 Q_2.options.pad_gap = '28um'
11 Q_2.options.connection_pads.readout.pad_gap = '15um'
12 Q_2.options.connection_pads.readout.pad_width = '130um'
13 Q_2.options.connection_pads.bus_23.pad_width = '100um'
14 Q_2.options.connection_pads.bus_24.pad_width = '110um'
15 Q_2.options.hfss_inductance = '13.3nH'
16 Q_2.options.hfss_capacitance = '4fF'
17
18 Q_3.options.cross_width = '18um'
19 Q_3.options.connection_pads.bus_13.claw_width = '20um'
20 Q_3.options.connection_pads.bus_13.claw_length = '120um'
21 Q_3.options.connection_pads.bus_23.claw_width = '20um'
22 Q_3.options.connection_pads.bus_23.claw_length = '120um'
23 Q_3.options.hfss_inductance = '8nH'
24 Q_3.options.hfss_capacitance = '3fF'
25

```

```

26 Q_4.options.cross_width = '18um'
27 Q_4.options.connection_pads.bus_14.claw_width = '20um'
28 Q_4.options.connection_pads.bus_14.claw_length = '120um'
29 Q_4.options.connection_pads.bus_24.claw_width = '20um'
30 Q_4.options.connection_pads.bus_24.claw_length = '120um'
31 Q_4.options.hfss_inductance = '7.5nH'
32 Q_4.options.hfss_capacitance = '3fF'
33
34 bus_13.options.total_length = '9.5mm'
35 bus_23.options.total_length = '9.2mm'
36 bus_24.options.total_length = '9mm'
37 bus_14.options.total_length = '8.5mm'
38
39 bus_13.options.fillet = '50um'
40 bus_24.options.fillet = '50um'
41
42 readout_1.options.total_length = '8.3mm'
43 readout_2.options.total_length = '8mm'
44 readout_3.options.total_length = '7.9mm'
45 readout_4.options.total_length = '7.7mm'
46
47
48 gui.rebuild()
49
50 import pyEPR as epr
51 from qiskit_metal.analyses.quantization import EPRanalysis
52
53 # TODO: fold this inside either an analysis class method, or inside the analysis class setup
54 qcomps = design.components # short handle (alias)
55 qcomps['Q_1'].options['hfss_inductance'] = 'Lj1'
56 qcomps['Q_1'].options['hfss_capacitance'] = 'Cj1'
57 qcomps['Q_2'].options['hfss_inductance'] = 'Lj2'
58 qcomps['Q_2'].options['hfss_capacitance'] = 'Cj2'
59 qcomps['Q_3'].options['hfss_inductance'] = 'Lj3'
60 qcomps['Q_3'].options['hfss_capacitance'] = 'Cj3'
61 qcomps['Q_4'].options['hfss_inductance'] = 'Lj4'
62 qcomps['Q_4'].options['hfss_capacitance'] = 'Cj4'
63
64
65 gui.rebuild() # line needed to propagate the updates from the qubit instance into the
               junction design table
66 gui.autoscale()
67
68 eig_2qb = EPRanalysis(design, "hfss")
69
70 eig_2qb.sim.setup.max_passes = 10
71 eig_2qb.sim.setup.max_delta_f = 0.05
72 eig_2qb.sim.setup.n_modes = 12
73 eig_2qb.sim.setup.vars = Dict(Lj1= '14.9 nH', Cj1= '2 fF',
74                               Lj2= '13.3 nH', Cj2= '4 fF',
75                               Lj3= '7.5 nH', Cj3= '3 fF',
76                               Lj4= '7.5 nH', Cj4= '3 fF')
77 eig_2qb.sim.setup
78
79 # TODO: fold this inside either an analysis class method, or inside the analysis class setup
80
81 eig_2qb.sim.renderer.options['x_buffer_width_mm'] = 0.5
82 eig_2qb.sim.renderer.options['y_buffer_width_mm'] = 0.5
83 eig_2qb.sim.renderer.options

```

```

84
85 #Measuring Computational Complexity while rendering
86 import time
87 start = time.time()
88 print("Counting")
89
90 eig_2qb.sim.run(name="ChipWithoutReadout",
91                     components=['Q_1', 'Q_2', 'Q_3', 'Q_4', 'Bus_13', 'Bus_23', 'Bus_24', 'Bus_14',
92                     'Readout_1', 'Readout_2', 'Readout_3', 'Readout_4',
93                     'Launch_Readout_Q_1', 'Launch_Readout_Q_2', 'Launch_Readout_Q_3',
94                     'Launch_Readout_Q_4',
95                     'Launch_CL_Q_1', 'Launch_CL_Q_2', 'Launch_FL_Q_3', 'Launch_FL_Q_4',
96                     'Cap_Readout_Q_1', 'Cap_Readout_Q_2', 'Cap_Readout_Q_3',
97                     'Cap_Readout_Q_4',
98                     'Charge_Line_Q_1', 'Charge_Line_Q_2', 'Flux_Line_Q_3', 'Flux_Line_Q_4',
99                     'TL_Readout_Q_1', 'TL_Readout_Q_2', 'TL_Readout_Q_3', 'TL_Readout_Q_4'
100                ])
101
102 end = time.time()
103 print("Time Elapsed:", end - start)
104
105 eig_2qb.sim.plot_convergences()
106
107 eig_2qb.get_frequencies()
108
109 eig_2qb.setup.junctions.jj1 = Dict(rect='JJ_rect_Lj_Q_1_rect_jj', line='JJ_Lj_Q_1_rect_jj',
110                                         Lj_variable='Lj1', Cj_variable='Cj1')
111 eig_2qb.setup.junctions.jj2 = Dict(rect='JJ_rect_Lj_Q_2_rect_jj', line='JJ_Lj_Q_2_rect_jj',
112                                         Lj_variable='Lj2', Cj_variable='Cj2')
113 eig_2qb.setup.junctions.jj3 = Dict(rect='JJ_rect_Lj_Q_3_rect_jj', line='JJ_Lj_Q_3_rect_jj',
114                                         Lj_variable='Lj3', Cj_variable='Cj3')
115 eig_2qb.setup.junctions.jj4 = Dict(rect='JJ_rect_Lj_Q_4_rect_jj', line='JJ_Lj_Q_4_rect_jj',
116                                         Lj_variable='Lj4', Cj_variable='Cj4')
117
118
119 # Running EPR analysis to get the energy participation ratio
120 eig_2qb.run_epr()
121
122 eig_2qb.sim.close()

```

A.4 GDS rendering of Chip 1

This is a Qiskit Metal code for GDS rendering of the first design of quantum chip....

```

1 #GDS Rendering
2
3 mt_gds = design.renderers.gds
4 mt_gds.options['path_filename'] = '../qiskit-metal-main/qiskit-metal-main/tutorials/resources/
   Fake_Junctions.GDS'
5
6

```

```

7
8 mt_gds.options.no_cheese.buffer = '40um'
9 mt_gds.options.max_points = 199
10 mt_gds.options.cheese.cheese_0_x = '2um'
11 mt_gds.options.cheese.cheese_0_y = '1um'
12 mt_gds.options.cheese.view_in_file = {'main': {1: True}}
13
14
15 mt_gds.export_to_gds("MyDesign1.gds")
16
17 #Open KLayout to view renderd gds file

```

A.5 Chip Design 2

This code is written in Qiskit Metal for the second design of quantum chip....

```

1 import qiskit_metal as metal
2 from qiskit_metal import designs, draw
3 from qiskit_metal import MetalGUI, Dict, open_docs
4
5 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_pocket_6 import TransmonPocket6
6 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_cross_fl import TransmonCrossFL
7 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.qubits.transmon_pocket_cl import TransmonPocketCL
8
9 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.straight_path import RouteStraight
10 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.meandered import RouteMeander
11 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.pathfinder import RoutePathfinder
12 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.tlines.anchored_path import RouteAnchors
13
14 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.lumped.cap_n_interdigital import CapNInterdigital
15 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.couplers.cap_n_interdigital_tee import CapNInterdigitalTee
16 from qiskit_metal qlibrary.couplers.coupled_line_tee import CoupledLineTee
17
18 from qiskit_metal qlibrary terminations.launchpad_wb import LaunchpadWirebond
19 from qiskit_metal qlibrary terminations.launchpad_wb_coupled import LaunchpadWirebondCoupled
20
21 design = metal.designs.DesignPlanar()
22 gui = metal.MetalGUI(design)
23 design.overwrite_enabled = True
24 design.chips.main
25
26 design.chips.main.size.size_x = '10mm'
27 design.chips.main.size.size_y = '10mm'
28
29 Q_1 = TransmonPocketCL(design, 'Q_1', options = dict(
30     pos_x=' -3mm',
31     pos_y=' 2mm',
32     gds_cell_name = 'FakeJunction_01',
33     hfss_inductance = '14nH',
34     pad_width = '425 um',
35     pocket_height = '650um',
36     connection_pads=dict(
37         readout = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=1, pad_width = '80um', pad_gap = '50um'),
38         bus_1 = dict(loc_W=1, loc_H=-1, pad_width = '60um', pad_gap = '10um')
39     )
40 )

```



```
100                         pos_y = '-2mm',
101                         orientation = '0'
102                     ))
103 launch_readout_q_4 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_Readout_Q_4',
104                                         options = dict(
105                                             pos_x = '5mm',
106                                             pos_y = '2mm',
107                                             orientation = '180'
108                                         ))
109
110
111
112
113 gui.rebuild()
114 gui.autoscale()
115
116 launch_cl_q_1 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_CL_Q_1',
117                                     options = dict(
118                                         pos_x = '-5mm',
119                                         pos_y = '2mm',
120                                         orientation = '0',
121                                         trace_width = '5um',
122                                         trace_gap = '3um'
123                                     ))
124
125 launch_cl_q_2 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_CL_Q_2',
126                                     options = dict(
127                                         pos_x = '5mm',
128                                         pos_y = '-2mm',
129                                         orientation = '180',
130                                         trace_width = '5um',
131                                         trace_gap = '3um'
132                                     ))
133
134
135 launch_fl_q_3 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_FL_Q_3',
136                                     options = dict(
137                                         pos_x = '-1mm',
138                                         pos_y = '-5mm',
139                                         orientation = '90',
140                                         trace_width = '5um',
141                                         trace_gap = '3um'
142                                     ))
143
144 launch_fl_q_4 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_FL_Q_4',
145                                     options = dict(
146                                         pos_x = '1mm',
147                                         pos_y = '5mm',
148                                         orientation = '-90',
149                                         trace_width = '5um',
150                                         trace_gap = '3um'
151                                     ))
152
153
154
155 gui.rebuild()
156 gui.autoscale()
157
158 launch_bus_main_1 = LaunchpadWirebond(design, 'Launch_BUS_MAIN_1',
```



```

218                               pos_x='1mm',
219                               pos_y='0mm',
220                               orientation='180'
221                         ))
222
223 gui.rebuild()
224 gui.autoscale()
225
226 cap_readout_q_1 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_1',
227                                     options=dict(
228                                         pos_x='3mm',
229                                         pos_y='4.8mm',
230                                         orientation='0'
231                                     ))
232
233 cap_readout_q_2 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_2',
234                                     options=dict(
235                                         pos_x='3mm',
236                                         pos_y='-4.8mm',
237                                         orientation='180'
238                                     ))
239
240 cap_readout_q_3 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_3',
241                                     options=dict(
242                                         pos_x='4.8mm',
243                                         pos_y='2mm',
244                                         orientation='90'
245                                     ))
246
247 cap_readout_q_4 = CapNInterdigital(design, 'Cap_Readout_Q_4',
248                                     options=dict(
249                                         pos_x='4.8mm',
250                                         pos_y='2mm',
251                                         orientation='90'
252                                     ))
253
254 gui.rebuild()
255 gui.autoscale()
256
257 # Resonator Length Approximation from theory
258 from qiskit_metal.analyses.em.cpw_calculations import guided_wavelength
259 def find_resonator_length(frequency, line_width, line_gap, N):
260     # frequency in GHz
261     # line_width/line_gap in um
262     # N -> 2 for lambda/2, 4 for lambda/4
263     # substrate dimensions and properties already set (Default dielectric constant value is
264     # used)
265
266     [lambdaG, effSqrt, q] = guided_wavelength(frequency*10**9, line_width*10**-6,
267                                               line_gap*10**-6, 750*10**-6, 200*10**-9)
268
269     return str(lambdaG/N*10**3) + " mm"
270
271 bus_13_length = find_resonator_length(5.8,10,2,2) #bus1
272 bus_23_length = find_resonator_length(6,10,2,2) #bus2
273 bus_24_length = find_resonator_length(6.2,10,2,2) #bus3
274 bus_14_length = find_resonator_length(6.4,10,2,2) #bus4
275

```

```
276 from collections import OrderedDict
277 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
278 jogs_start[0] = ['L', '350um']
279 jogs_start[1] = ['L', '500um']
280
281 jogs_end = OrderedDict()
282 jogs_end[0] = ['L', '680um']
283 jogs_end[1] = ['L', '700um']
284
285 bus_1 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_1', options = dict(
286                                         hfss_wire_bonds = True,
287                                         pin_inputs = Dict(
288                                             start_pin = Dict(
289                                                 component = 'Q_1',
290                                                 pin = 'bus_1'
291                                         ),
292                                         end_pin = Dict(
293                                             component = 'Cap_Couple_Q_1',
294                                             pin = 'second_end'
295                                         )
296                                         ),
297                                         lead = Dict(
298                                             start_straight = '125um',
299                                             end_straight = '225um'
300                                         ),
301                                         meander = Dict(
302                                             asymmetry = '50um'),
303                                             fillet = "99um",
304                                             total_length = '10.65mm'
305                                         )))
306
307
308 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
309 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
310 jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
311
312 bus_2 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_2', options = dict(
313                                         hfss_wire_bonds = True,
314                                         pin_inputs = Dict(
315                                             start_pin = Dict(
316                                                 component = 'Q_2',
317                                                 pin = 'bus_2'
318                                         ),
319                                         end_pin = Dict(
320                                             component = 'Cap_Couple_Q_2',
321                                             pin = 'second_end'
322                                         )
323                                         ),
324                                         lead = Dict(
325                                             start_straight = '125um',
326                                             end_straight = '25um'
327                                         ),
328                                         meander = Dict(
329                                             asymmetry = '50um'),
330                                             fillet = "99um",
331                                             total_length = '10.3mm'
332                                         )))
333
334
```

```

335 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
336 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
337 jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
338
339 bus_3 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_3', options = dict(
340                         hfss_wire_bonds = True,
341                         pin_inputs = Dict(
342                             start_pin = Dict(
343                                 component = 'Q_3',
344                                 pin = 'bus_3'
345                             ),
346                             end_pin = Dict(
347                                 component = 'Cap_Couple_Q_3',
348                                 pin = 'second_end'
349                             )
350                         ),
351                         lead = Dict(
352                             start_straight = '125um',
353                             end_straight = '225um'
354                         ),
355                         meander = Dict(
356                             asymmetry = '50um',
357                             fillet = "99um",
358                             total_length = '9.97mm'
359                         )
360                     ))
361
362 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
363 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '350um']
364 jogs_start[1] = ['R', '700um']
365 bus_4 = RouteMeander(design, 'Bus_4', options = dict(
366                         hfss_wire_bonds = True,
367                         pin_inputs = Dict(
368                             start_pin = Dict(
369                                 component = 'Q_4',
370                                 pin = 'bus_4'
371                             ),
372                             end_pin = Dict(
373                                 component = 'Cap_Couple_Q_4',
374                                 pin = 'second_end'
375                             )
376                         ),
377                         lead = Dict(
378                             start_straight = '125um',
379                             end_straight = '225um'
380                         ),
381                         meander = Dict(
382                             asymmetry = '50um',
383                             fillet = "99um",
384                             total_length = '9.65mm'
385                         )
386                     ))
387
388 gui.rebuild()
389 gui.autoscale()
390
391 #Define Readout Resonators
392 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(6.8,10,6,2) #Readout_Q1
393 Readout_1_length = find_resonator_length(7,10,6,2) #Readout_Q2

```



```
453 ) )
454
455
456
457 readout_3 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_3', options=dict(
458     hfss_wire_bonds=True,
459     pin_inputs=Dict(
460         start_pin=Dict(
461             component='Q_3',
462             pin='readout'
463         ),
464         end_pin=Dict(
465             component='Cap_Readout_Q_3',
466             pin='south_end'
467         )
468     ),
469     lead=Dict(
470         start_straight='125um',
471         end_straight='125um',
472         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
473         # end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
474     ),
475     meander=Dict(
476         asymmetry='150um',
477         fillet='99um',
478         total_length='8.45mm'
479     ),
480 ))
481
482
483
484 readout_4 = RouteMeander(design, 'Readout_4', options=dict(
485     hfss_wire_bonds=True,
486     pin_inputs=Dict(
487         start_pin=Dict(
488             component='Q_4',
489             pin='readout'
490         ),
491         end_pin=Dict(
492             component='Cap_Readout_Q_4',
493             pin='south_end'
494         )
495     ),
496     lead=Dict(
497         start_straight='125um',
498         end_straight='125um',
499         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
500         # end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
501     ),
502     meander=Dict(
503         asymmetry='150um',
504         fillet='99um',
505         total_length='8.22mm'
506     ),
507 ))
508
509 jogs_start = OrderedDict()
510 jogs_start[0] = ['R', '250um']
511 jogs_end[0] = ['L', '200um']
```

```
512
513
514 charge_line_q_1 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Charge_Line_Q_1', options = dict(
515     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
516     fillet='99um',
517     trace_width = '5um',
518     trace_gap = '3um',
519
520     lead=dict(
521         start_straight='125um',
522         end_straight='125um',
523         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
524         #end_jogged_extension=jogs_end
525         #end_straight='150um'
526     ),
527     pin_inputs=Dict(
528         start_pin=Dict(
529             component='Launch_CL_Q_1',
530             pin='tie'),
531         end_pin=Dict(
532             component='Q_1',
533             pin='Charge_Line')
534     )))
535
536
537
538
539
540 charge_line_q_2 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Charge_Line_Q_2', options = dict(
541     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
542     fillet='99um',
543     trace_width = '5um',
544     trace_gap = '3um',
545
546     lead=dict(
547         start_straight='125um',
548         end_straight='125um',
549         start_jogged_extension=jogs_start,
550     ),
551     pin_inputs=Dict(
552         start_pin=Dict(
553             component='Launch_CL_Q_2',
554             pin='tie'),
555         end_pin=Dict(
556             component='Q_2',
557             pin='Charge_Line')
558     )))
559
560 flux_line_q_3 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Flux_Line_Q_3', options = dict(
561     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
562     pin_inputs=Dict(
563         start_pin=Dict(
564             component='Q_3',
565             pin='flux_line'
566     ),
567         end_pin=Dict(
568             component='Launch_FL_Q_3',
569             pin='tie'
570     )
571 ))
```

```
571
572
573
574
575         ),
576     fillet = '99um',
577     trace_width = '5um',
578     trace_gap = '3um'
579     ))
580 flux_line_q_4 = RoutePathfinder(design, 'Flux_Line_Q_4', options = dict(
581     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
582     pin_inputs=Dict(
583         start_pin=Dict(
584             component='Q_4',
585             pin='flux_line'
586         ),
587         end_pin=Dict(
588             component='Launch_FL_Q_4',
589             pin='tie'
590         )
591     ),
592     fillet = '99um',
593     trace_width = '5um',
594     trace_gap = '3um'
595   ))
596
597 gui.rebuild()
598 gui.autoscale()
599
600 tl_readout_q_1 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_1', options = dict(
601     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
602     pin_inputs=Dict(
603         start_pin=Dict(
604             component='Cap_Readout_Q_1',
605             pin='north_end'
606         ),
607         end_pin=Dict(
608             component='Launch_Readout_Q_1',
609             pin='tie'
610         )
611     ),
612     trace_width = '10um',
613     trace_gap = '6um'
614   ))
615 tl_readout_q_2 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_2', options = dict(
616     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
617     pin_inputs=Dict(
618         start_pin=Dict(
619             component='Cap_Readout_Q_2',
620             pin='south_end'
621         ),
622         end_pin=Dict(
623             component='Launch_Readout_Q_2',
624             pin='tie'
625         )
626     ),
627     trace_width = '10um',
628     trace_gap = '6um'
629   ))
630
631 tl_readout_q_3 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_3', options = dict(
632     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
633     pin_inputs=Dict(
```

```

630         start_pin=Dict(
631             component='Cap_Readout_Q_3',
632             pin='north_end'
633         ),
634         end_pin=Dict(
635             component='Launch_Readout_Q_3',
636             pin='tie'
637         )
638     ),
639     trace_width = '10um',
640     trace_gap = '6um'
641 ))))
642
643 tl_readout_q_4 = RouteStraight(design, 'TL_Readout_Q_4', options = dict(
644     hfss_wire_bonds = True,
645     pin_inputs=Dict(
646         start_pin=Dict(
647             component='Cap_Readout_Q_4',
648             pin='north_end'
649         ),
650         end_pin=Dict(
651             component='Launch_Readout_Q_4',
652             pin='tie'
653         )
654     ),
655     trace_width = '10um',
656     trace_gap = '6um'
657 ))))
658
659 gui.rebuild()
660 gui.autoscale()
661 gui.screenshot()

```

A.6 Application 1 of a 4 qubit chip

This code is written in Qiskit for demonstrating Entanglement Swapping using a 4-qubit chip....

```

1
2 # A Basic Entanglement Swapping Circuit
3 from qiskit import QuantumCircuit, transpile
4 from qiskit_aer import AerSimulator
5 from qiskit.visualization import plot_histogram
6
7 # Create a 4-qubit quantum circuit
8 qc = QuantumCircuit(4, 2)
9
10 # Step 1: Create entanglement (Bell pairs)
11 qc.h(0)
12 qc.cx(0, 1)
13 qc.h(2)
14 qc.cx(2, 3)
15
16 # Step 2: Bell-state measurement on qubits 1 & 2
17 qc.cx(1, 2)
18 qc.h(1)
19 qc.measure([1, 2], [0, 1])

```

```

20
21 # Step 3: Apply corrections based on measurement
22 qc.cx(0, 3)
23 qc.cz(1, 3)
24
25 # Visualize circuit
26 qc.draw('mpl')

```

A.7 Application 2 of a 4 qubit chip

This code is written in Qiskit for error detection using a 4-qubit chip....

```

1 # Function to create a 4-qubit error detection circuit
2 def four_qubit_error_detection():
3     qc = QuantumCircuit(4, 2)  # 3 data qubits + 1 ancilla, 2 classical bits for measurement
4
5     # Encode logical |0> state with redundancy
6     qc.h(0)  # Hadamard on first qubit
7     qc.cx(0, 1)
8     qc.cx(0, 2)
9
10    # Introduce an artificial error (bit-flip on qubit 1 for testing)
11    qc.x(1)
12
13    # Syndrome measurement (parity checks)
14    qc.cx(0, 3)
15    qc.cx(1, 3)
16    qc.measure(3, 0)  # First parity check
17
18    qc.cx(2, 3)
19    qc.measure(3, 1)  # Second parity check
20
21    return qc
22
23 # Create the circuit
24 qc = four_qubit_error_detection()
25 qc.draw(output='mpl')
26 # Step 4: Run the Simulation
27 # Simulate the circuit
28 simulator = Aer.get_backend('qasm_simulator')
29 compiled_circuit = transpile(qc, simulator)
30 job = simulator.run(compiled_circuit)
31 result = job.result()
32
33 # Plot the result
34 plot_histogram(result.get_counts(qc))

```

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4-Qubit Superconducting Quantum Chip

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**March
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