

Quantum Gates & Circuits: Submodule 1

Quantum Computing using Qbits

Prof. Amlan Chakrabarti

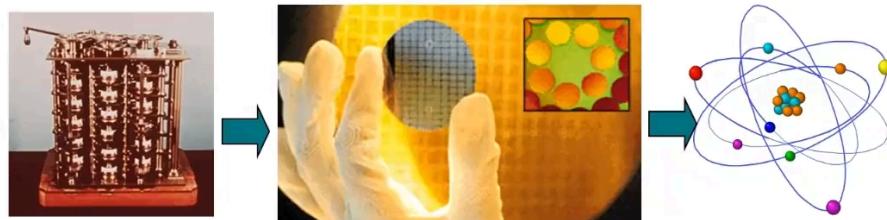
University of Calcutta

email: acakcs@caluniv.ac.in



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Towards Quantum



Realizations are getting smaller (and faster) and reaching a point where “classical” physics is not longer a sufficient model for the laws of physics

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What is Quantum Computing?

- The use of quantum mechanical principles to perform challenging computational tasks is called quantum computation.
- The quantum phenomenon like entanglement and superposition make it possible for low cost computation to happen.



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5 December 2023: IBM Releases First-Ever 1,000-Qubit Quantum Chip

<https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/ibm-releases-first-ever-1-000-qubit-quantum-chip/>

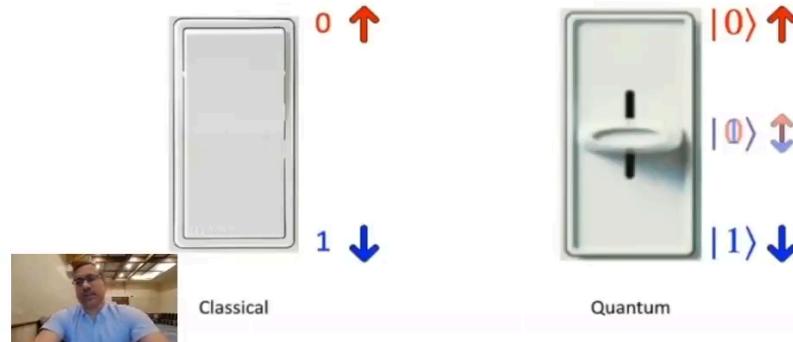


of Quantum Computing: Quantum Computing Qubits should double every 2 years!

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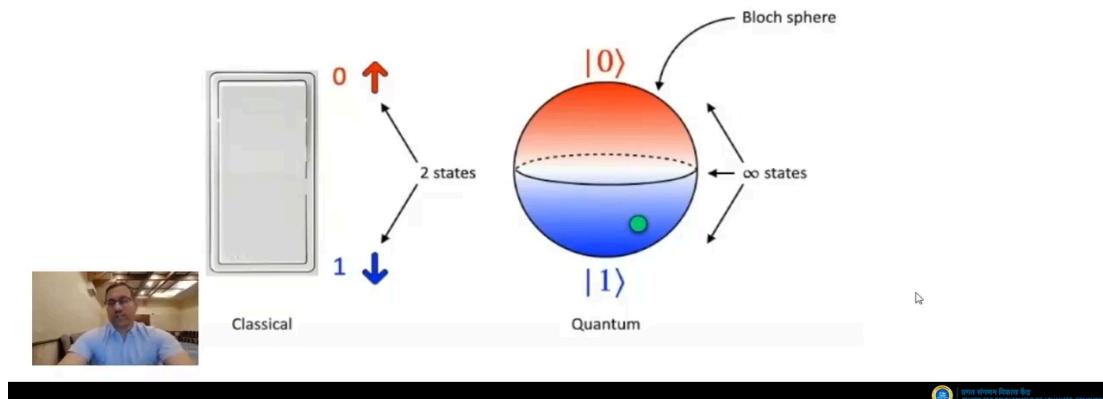
<https://www.scientificamerican.com/article/ibm-releases-first-ever-1-000-qubit-quantum-chip/#:~:text=IBM%20has%20unveiled%20the%20first,error%2Dresistant%20rather%20t>

Classical bits vs Qubits



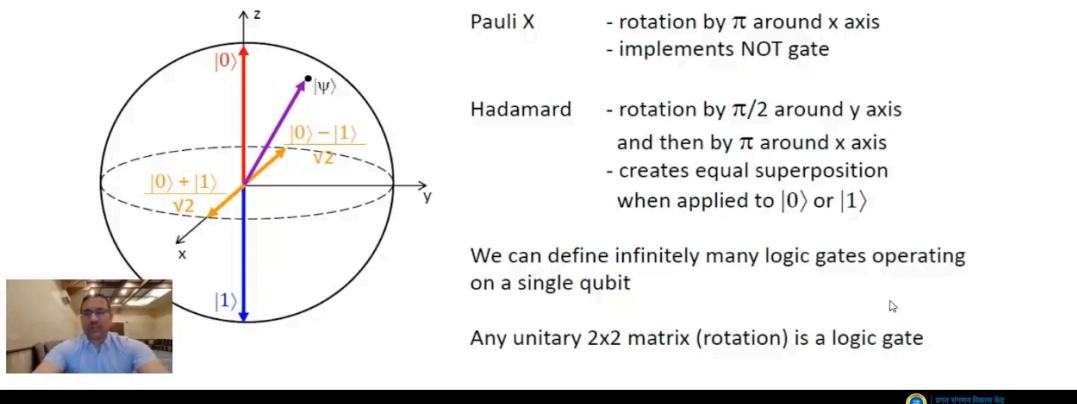
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Classical bits vs Qubits

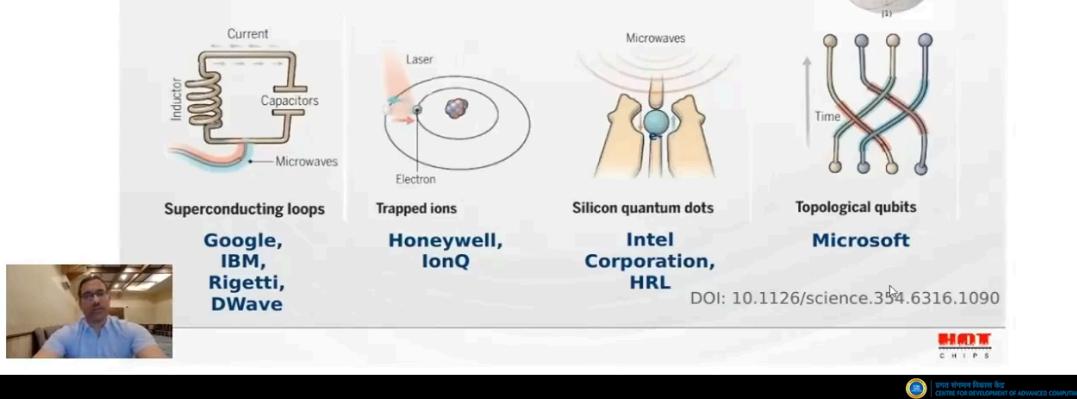
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Computation-Transformation of the Memory State

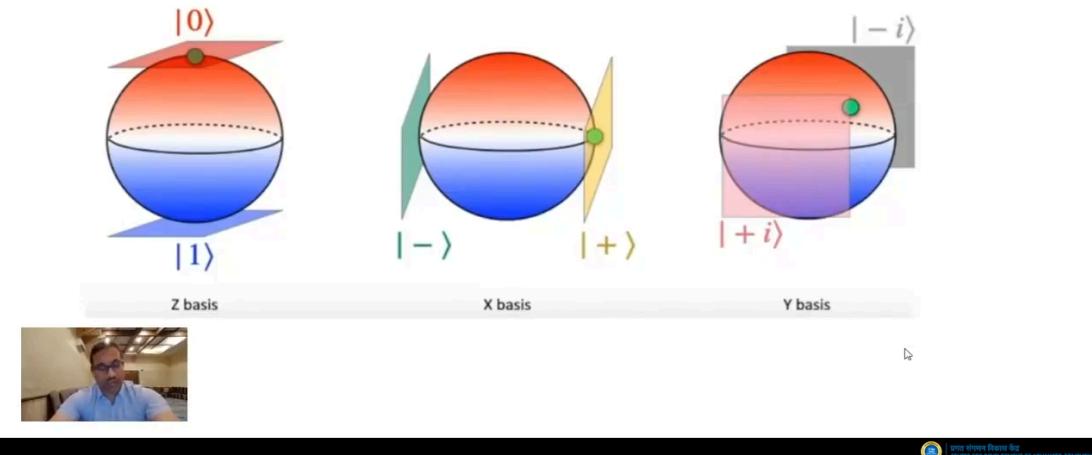
1-qubit logic gates: rotations around x, y and z axes

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Qubit = A Quantum Bit



Most Important Basis for Measurement



The Postulates of Quantum Mechanics

Postulate 1: Associated to any isolated physical system is a complex vector space with inner product (that is, a Hilbert space) known as the *state space* of the system. The system is completely described by its *state vector*, which is a unit vector in the system's state space.

Postulate 2: The evolution of a *closed* quantum system is described by a *unitary transformation*. That is, the state $|\psi\rangle$ of the system at time t_1 is related to the state $|\psi'\rangle$ of the system at time t_2 by a unitary operator U which depends only on the times t_1 and t_2 , $U|\psi\rangle = |\psi'\rangle$.

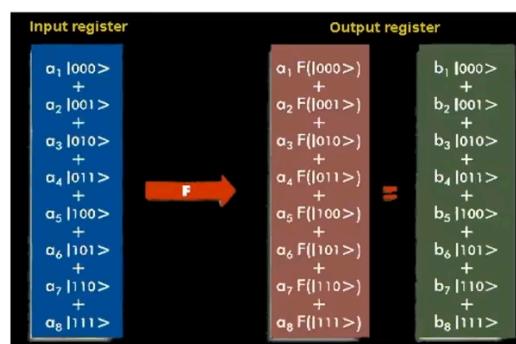
Postulate 3: Quantum measurements are described by a collection $\{M_m\}$ of *measurement operators*. These are operators acting on the state space of the system being measured. The index m refers to the measurement outcomes that may occur in the experiment. If the state of the quantum system is $|\psi\rangle$ immediately before the measurement then the probability that result m occurs is given by $p(m) = \langle\psi| M_m^\dagger M_m |\psi\rangle$, and the state of the system after the measurement is $\frac{M_m|\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{p(m)}}$.

The measurement operators satisfy the *completeness equation*, $\sum_m M_m^\dagger M_m = I$.

 The state space of a composite physical system is the tensor product of the state spaces of the component physical systems. Moreover, if we have systems 1 through n , and system number i , is prepared in the state $|\psi_i\rangle$, then the total system is $|\psi_1\rangle \otimes |\psi_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_n\rangle$.

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Why Is This Helpful?



- Multiple computations simultaneously
- Computing power is exponential



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It's the Scaling

- The Quantum State Space becomes 2^n large in the number of qubits, this translates a huge energy advantage.
- The energy efficiency will scale exponentially with the increase in qubits



	CLASSICAL COMPUTING	QUANTUM COMPUTING
COMPUTING UNITS	Calculates with transistors, which can take two levels 0 and 1	Calculates with qubits, which can represent both 0 and 1 simultaneously
COMPUTING CAPACITY	Capability increased linearly (1:1) with number of transistors	Capability increased exponentially with number of qubits
ERROR RATES & ENVIRONMENT	Low error rates. Can operate at room temperature	High error rates. Some quantum systems need to be kept ultracold
SUITABILITY	Suitable for routine processing.	Suitable for complex processing

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Quantum Algorithms



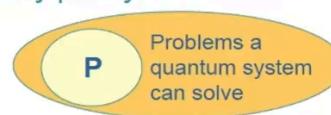
Richard Feynman



David Deutsch



- Feynman (1982): there may be quantum systems that cannot be simulated efficiently on a “classical” computer
- Deutsch (1985): proposed that machines using quantum processes might be able to perform computations that “classical” computers can only perform very poorly
- Concept of *quantum computer* emerged as a universal device to execute such quantum algorithms



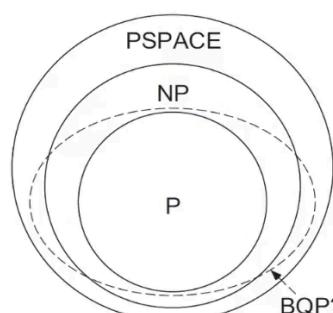
?

BQP (Bounded-Error Quantum Polynomial-Time): Class of problems solvable efficiently by a quantum computer

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The Power of Quantum Computation



P = solved in polynomial time
NP = verified in polynomial time
PSPACE = solved in polynomial space

BQP?

BQP (bounded error quantum polynomial time) is the class of decision problems solvable by a quantum computer in polynomial time, with an error probability of at most 1/3 for all instances.



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Quantum Computing Can Perform Better

What Can A Quantum Computer Do Better?

Quantum computing will solve a class of problems that are unsolvable today, opening up a new realm of applications.

SEARCHING BIG DATA

DESIGNING BETTER DRUGS & NEW MATERIALS

MACHINE LEARNING

CRYPTOGRAPHY

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Quantum Computing: Thrust Areas

- Quantum Technology
- Quantum Algorithms
- Quantum Modelling and Simulation
- Quantum Communication and Cryptography



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Quantum Gates & Circuits: Submodule 1 Basic Quantum Gates

Prof. Amlan Chakrabarti
University of Calcutta
email: acakcs@caluniv.ac.in

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- Qubit vs. Bit:

Bit (Classical) degree of freedom that can take only two possible values.

- Qubit

- Quantum observable whose spectrum contains two values {0,1}.
- Minimal quantum physical system.
- The boolean observable of a qbit system is called a sharp observable , as it can have only values 0 and 1.
- A qubit can have another observable which has an equal probability of 1 and 0, individual probabilities summed will results to unity.
- Qubit in reality:
 - Electron spin (up or down)
 - Photon polarization (horizontal/vertical)
 - Spin of atomic nucleus
 - Current in a super conducting loop
 - Presence/absence of a particle

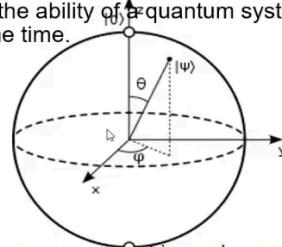


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Quantum Phenomenon: Superposition and Entanglement

- Superposition

- Superposition is the ability of a quantum system to be in multiple states at the same time.



- Entanglement

- Multiple particles are associated in such a way that measurement of one quantum state of one particle is determined by the measurement of the state of another particle.



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Computation with Qubits

How does the use of qubits affect computation?

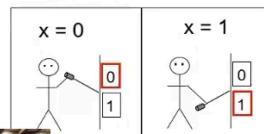
Classical Computation

Data unit: bit

$$\bullet = '1' \quad \circ = '0'$$

Valid states:

$x = '0'$ or $'1'$



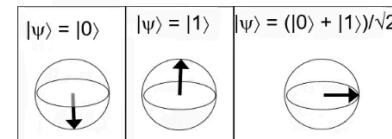
Quantum Computation

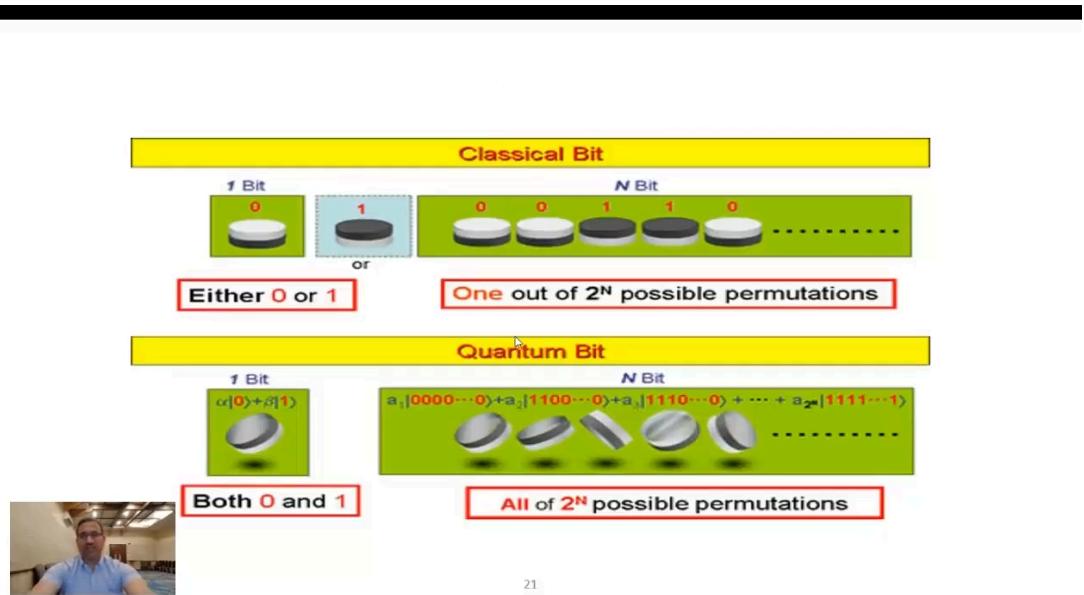
Data unit: qubit

$$\uparrow = |1\rangle \quad \downarrow = |0\rangle$$

Valid states:

$$|\psi\rangle = c_1|0\rangle + c_2|1\rangle$$





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Entanglement

- An n -qubit system can exist in any superposition of the 2^n basis states

$$c_0|00\dots00\rangle + c_1|00\dots01\rangle + \dots + c_{2^n-1}|11\dots11\rangle, \quad \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} |c_i|^2 = 1$$

- If such a state can be represented as a tensor product of individual qubit states then the qubit states are **not entangled**. For example:

$$\left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|00\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{8}}|01\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}|10\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{8}}|11\rangle}_{2^n \text{ probability amplitudes}} \right) = \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle}_{2n \text{ probability amplitudes}} \right) \otimes \left(\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}|0\rangle + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}|1\rangle}_{2n \text{ probability amplitudes}} \right)$$

$$\left(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \right) \otimes \left(c|0\rangle + d|1\rangle \right) \neq \left(a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|11\rangle$$

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Quantum Logic Networks

- Invented by Deutsch (1989)
 - Analogous to classical Boolean logic networks
 - Generalization of Fredkin-Toffoli reversible logic circuits
- System is divided into individual bits, or *qubits*
 - 2 orthogonal states of each qubit are designated as the *computational basis states*, "0" and "1"
- Quantum logic gates:
 - Local unitary transforms that operate on only a few state bits at a time
- Computation via predetermined sequence of gate applications to selected bits



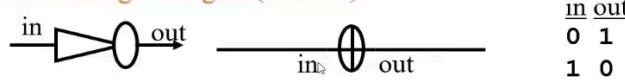
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Quantum Gates: NOT

- All classical input-consuming reversible gates can be represented as unitary transformations!

- *E.g., input-consuming NOT gate (inverter)*



$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{0}\rangle &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{0} & N &\equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & N|\mathbf{0}\rangle &= |\mathbf{1}\rangle \\ |\mathbf{1}\rangle &\equiv \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{1} & &\mathbf{1} & N|\mathbf{1}\rangle &= |\mathbf{0}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

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The Hadamard Transform

- Used frequently in quantum logic networks for generating Superpositions

$$H \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \mathbf{1} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \quad H^2 = I_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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One Qbit Logic Gates

$$\begin{array}{llllll} X (\text{NOT}) & Y & Z & S & & \\ \mathbf{0} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} & \mathbf{0} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} & \mathbf{0} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{1} & & 1 & & \mathbf{1} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ & & & & & \mathbf{1} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{llll} T & \text{Hadamard (H)} & \text{Sqrt NOT} & \\ \mathbf{0} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{bmatrix} & \mathbf{0} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \\ \mathbf{1} & & 1 & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} \\ & & & \mathbf{1} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ \sqrt{2} & \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$



Identity transformation, Pauli matrices, Hadamard

$$\delta_0 = I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\varphi\rangle = \alpha_0|0\rangle + \alpha_1|1\rangle$$

$$\delta_1 = X = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\varphi\rangle = \alpha_1|0\rangle + \alpha_0|1\rangle$$

$$\delta_2 = Y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\varphi\rangle = -i\alpha_1|0\rangle + i\alpha_0|1\rangle$$

$$\delta_3 = Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\varphi\rangle = \alpha_0|0\rangle - \alpha_1|1\rangle$$



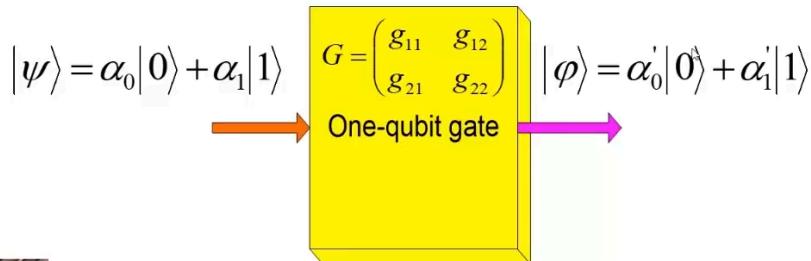
$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|\varphi\rangle = \alpha_0 \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} + \alpha_1 \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

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One qubit gates

- Transform an input qubit into an output qubit
- Characterized by a 2×2 matrix with complex coefficients

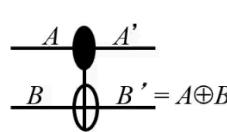


$$|\varphi\rangle = G|\psi\rangle \quad \begin{pmatrix} \alpha'_0 \\ \alpha'_1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} g_{11} & g_{12} \\ g_{21} & g_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Controlled-NOT

- A.k.a. CNOT (or input-consuming XOR)



$$\begin{array}{cc|cc} A & B & A' & B' \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

00 01 10 11

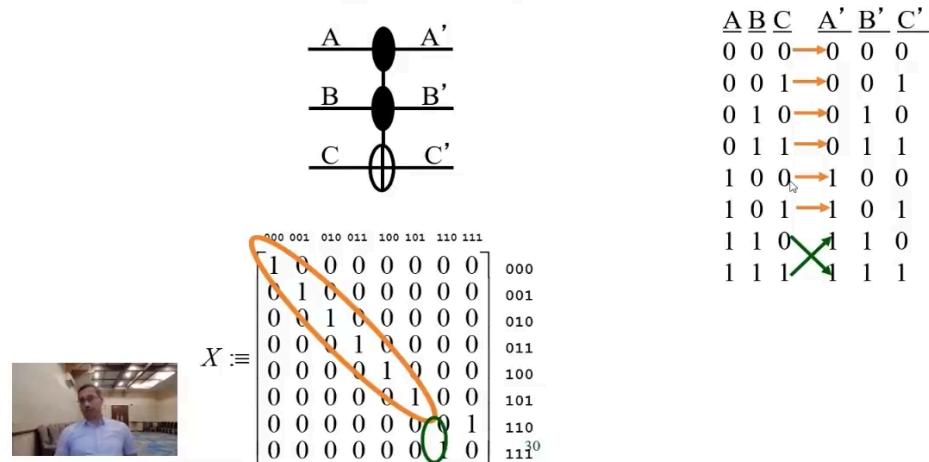


$$X := \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example:

$$X|\overline{10}\rangle = |\overline{11}\rangle$$

Toffoli Gate (CCNOT)



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Computation with Qubits

How does the use of qubits affect computation?

Classical Computation		Quantum Computation	
Operations: logical		Operations: unitary	
Valid operations:		Valid operations:	
NOT =	1-bit	$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	1-qubit
ND =	2-bit	$\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $H_d = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$	2-qubit
		CNOT = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	CNOT = $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

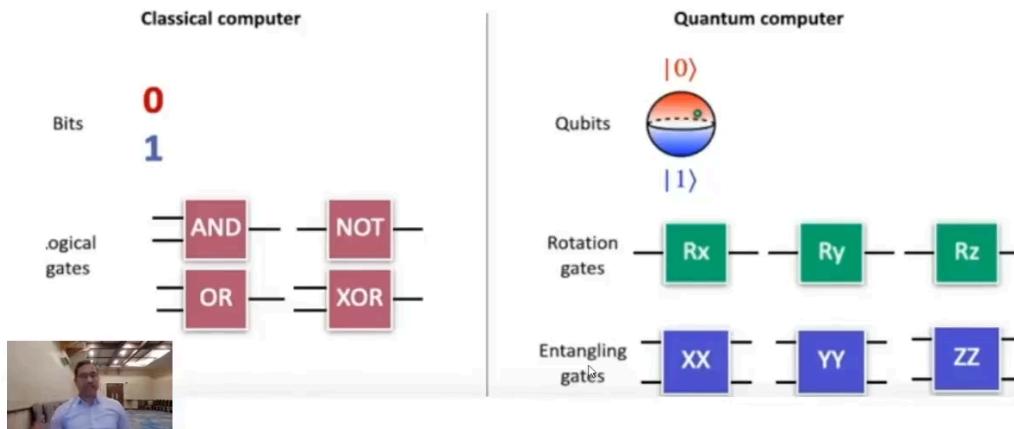
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More than one qubit

	Single qubit	Two qubits
Hilbert space	$\mathcal{H}_2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$	$\mathcal{H}_2^{\otimes 2} = \mathcal{H}_2 \otimes \mathcal{H}_2 = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$
Arbitrary state	$ \psi\rangle = c_1 0\rangle + c_2 1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$	$ \Psi\rangle = c_1 00\rangle + c_2 01\rangle + c_3 10\rangle + c_4 11\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{pmatrix}$
Operator	$U \psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$	$U \Psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & u_{13} & u_{14} \\ u_{21} & u_{22} & u_{23} & u_{24} \\ u_{31} & u_{32} & u_{33} & u_{34} \\ u_{41} & u_{42} & u_{43} & u_{44} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{pmatrix}$

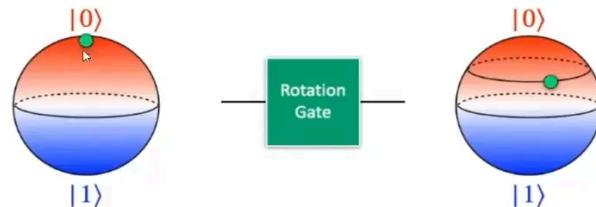
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Bits, Qubits and Gates



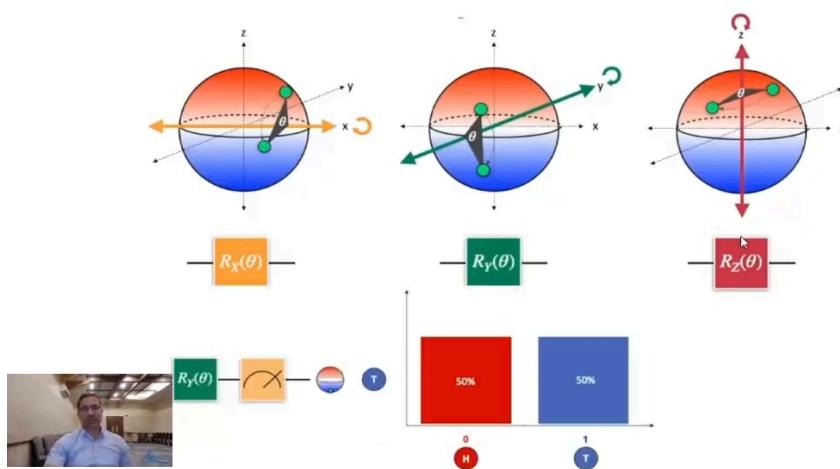
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Rotation Gates: Qubit Transformations



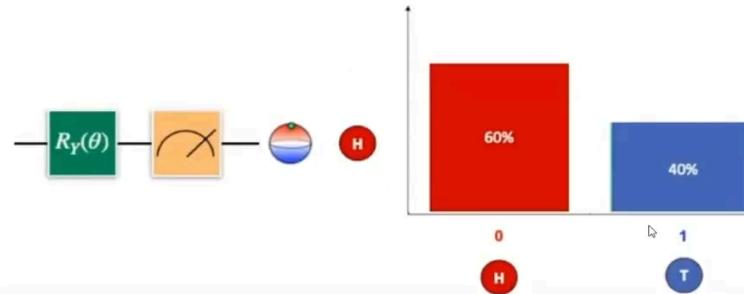
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Rotation Gates: Qubit Transformations



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Rotation with Bias



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Physical Machine Descriptions (PMDs)

- Technology for a given quantum implementation
- Quantum gate implementation is achieved by means of supported quantum operations
- Variability among the PMDs
 - primitive quantum operations
 - related cost
- Commonly known PMDs
 - Quantum dot (QD)
 - Superconducting (SC)
 - Ion trap (IT)
 - Neutral atom (NA)
 - Linear photonics (LP)
 - Nonlinear photonics (NP)



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Minimal Set of 1-qubit gates

$$\sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)R_x(\pi) = iR_x(\pi)$$

$$\sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix} = P\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)R_y(\pi) = iR_y(\pi)$$

$$\sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = P\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)R_z(\pi) = iR_z(\pi)$$

- Any two of $\{Rx, Ry, Rz\}$ can be converted into the third one

$$R_x(\theta) = R_z\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cdot R_y(\theta) \cdot R_z\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$



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- Quantum Logic Circuits

- Circuit behavior is governed explicitly by quantum mechanics
- Signal states are vectors interpreted as a superposition of binary “qubit” vectors with complex-number coefficients

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} c_i |i_{n-1}i_{n-2}\dots i_0\rangle$$

- Operations are defined by linear algebra over Hilbert Space and can be represented by unitary matrices with complex elements
- Severe restrictions exist on copying and measuring signals
- Many universal gate sets exist but the best types are not obvious



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Quantum Circuit Characteristics

- Unitary Operations

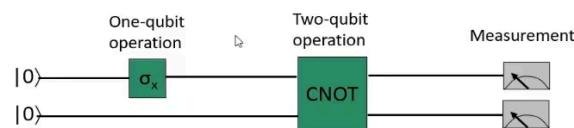
- Gates and circuits must be reversible (information-lossless)
 - Number of output signal lines = Number of input signal lines
 - The circuit function must be a bijection, implying that output vectors are a permutation of the input vectors
- Classical logic behavior can be represented by permutation matrices
- Non-classical logic behavior can be represented including state sign (phase) and entanglement



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Quantum Circuit Model

Example Circuit



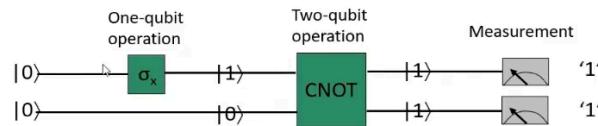
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_x \otimes I = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



Quantum Circuit Model

Example Circuit



$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

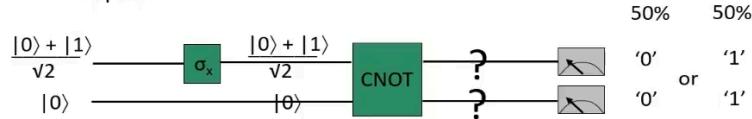
$$\sigma_x \otimes I = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{CNOT} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



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Quantum Circuit Model

Example Circuit



$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



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In a CNOT (Controlled-NOT) gate in quantum computing, measuring one qubit can indeed provide information about the other qubit, depending on the state of the measured qubit and the entanglement between the qubits.

Explanation:

1. Entanglement in CNOT Gate:

In a CNOT gate, two qubits are involved: a control qubit (usually denoted as q_{control}) and a target qubit (usually denoted as q_{target}).

If the control qubit is in the state $|1\rangle$, it flips the state of the target qubit. If the control qubit is in the state $|0\rangle$, the target qubit remains unchanged.

2. Measurement and Entanglement:

When two qubits are entangled, measuring one qubit can instantaneously affect the state of the other qubit.

If we measure the control qubit, and it collapses to $|0\rangle$ or $|1\rangle$, we instantly know the state of the target qubit, as it will be flipped or remain the same, respectively.

3. Example:

Let's say we have a CNOT gate with qubit q_{control} as the control qubit and q_{target} as the target qubit.

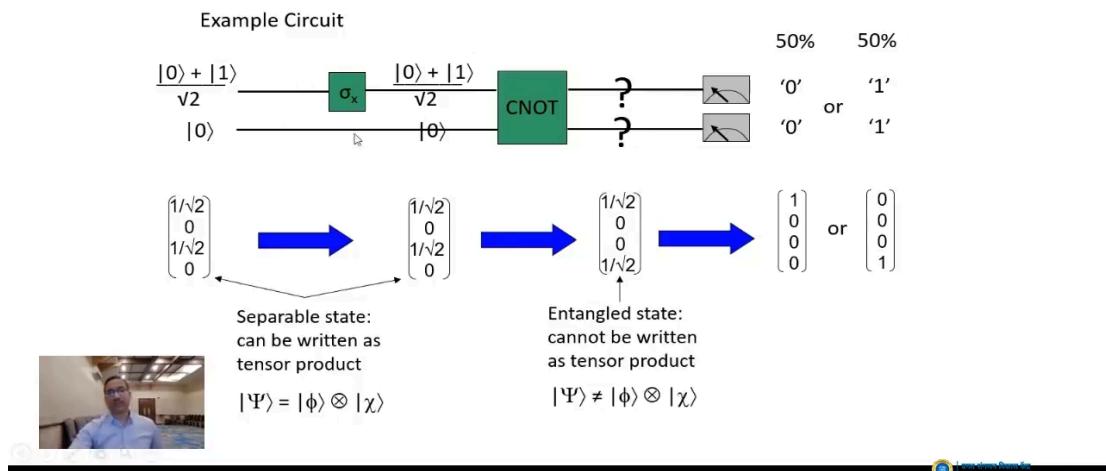
If q_{control} is in the state $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$ and q_{target} is in the state $|0\rangle$ before measurement.

If we measure q_{control} and it collapses to $|0\rangle$, then q_{target} remains $|0\rangle$. If it collapses to $|1\rangle$, then q_{target} flips to $|1\rangle$.

Conclusion:

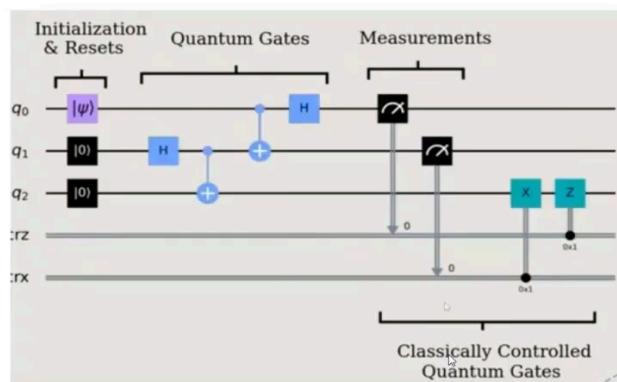
In summary, measuring one qubit in a CNOT gate can provide information about the state of the other qubit due to their entanglement. This property is fundamental in quantum computing and can be used for various quantum information processing tasks, including quantum teleportation and quantum error correction.

Quantum Circuit Model



Quantum Computing Group

Quantum Circuits

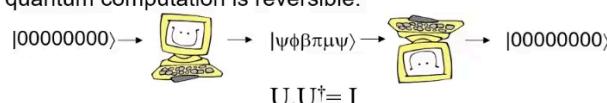


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Some Interesting Consequences

Reversibility

Since quantum mechanics is reversible (dynamics are unitary), quantum computation is reversible.



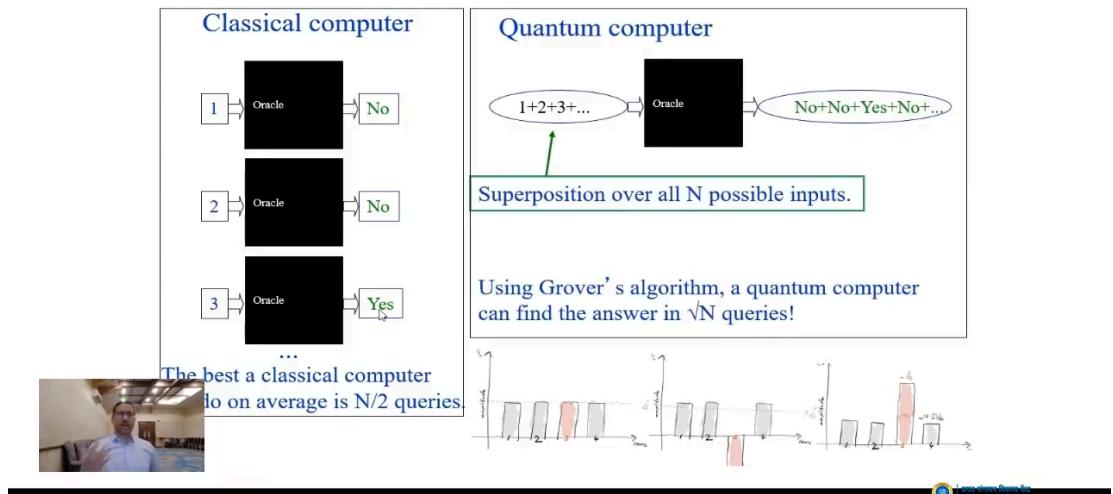
No cloning theorem

It is impossible to exactly copy an unknown quantum state



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Grover's Search Algorithm



Grover's Search Algorithm

1. The Problem:

Grover's algorithm addresses the problem of unstructured search. Given an unsorted database of N items, the goal is to find a particular item, or "solution", marked by an oracle function.

2. Classical vs. Quantum Search:

- In classical computing, an unstructured search typically requires examining each item one by one, taking $O(N)$ time.
- Grover's algorithm provides a quantum solution that achieves a quadratic speedup, reducing the time complexity to $O(\sqrt{N})$.

3. Quantum Superposition:

- Quantum computers leverage the principle of superposition, allowing qubits to be in multiple states simultaneously.
- Grover's algorithm starts with a superposition of all possible states, where each item in the database corresponds to a computational basis state. Let's denote this state as $|\psi\rangle$.

4. Oracle Function:

- The oracle function is applied to $|\psi\rangle$ which identifies whether each state is a solution or a non-solution. If the output for N qubits directly indicates whether it's a solution or non-solution, it effectively acts as the oracle function.

5. Amplitude Amplification:

Even if the output directly identifies solution or non-solution, amplitude amplification is necessary for two main reasons:

- Enhancing the Probability of the Solution:** Amplifying the amplitude of the solution states increases the probability of measuring a solution. Even if the solution is directly identifiable, amplification makes the algorithm more robust to errors and noise.
- Suppressing the Probability of Non-Solutions:** Amplification also suppresses the probability of measuring non-solutions, ensuring that the probability amplitude is concentrated mainly on the solution states.
- Amplitude amplification involves two main steps: **phase inversion** and **inversion about the mean**.

Phase Inversion:

If the output directly identifies the solution or non-solution, the phase inversion step still plays a crucial role. This step flips the sign of the amplitudes of the solution states, creating a phase difference between the solution and non-solution states.

Inversion about the Mean:

- After phase inversion, the algorithm performs an operation known as inversion about the mean. This operation reflects the amplitude distribution around the mean amplitude.
- Inversion about the mean redistributes the amplitudes, amplifying the amplitudes of the states closer to the mean and reducing the amplitudes of those farther away.

6. Repeated Iterations:

- Grover's algorithm iteratively applies phase inversion and inversion about the mean. Each iteration concentrates the probability amplitude around the solution(s) while decreasing it for non-solutions.
- The number of iterations required for maximum probability amplification is approximately $\frac{\pi}{4} \sqrt{N}$.

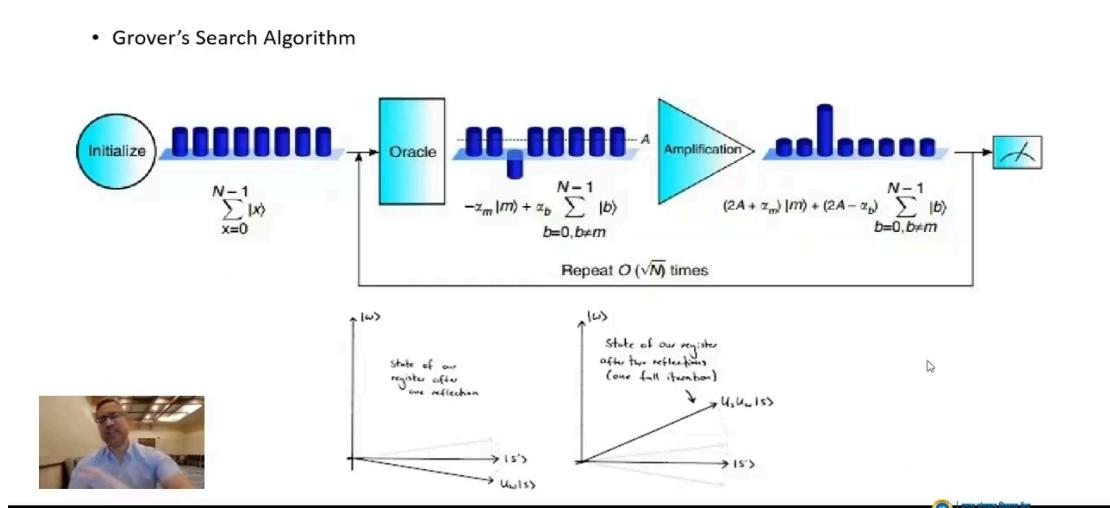
7. Maximum Amplitude at Solution:

After a sufficient number of iterations, the probability of measuring the solution state(s) approaches unity, while the probability of measuring non-solution states approaches zero.

8. Advantages:

- Amplitude amplification is crucial for Grover's algorithm because it allows the quantum state to converge to the solution(s) much faster than classical search algorithms.
- It enables Grover's algorithm to achieve the quadratic speedup, making it significantly more efficient for unstructured search problems compared to classical algorithms.

In conclusion, amplitude amplification is an essential component of Grover's algorithm, allowing it to efficiently search for solutions in unstructured databases by concentrating the probability amplitude around the solution states and achieving a quadratic speedup over classical algorithms.



In 1997, Grover proposed a quantum search algorithm for searching in an unstructured database, where it takes only \sqrt{N} steps for finding an object as compared to the classical algorithm that takes $N/2$ steps. It is the fastest way to transform a vector from its initial state to a final desired state. The algorithm finds the solution by rotating the initial state vector in the Hilbert space iterative sequences until it gets the target solution state. This is achieved by a repeated application of an operator known as Grover operator. Let us first visualize this algorithm geometrically, as this concept will be later used to propose our algorithm.

In Fig. 1, $|\psi\rangle$ is the initial state vector, which is represented as an equal superposition of all the basis vectors which includes $|\beta\rangle$, i.e., the solution vector and $|\alpha\rangle$, the superposition of all the basis states excluding the solution vector $|\beta\rangle$. $|\alpha\rangle$ and $|\beta\rangle$ form a complete set of basis vectors and hence are orthogonal to each other.

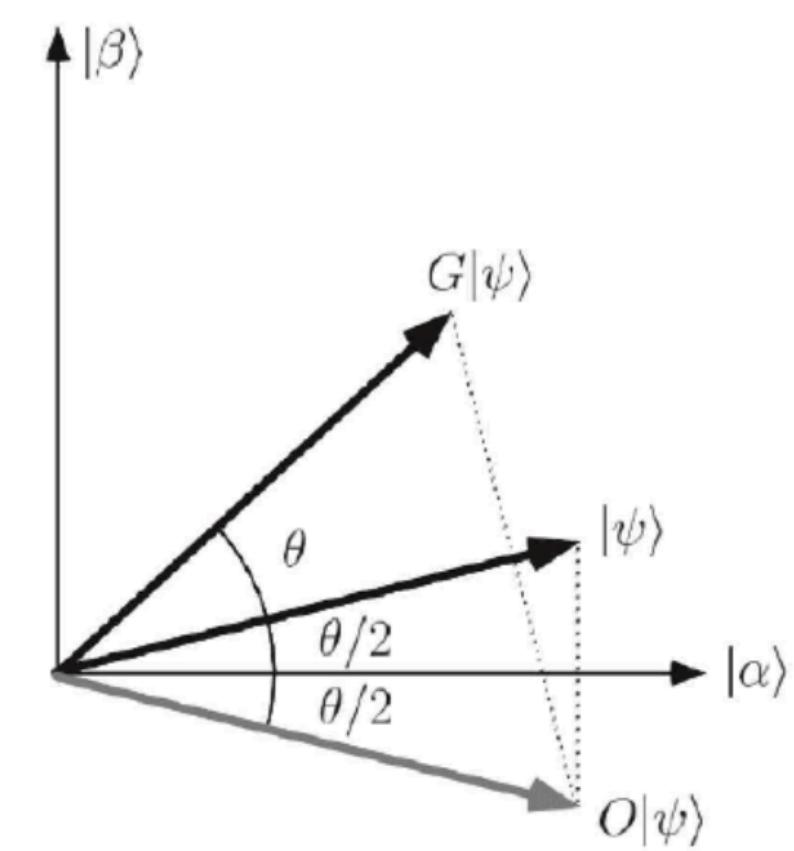


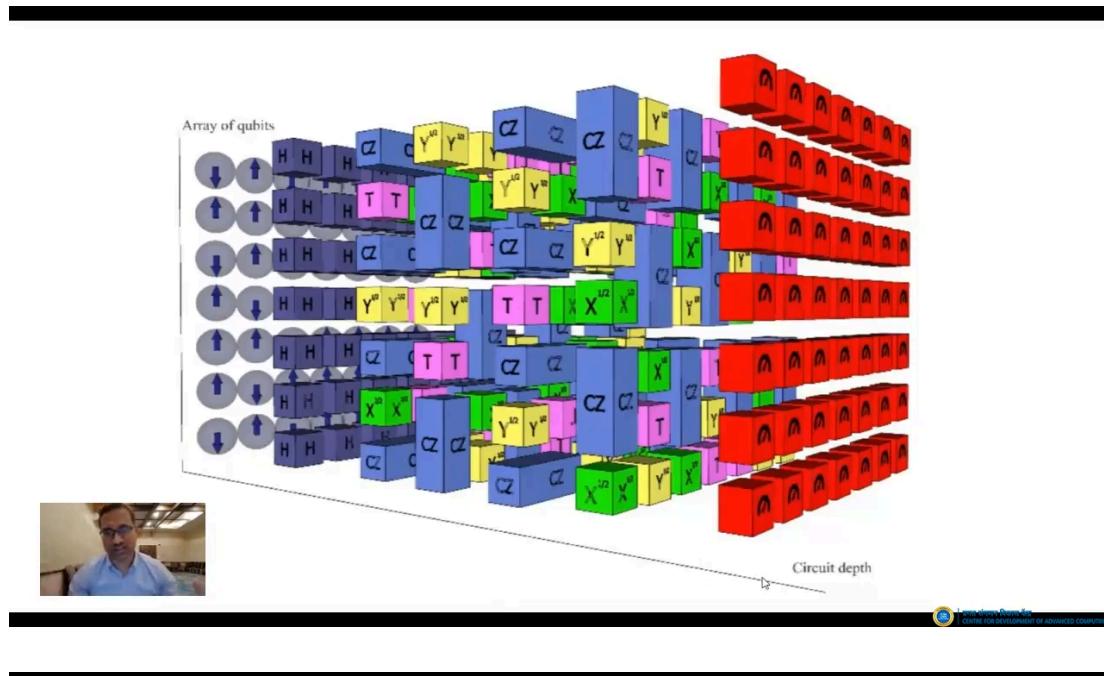
FIG. 1. Geometric representation of Grover's search algorithm.

Here, $\theta/2$ is the angle between the initial state $|\psi\rangle$ and the state ($|\alpha\rangle$). Now, we apply an oracle operation U_f which operating on $|\psi\rangle$ rotates the solution state $|\beta\rangle$ by an angle $\theta/2$ and acts as an identity to the other states $|\alpha\rangle$. Now the another matrix U_g rotates the reflected matrix $|\psi\rangle$ by an angle θ . The product of U_f and U_g is called the Grover operation ($U = U_f.U_g$). The U matrix rotates the initial state $|\psi\rangle$ in this way in iterative sequence until it reaches the target solution state $|\beta\rangle$. If the iteration is done k times on $|\psi\rangle$, the initial state will be rotated by an angle $(2k+1)\theta$. In order to obtain a state close to the solution state we have to perform Grover's operation k times such that $\sin(2k + 1)\theta \approx 1$.

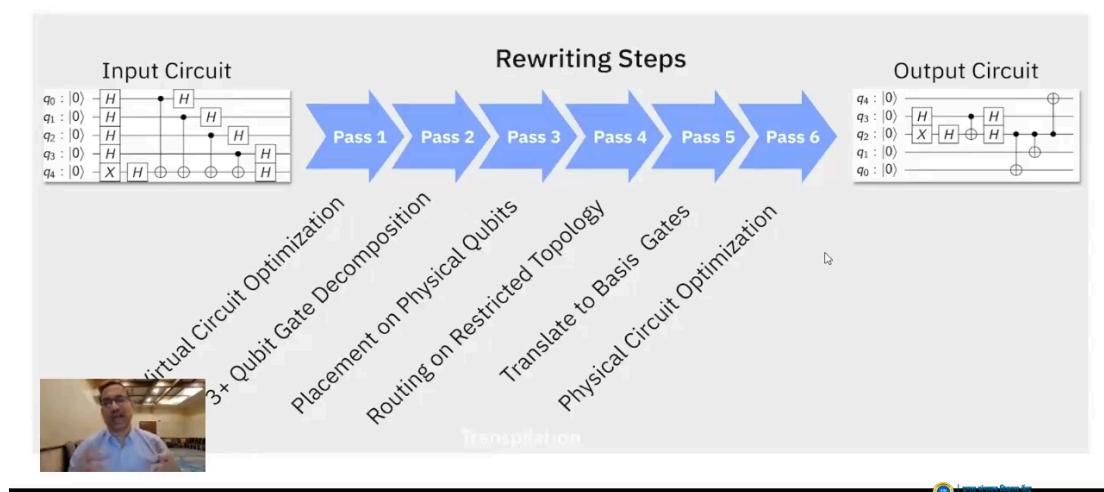
To represent a vector in 2^n dimensional Hilbert space, n qubits are required, where $|\psi\rangle$ will be an equal superposition of 2^n computational basis states. The solution

state, $|\beta\rangle$ is usually an equal superposition of M computational basis states where $0 < M < N$. After certain approximations, it is evident that the number of times the Grover iteration has to be repeated in order to get arbitrarily close to $|\beta\rangle$ is $O(\sqrt{N/M})$.

Quantum Circuit in larger scale



Transpilation



Transpilation - <https://docs.quantum.ibm.com/api/qiskit/transpiler>