Outline

- Requirements for a Quantum Computer
- Quantum Mechanics of Two State Systems
- Rotations
- Creating Gates with Rabi Oscillations
- Superconducting Qubits
 - How to make qubits with circuits
 - Superconductivity
 - Josephson junction and nonlinear LC circuits
 - SQUID: Tunable nonlinear inductance

Requirements for Quantum Computer

- Physical system with two uniquely addressable states
- A universal set of quantum gates
 - Ability to implement arbitrary rotations on the Bloch sphere
 - Ability to entangle two qubits
- Ability to measure the state of a cubit

Two State Systems in Quantum Mechanics

Schrodinger Equation

$$i\hbar\partial_{t}|\psi\rangle = H|\psi\rangle, \quad \partial_{t} \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \qquad |\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-i\mathcal{E}t/\hbar}|\psi(0)\rangle$$

- H is an expression for the total energy of the system (kinetic + potential) and is called the Hamiltonian
- For two orthogonal states:

$$i\hbar\partial_{t} |\psi_{0}\rangle = H_{0} |\psi_{0}\rangle = E_{0} |\psi_{0}\rangle$$
$$i\hbar\partial_{t} |\psi_{1}\rangle = H_{0} |\psi_{1}\rangle = E_{1} |\psi_{1}\rangle$$

What if we introduce a perturbation that weakly couples states 0 & 1?

$$i\hbar\partial_{t} |\psi_{0}\rangle = H_{0} |\psi_{0}\rangle + V_{01} |\psi_{1}\rangle$$
$$i\hbar\partial_{t} |\psi_{1}\rangle = H_{0} |\psi_{1}\rangle + V_{10} |\psi_{0}\rangle$$

Schrodinger Equation for 2x2 coupled system

$$i\hbar\partial_{t}\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle = H_{0}\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle + V_{01}\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle$$
$$i\hbar\partial_{t}\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle = H_{0}\left|\psi_{1}\right\rangle + V_{10}\left|\psi_{0}\right\rangle$$

This can be written

$$i\hbar\partial_{t}\begin{bmatrix} |\psi_{0}\rangle \\ |\psi_{1}\rangle \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E_{0} & 0 \\ 0 & E_{1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} |\psi_{0}\rangle \\ |\psi_{1}\rangle \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & V_{01} \\ V_{10} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} |\psi_{0}\rangle \\ |\psi_{1}\rangle \end{bmatrix} = H\begin{bmatrix} |\psi_{0}\rangle \\ |\psi_{1}\rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2}(E_{0} + E_{1})\sigma_{0} + \frac{1}{2}(E_{0} - E_{1})\sigma_{z} + V\sigma_{x}, \text{ assuming } V_{01} = V_{10}$$

$$\sigma_{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \sigma_{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \sigma_{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$H = -\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_0\sigma_z + V\sigma_x, \text{ take zero reference energy} = \frac{1}{2}(E_0 + E_1), E_1 - E_0 = \hbar\omega_0$$

Prototypical 2-state system: Spin in a Magnetic Field

$$\mathcal{H} = -\gamma_S \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{B} = -\frac{q}{m_q} \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{B},$$

 $\mathbf{S} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \boldsymbol{\sigma},$

$$\sigma = \hat{\mathbf{x}}\sigma_x + \hat{\mathbf{y}}\sigma_y + \hat{\mathbf{z}}\sigma_z \quad \mathcal{E} = \pm \frac{\hbar\omega_0}{2}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_0 = -\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_0\sigma_z, \quad |\psi(t)\rangle = e^{-i\mathcal{E}t/\hbar} |\psi(0)\rangle$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{q}{m_q} B_0.$$

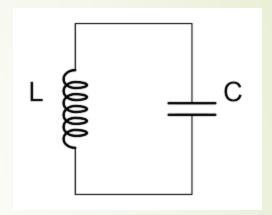
Superconducting Qubits

Qubit possibility: LC Resonant Circuits?

In classical, linear circuit theory, the natural solution for the current is

$$i(t) = I_0 \cos \omega_0 t$$
, $\omega_0 = 1/\sqrt{LC}$

- The current can have any amplitude, independent of the frequency
- Energy is stored alternately in the electric field of the capacitor and the magnetic field of the inductor, and can have any value
 - In reality, the stored energy is quantized
- could we use two of these states for a qubit, say n=0 and n=1?

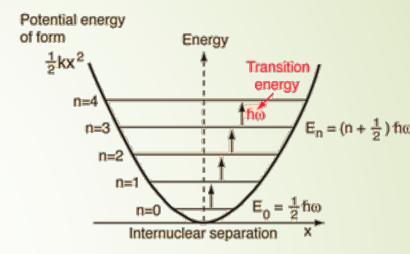


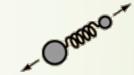
$$U \propto I_0^2$$

$$U = \hbar \omega_0 \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

Nonlinear Resonant Circuits

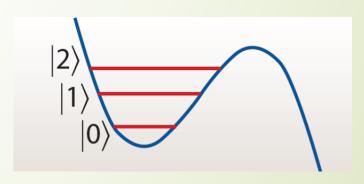
- Problem: energy difference between 0,1 is the same as energy difference between all other states n,n+1
 - No way to address specific states
- Solution: if either L or C were nonlinear (i.e., their values depended on the magnitude of the current or voltage), then the energy levels would no longer be equally spaced!
 - If the energy difference between n=0 and n=1 is different from the energy difference from all other states, we can selectively address this particular transition by tuning the frequency of the applied excitation





x=0 represents the equilibrium separation between the nuclei.

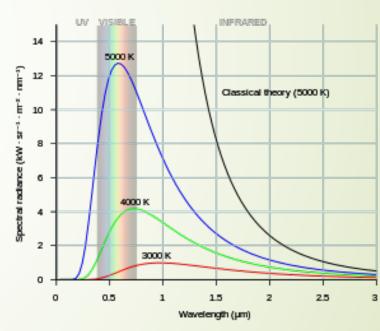
Graphic: http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/quantum/hosc.html



Graphic: Clarke & Wilhelm

RF Frequency

- The fact that we are talking about circuits suggests we are talking about RF rather than optical frequencies!
- Problem: any physical mass at finite temperature will emit electromagnetic radiation that depends on its temperature (Black body radiation)
 - We want the energy difference between qubit states to be large compared to thermal radiation
 - Highest frequency for widespread, economical instrumentation
 6 GHz (owing, e.g., to WIFI, etc.)
 - From kT=hv, the temperature corresponding to 6 GHz is 0.29K
 - Operating temperature must be much less than 0.3K!
- Solution: IBM Q systems operate at a temperature of about 15 mK using dilution refrigeration



Graphic: Wikipedia

Superconductors

A superconductor is a metal that allows a current to pass through it with no loss due to heat dissipation.

Typical values for the critical temperature range from mK to 100K

Using Superconductors we can preserve a wavefunction because the fact that the current wavefunction is not perturbed by its journey through the metal means that it will stay in a given state.

The current can be seen as a wavefunction, and is thus A probability distribution of different current values, this implies that clockwise and counter clockwise. It is this view of the current that enables us to create qubits from a simple loop of superconductor.

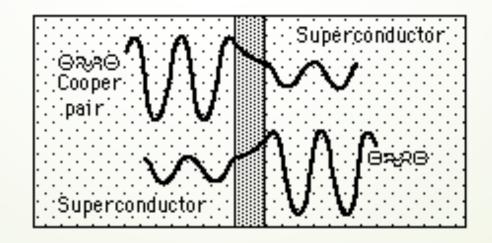
Metal	Critical T(K)
Aluminum	1.2K
Tîn	3.7K
Mercury	4.2K
Niobium	9.3K
Niobium-Tîn	17.9K
Tl-Ba-Cu-oxide	125K

Superconductivity

- At such low temperatures, metals such as Al and Nb become superconductors
 - At low temperatures, an attractive force between electrons appears
 - When this force gets sufficiently strong compared to thermal vibrations, electrons bind together into "Cooper pairs" with spin 1 and charge 2q
 - Cooper pairs form a macroscopic quantum state enabling charge to move without scattering or loss, resulting in superconductivity
- Makes it possible to realize extremely low-loss RF transmission lines
- Makes it possible to realize a nonlinear inductor using a Josephson junction

Cooper Pairs and Superconductivity

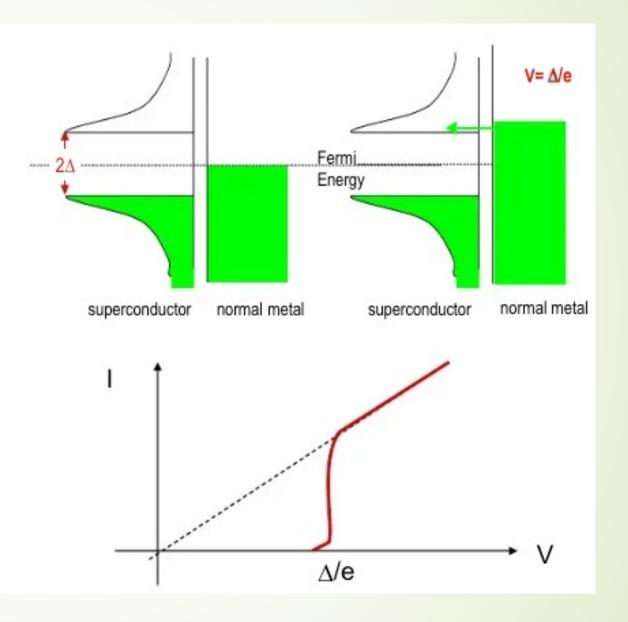
- Spin ½ particles are "Fermions"
 - Fermions obey the Pauli exclusion principle: no two can be in the same state
 - Electrons are Fermions
- Spin 1 particles are "Bosons"
 - Bosons do not obey the Pauli exclusion principle: you can have as many in a state as you want
 - Photons are Bosons
- In a superconductor, an effective attractive interaction between electrons causes them to be loosely bound together and act like a single spin 1 particle: "Cooper Pair"
- Since Cooper pairs are spin 1, they act like Bosons, and you can have multiple Cooper pairs in the same state
- All of the Cooper pairs in a macroscopic sample can be in the same coherent state



We have already noted tunneling effects between a superconductor and a normal metal (through an insulating barrier)

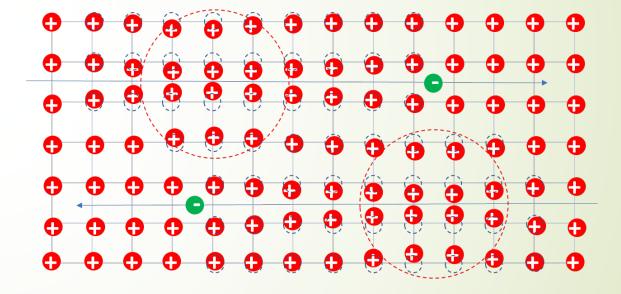
This provides evidence of a superconducting energy gap

Josephson demonstrated tunneling between two superconductors separated by an insulating barrier

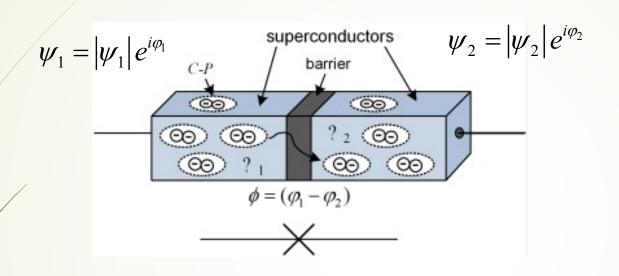


Cooper Pairs are the result of the Electron-Phonon interaction in the theory of Bardeen, Cooper, and Schreifer (BCS Theory)

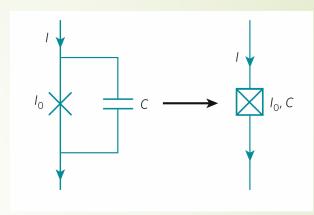
- Electrons normally repel one another, but are attracted to ions in the crystal lattice
- If the ions are pulled slightly toward an electron, from a distance it can appear as though there is a net positive charge, attracting another electron



Josephson tunnel junction



Circuit Symbols



Graphic: Clarke & Wilhelm

- Two superconductors separated by a thin insulating layer
- Wave functions for superconducting Cooper pairs decay exponentially in the insulating layer
- If the layer is thin enough to allow appreciable tunneling, then phases are no longer independent but are related to each other through the size of the tunneling current

Graphic: Ph.D. thesis: Vratislav Michal

Josephson Junction as nonlinear inductor

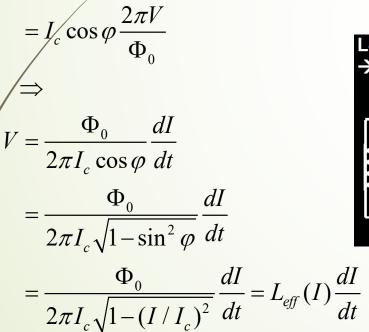
$$\varphi = \varphi_2 - \varphi_1$$

$$I = I_c \sin \varphi$$

$$V = \frac{\Phi_0}{2\pi} \frac{d\varphi}{dt}, \ \Phi_0 = \frac{h}{2q} \text{ is the flux quantum}$$

$$\frac{dI}{dt} = I_c \cos \varphi \frac{d\varphi}{dt}$$

- Effective inductance depends on the current
- Looks like a non-linear inductor: origin of anharmonicity: spacing between energy levels is not the same
 - Enables the individual addressing of a single pair of states
 - In contrast, in a linear circuit, all states are equally spaced



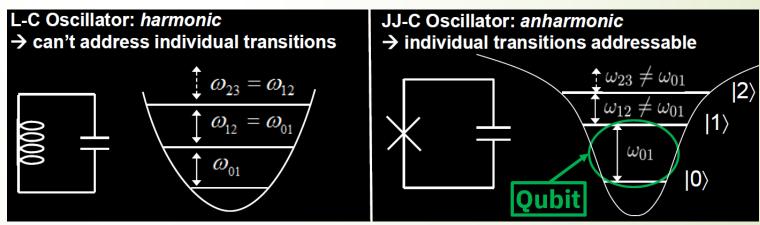


Image credit: Doug McClure, IBM

Superconducting Quantum Interference Device (SQUID)

- Parallel Josephson Junctions
- Magnetic field induces circulating current
- Simple analysis: neglect inductance of loop, assume both JJs are identical $I_T=I_1+I_2=I_c\sin\varphi_1+I_c\sin\varphi_2$ $\varphi_2=\varphi_1+2\pi\Phi\,/\,\Phi_0$

$$\Phi = BA$$

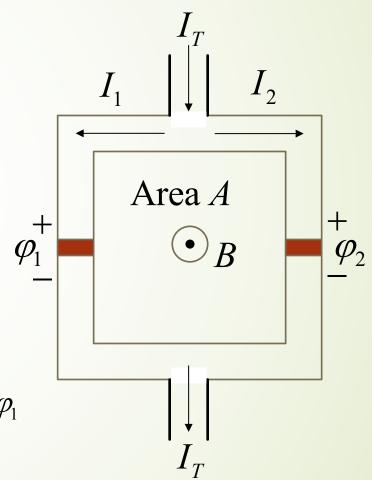
- The second equation comes from integrating the canonical momentum around the loop (See e.g., Van Duzer & Turner)
- If the total current is zero:
- Thus applying a magnetic field will induce a current, and consequently tune the inductance

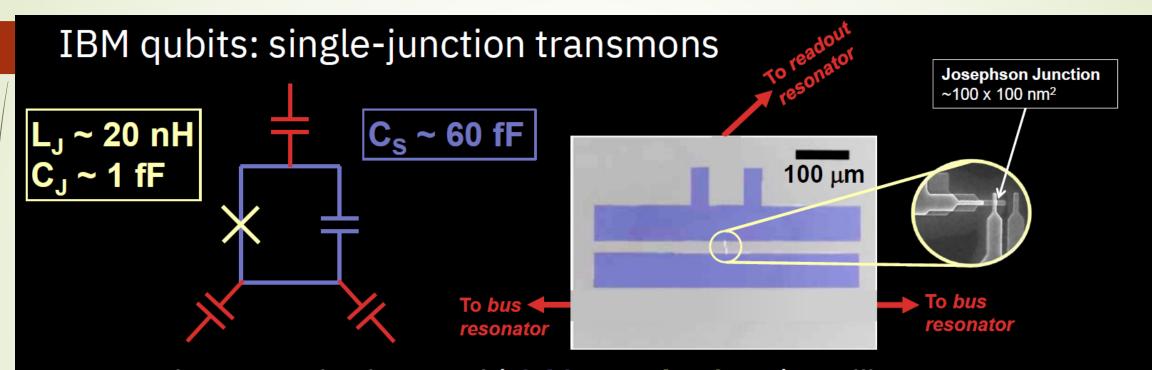
$$\sin \varphi_2 = -\sin \varphi_1$$

$$\sin (\varphi_1 + 2\pi \Phi / \Phi_0) = -\sin \varphi_1$$

$$\varphi_1 + 2\pi \Phi / \Phi_0 \approx -\varphi_1$$

$$\varphi_1 = -\pi \Phi / \Phi_0 = -\varphi_2$$





Patterned superconducting metal (niobium + aluminum) on silicon

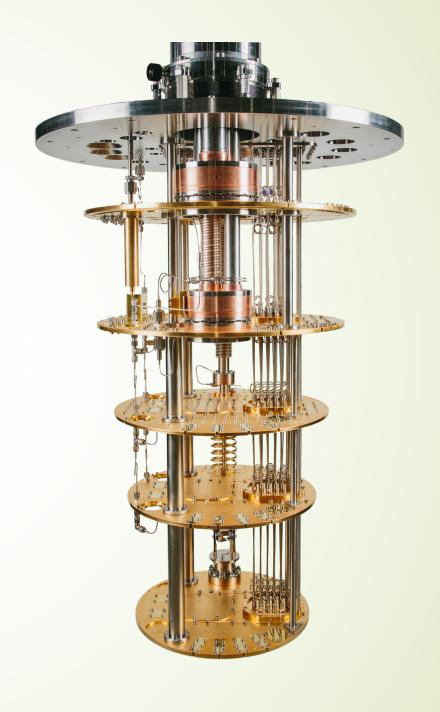
- Total capacitance dominated by shunting capacitance Cs

Interactions mediated by capacitively coupled co-planar waveguide resonators

- Bus resonators provide controlled coupling to adjacent qubits
- Readout resonators couple to outside world; resonant frequency indicates qubit state

Dilution Refrigerator (Oxford)

Base temperature < 10 mK Cooling power at 20 mK > 12 µW Cooling power at 100 mK > 450 µW Sample space diameter 360 mm plate Line-of-sight-access 1 × Secondary Insert (117 mm × 252 mm), 2 × KF40, 2 × KF25 PTR options 135 W, 150 W or 180 W Temperature control range 10 mK to 30 K with magnet at full field Solenoid: up to 14 T Magnet options Vector rotate: up to 9.1.1 T Field cancellation: < 10 mT









Superconducting Circuits

- Strong coupling to environment short coherence times
- Strong qubit-qubit coupling fast gates

Superconducting Circuits

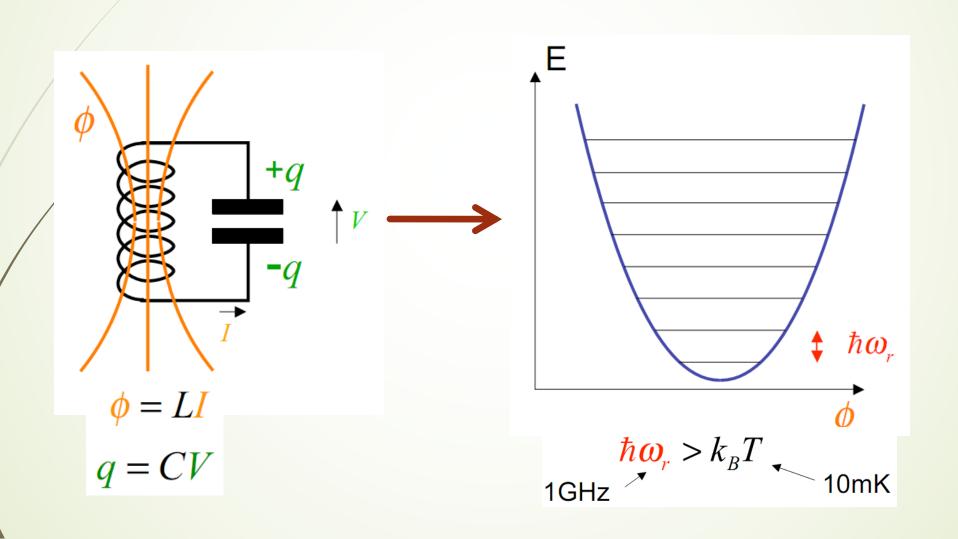
- Easy electrical access
- Easily engineered with capacitors, inductors, Josephson junctions
- Easy to fabricate and integrate

Quantum Characteristics

- How can a macroscopic device exhibit quantum properties?
- ► LC oscillator circuit is like a quantum harmonic oscillator
- ► L=3nH, C=10pF \rightarrow f=1GHz



Quantum Characteristics



Types of Superconducting Qubits

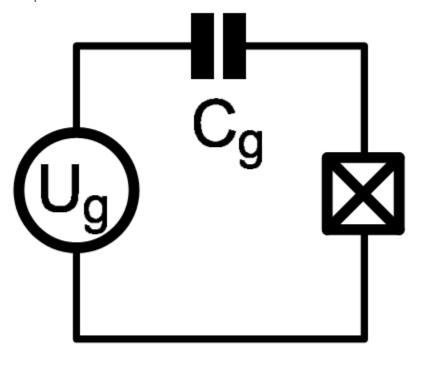
- Charge Qubit Cooper Pair Box
- Flux Qubit RF-SQUID
- Phase Qubit Current Biased Junction

Readout

- Switch reading ON and OFF
- Controls Coupling
- Doesn't Contribute Noise (ON or OFF)
- Strong read and repeat rather than weak continuous measurements

Charge Qubit - Cooper Pair Box

- Biased to combat continuous charge Q_r
- Cooper pairs are trapped in box between capacitor and Josephson junction
- Charge in box correlates to energy states

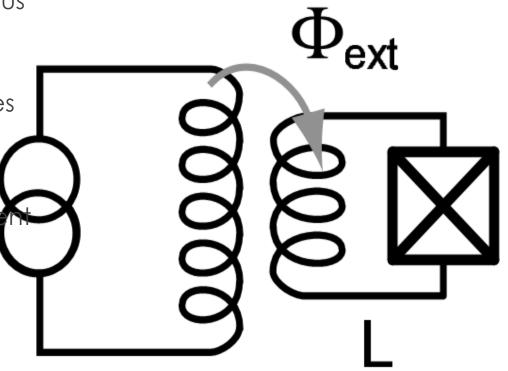


Flux Qubit – RF-SQUID

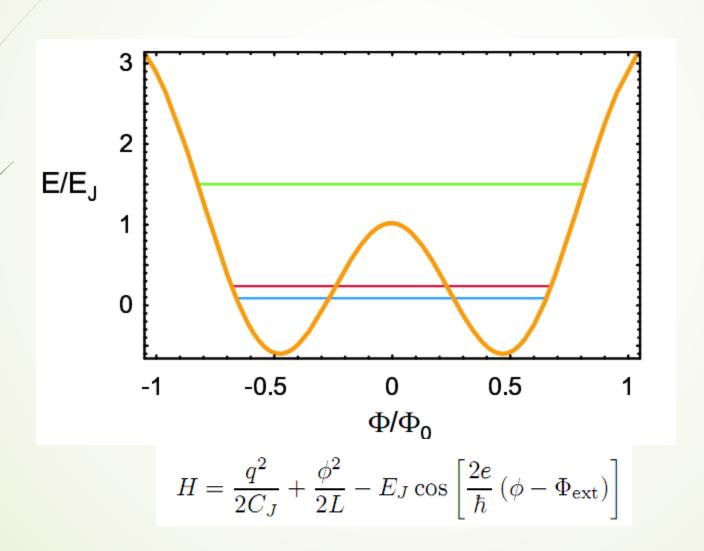
Shunted to combat continuous charge Q_r

 Current in right loop correlates to energy states

Can use RF pulses to implement gates



Flux Qubit – RF-SQUID

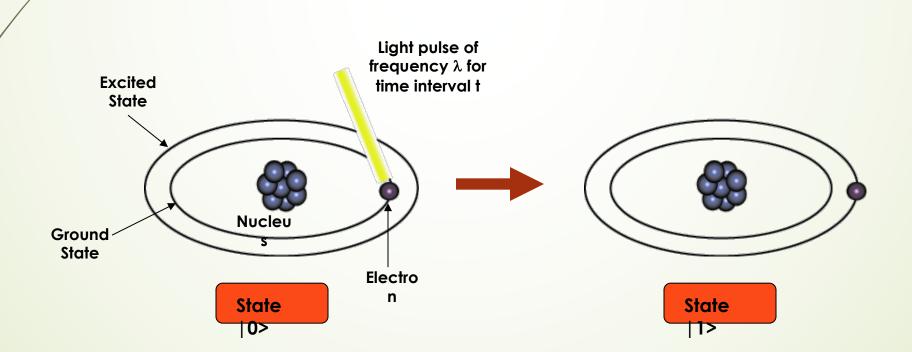


Data Representation

Representation of Data - Qubits

A bit of data is represented by a single atom that is in one of two states denoted by |0> and |1>. A single bit of this form is known as a **qubit**

A physical implementation of a qubit could use the two energy levels of an atom. An excited state representing | 1> and a ground state representing | 0>.



Representation of Data - Superposition

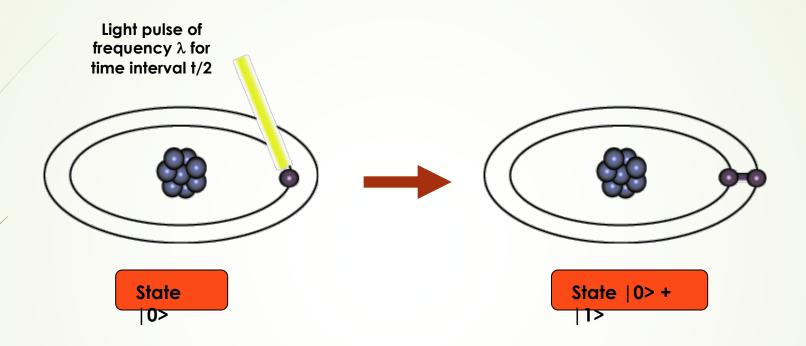
A single qubit can be forced into a **superposition** of the two states denoted by the addition of the state vectors:

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \alpha |1\rangle$$

Where
$$\alpha$$
 and α are complex numbers and $|\alpha| + |\alpha| = 1_2$
1 2

A qubit in superposition is in both of the states | 1> and | 0 at the same time

Representation of Data - Superposition



 Consider a 3 bit qubit register. An equally weighted superposition of all possible states would be denoted by:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}$$
 $|000\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}$ $|001\rangle + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}$ $|111\rangle$

Data Retrieval

- In general, an n qubit register can represent the numbers 0 through 2ⁿ-1 simultaneously.
- If we attempt to retrieve the values represented within a superposition, the superposition randomly collapses to represent just one of the original values.

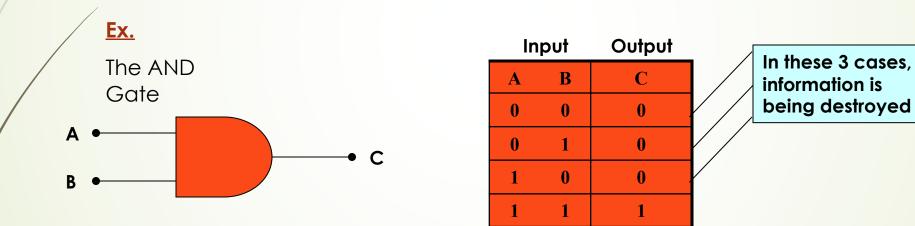
In our equation: $|\psi\rangle = \alpha_1|0\rangle + \alpha_2|1\rangle$, α_1 represents the probability of the superposition collapsing to $|0\rangle$. The α 's are called probability amplitudes. In a balanced superposition, $\alpha_n = 1/\sqrt{2}$ where n is the number of qubits.

Relationships among data - Entanglement

- **Entanglement** is the ability of quantum systems to exhibit correlations between states within a superposition.
- Imagine two qubits, each in the state |0> + |1> (a superposition of the 0 and 1.) We can entangle the two qubits such that the measurement of one qubit is always correlated to the measurement of the other qubit.

Operations on Qubits - Reversible Logic

•Due to the nature of quantum physics, the destruction of information in a gate will cause heat to be evolved which can destroy the superposition of qubits.



•This type of gate cannot be used. We must use Quantum Gates.

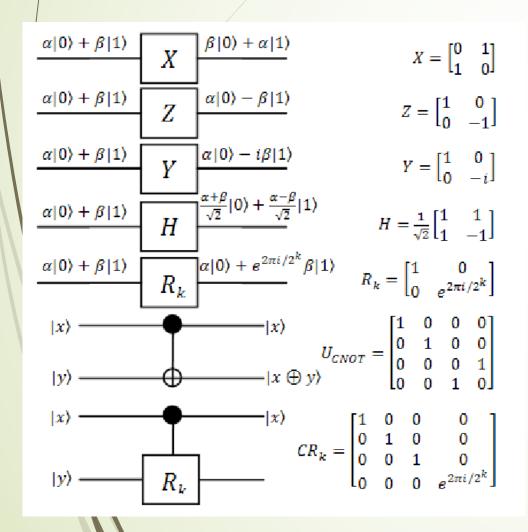
Quantum Gates

- Quantum Gates are similar to classical gates, but do not have a degenerate output. i.e. their original input state can be derived from their output state, uniquely. They must be reversible.
- This means that a deterministic computation can be performed on a quantum computer only if it is reversible. Luckily, it has been shown that any deterministic computation can be made reversible. (Charles Bennet, 1973)

Classical vs. Quantum logic --- gates and algorithms

QUANTUM LOGIC

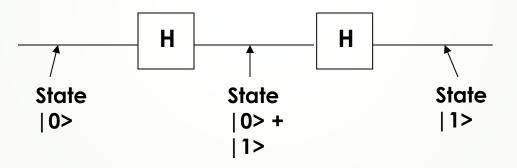
Quantum logic gates operate on single qubits and pairs of qubits



Gate name	# Qubits	Circuit Symbol	Unitary Matrix	Description
Hadamard	1	-H-	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	Transforms a basis state into an even superposition of the two basis states.
Т	1	-T-	$\left[egin{smallmatrix} 1 & 0 \ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{smallmatrix} ight]$	Adds a relative phase shift of $\pi/4$ between contributing basis states. Sometimes called a $\pi/8$ gate, because diagonal elements can be written as $e^{-i\pi/8}$ and $e^{i\pi/8}$.
CNOT	2	—	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	Controlled-not; reversible analogue to classical XOR gate. The input connected to the solid dot is passed through to make the operation reversible.
Toffoli (CCNOT)	3		$ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} $	Controlled-controlled-not; a three-qubit gate that switches the third bit for states where the first two bits are 1 (that is, switches 110⟩ to 111⟩ and vice versa).
Pauli-Z	1	- z -	$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$	Adds a relative phase shift of π between contributing basis states. Maps $ 0\rangle$ to itself and $ 1\rangle$ to $- 1\rangle$. Sometimes called a "phase flip."
Z-Rotation	1	$ R_z(\theta)$ $-$	$\begin{bmatrix} e^{-i\theta/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta/2} \end{bmatrix}$	Adds a relative phase shift of (or rotates state vector about z-axis by) θ .
NOT	1	\oplus	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$	Analogous to classical NOT gate; switches $ 0\rangle$ to $ 1\rangle$ and vice versa.

Quantum Gates - Hadamard

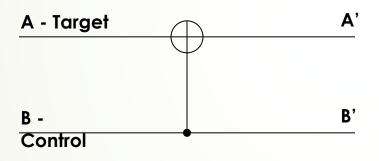
•Simplest gate involves one qubit and is called a **Hadamard Gate** (also known as a square-root of NOT gate.) Used to put qubits into superposition.



Note: Two Hadamard gates used in succession can be used as a NOT gate

Quantum Gates - Controlled NOT

A gate which operates on two qubits is called a **Controlled-NOT (CN) Gate.** If the bit on the control line is 1, invert the bit on the target line.



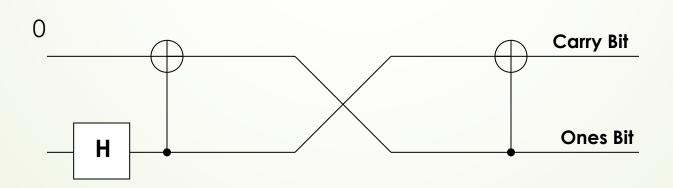
ın	put	Ou	rput
A	В	A'	В'
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1

Note: The CN gate has a similar behavior to the XOR gate with some extra information to make it reversible.

Example Operation - Multiplication By 2

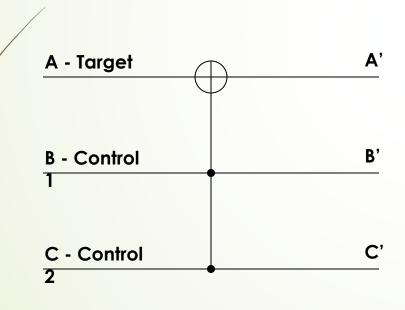
We can build a reversible logic circuit to calculate multiplication by 2 using CN gates arranged in the following manner:

Inp	ut	Output		
Carry Bit	Ones Bit	Carry Bit	Ones Bit	
0	0	0	0	
0	1	1	0	



Quantum Gates - Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN)

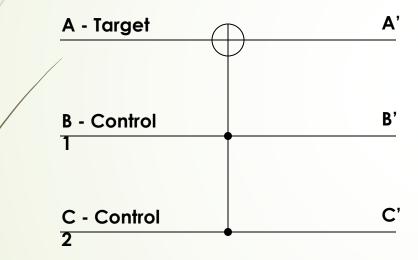
A gate which operates on three qubits is called a **Controlled Controlled NOT (CCN) Gate.** Iff the bits on both of the control lines is 1, then the target bit is inverted.



Input			Output		
A	В	C	A'	В'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1

A Universal Quantum Computer

The CCN gate has been shown to be a universal reversible logic gate as it can be used as a NAND gate.



When our target input is 1, our target output is a result of a NAND of B and C.

Input			Output		
A	В	C	A'	В'	C'
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	1	1