

CSE 392/CS 395T/M 397C: Matrix and Tensor Algorithms for Data

Instructor: Shashanka Ubaru

University of Texas, Austin
Spring 2025

Lecture 25: Introduction to quantum computing I

Outline

- 1 History of Quantum Computing
- 2 Qubits
- 3 Quantum Gates
- 4 Quantum Measurements

Quantum Computing Dialog

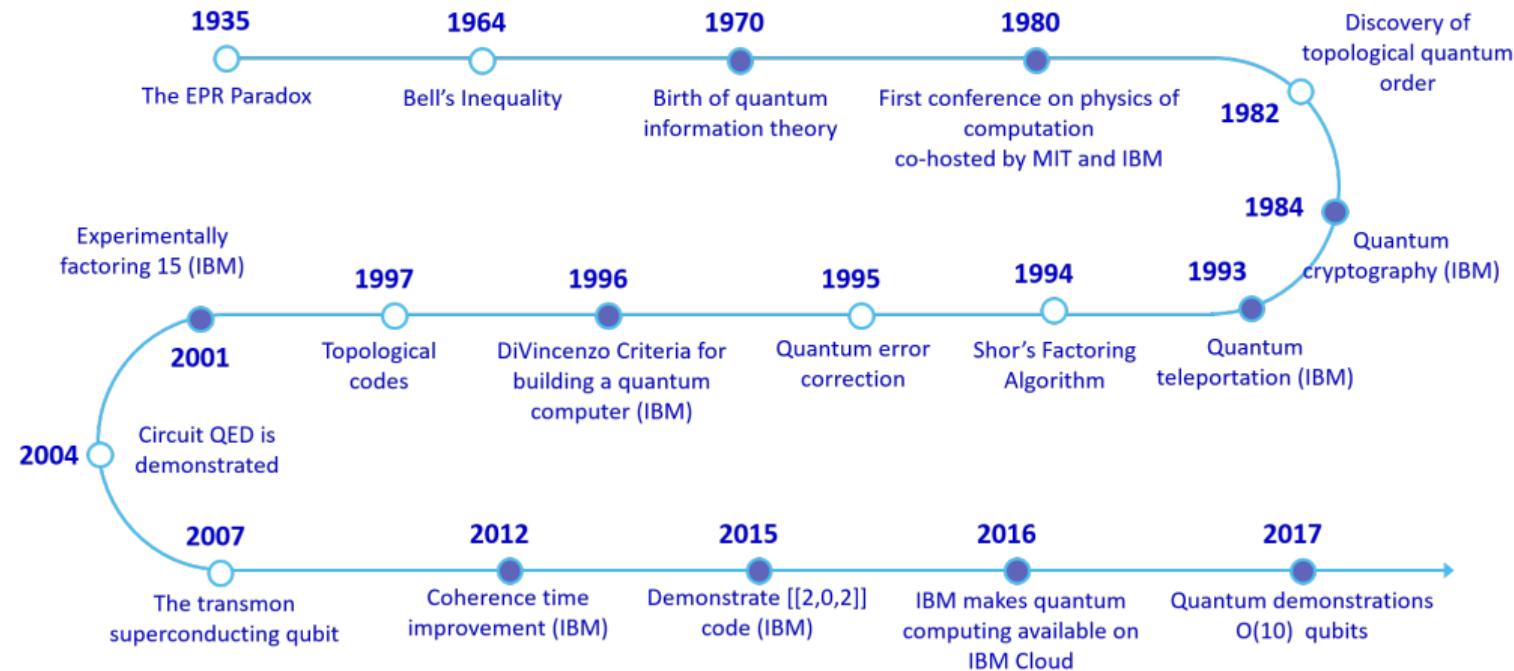
- “The underlying physical laws necessary for the mathematical theory of a large part of physics ... are completely known, and the difficulty is only that the exact application of these laws leads to equations much too complicated to be soluble. It therefore becomes desirable that approximate practical methods ... should be developed...” [Dirac, 1929]
- “I’m not happy with all the analysis that go with just classical theory, because nature isn’t classical, dammit. And if you want to make a simulation of nature, you’d better make it quantum mechanical, and, by golly, it’s a wonderful problem because it doesn’t look so easy” [Feynman 1982]



1981 MIT-IBM Conference

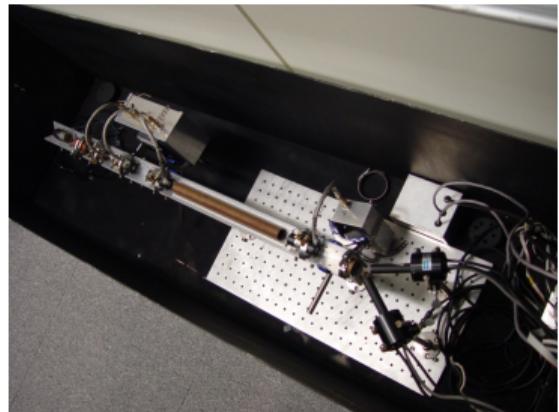


History of Quantum Computing



Early History

- 1970 Quantum money (Stephen Wiesner). Unpublished until 1993
- 1981 Conference at MIT. Feynman reasoned that because quantum mechanics is hard to simulate, maybe a quantum computer would be good for simulating quantum mechanics
- 1982 No-cloning theorem (Wootters-Zurek)
- 1984 Quantum Cryptography (Bennett-Brassard) “BB84”
- 1989 Quantum Key Distribution Device
- 1993 Teleportation (Bennett et. al.)
- 1994 Polynomial time factoring algorithm (Peter Shor)



- 1995 Quantum Error-correcting codes (Calderbank-Shor)



- 1996 Fault-tolerant quantum computation (Peter Shor)



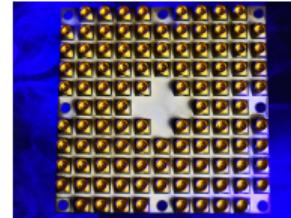
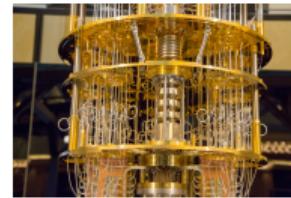
- 1997 Fault-tolerant Quantum Computation with Constant Error (Aharonov-Ben Or)



Current Effort

- **Superconducting qubits:**

- ▶ IBM: 433 (Osprey), 1,121 qubits (Condor)
- ▶ Google: 105 qubits (Willow)
- ▶ Rigetti 84 qubits (Ankaa-2)
- ▶ DWave: 5760 “qubits” (quantum annealer)



- **Ion Traps:**

- ▶ Quantinuum (56 qubits)
- ▶ IonQ (36 qubits)

- **Photonics:**

- ▶ USTC: 76 qubits (Jiuzhang)
- ▶ Xanadu: 24 qubits (X24)

- Qubit count is not everything... equally and often more important is the computation **fidelity** and **connectivity**...

Future Directions

- **Quantum Advantage** (or “Supremacy”) - Demonstrate a special purpose application whose output cannot be simulated as fast using existing classical computers (50-100 qubits)

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MENU ▾ nature

Article | Published: 23 October 2019

Quantum supremacy using a programmable superconducting processor

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The promise of quantum computers is that certain computational tasks might be executed exponentially faster on a quantum processor than on a classical processor¹. A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space. Here we report the use of a processor with programmable superconducting qubits^{2,3,4,5,6,7} to create quantum states on 53 qubits, corresponding to a computational state-space of dimension 2^{53} (about 10^{16}). Measurements from repeated experiments sample the resulting probability distribution, which we verify using classical simulations. Our Sycamore processor takes about 200 seconds to sample one instance of a quantum circuit a million times—our benchmarks currently indicate that the equivalent task for a state-of-the-art classical supercomputer would take approximately 10,000 years. This dramatic increase in speed compared to all known classical algorithms is an experimental realization of quantum supremacy^{8,9,10,11,12,13,14} for this specific computational task, heralding a much-anticipated computing paradigm.

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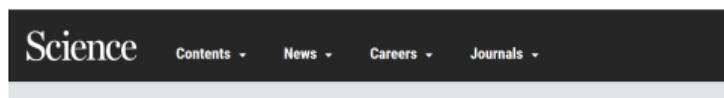
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The promise of quantum computers is that certain computational tasks might be executed exponentially faster on a quantum processor than on a classical processor¹. A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space. Here we report the use of a processor with programmable superconducting qubits^{2,3,4,5,6,7} to create quantum states on 53 qubits, corresponding to a computational state-space of dimension 2^{53} (about 10^{16}). Measurements from repeated experiments sample the resulting probability distribution, which we verify using classical simulations. Our Sycamore processor takes about 200 seconds to sample one instance of a quantum circuit a million times—our benchmarks currently indicate that the equivalent task for a state-of-the-art classical supercomputer would take approximately 10,000 years. This dramatic increase in speed compared to all known classical algorithms is an experimental realization of quantum supremacy^{8,9,10,11,12,13,14} for this specific computational task, heralding a much-anticipated computing paradigm.



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Google researchers in Santa Barbara, California, say their advance may lead to near-term applications of quantum computers. ISTOCK.COM/JHVEPHOTO

IBM casts doubt on Google's claims of quantum supremacy

By Adrian Cho | Oct. 23, 2019, 5:40 AM

Future Directions

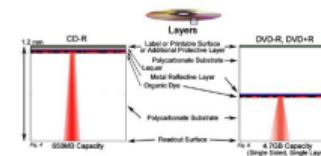
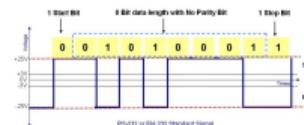
- **Quantum Advantage** (or “Supremacy”) - Demonstrate a special purpose application whose output cannot be simulated as fast using existing classical computers (around 100 qubits)
- **Approximate quantum computer** - Demonstrate a useful application (quantum chemistry, optimization, ...) with a quantum device which does not need full fault tolerance (1K-5K qubits)
- **Universal fault-tolerant** quantum computer - Run useful quantum algorithms with exponential speed up over their classical counterparts (requires error correction) (1M-5M qubits)
- **Large-scale**, fault tolerant (**logical**) quantum system
- **Topological qubits**
- Find **useful** algorithms of notable **quantum advantage**

Classical Bits

- A **bit** is a **fundamental unit of information** used in classical computation and digital communication
- A classical bit can hold the **binary** value of either 0 **or** 1, yet **not** a combination of the two
- In information theory, one **bit** is typically defined as the **information entropy** of a **binary random variable** that is 0 or 1 with **equal probability** (sometimes called a **Shannon**, but you'll never see that...)
- The state of each **classical bit**, can be set **independently** of the state of other classical bits
- The state of a register of q classical bits, can be represented by a **binary string** in $\{0, 1\}^q$
- This is a **q -dimensional space**
- The dimension of the **state-space** grows **linearly** with the number of bits

Classical Bits

- Physical representation of the abstract notion of a **bit** entity, can be by:
 - Stone tablet
 - Holes in a punch card
 - Varying levels of voltage or current
 - Magnetic field
 - Reflective vs. non-reflective spots on an optical disk
 - etc.



Single Quantum Bit - Definition

- **Definition: Computational Basis States :** A qubit has **two** special states, which in Dirac's **ket notation** are denoted by $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$
- **Definition : Single Qubit Quantum State:** The state of a single **quantum bit** (aka **qubit**) can be represented as a **unitary vector** in a **2-dimensional complex** vector space, \mathbb{C}^2

$$\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

where

- ▶ $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$
- ▶ $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$
- ▶ $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ represent the basis states in \mathbb{C}^2 (They correspond to the classical states)
- Consider the standard unitary basis for \mathbb{C}^2 , we can denote $|0\rangle$ by $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle$ by $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Quantum Bits - Physical Representation

- Various propositions for a **physical substrate** to represent the **abstract** notion of a **qubit**

Classical



Relay



Vacuum tube

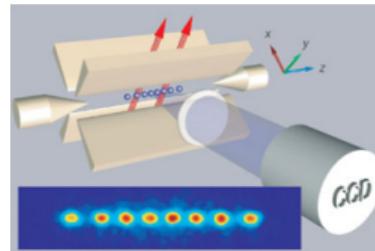


Transistor

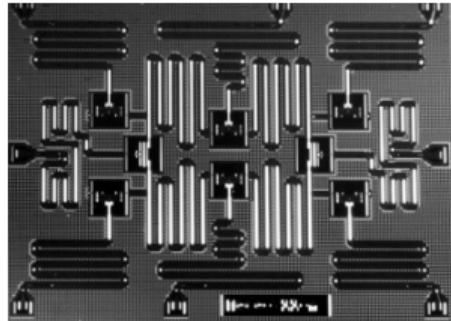
Quantum



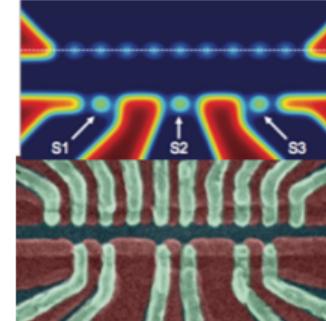
Rydberg atoms (Haroche)



Ion traps (Blatt & Wineland)



Superconducting resonators (IBM)



Quantum dots (Petta)

Quantum Bits - Tensor Product Space (Recall)

- **Definition: Tensor Product Space:** Let V and W be **vector spaces** over the field F
- Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\} \in V$ and $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\} \in W$ be **bases** of the respective spaces
- The tensor product $V \otimes W$ induces a **tensor product space** over the field F , equipped with the bi-linear operation $\otimes : V \times W \rightarrow V \otimes W$
- The vectors $v_i \otimes w_j, \forall i = 1, \dots, m, \forall j = 1, \dots, n$ forms a **basis** for the **vector space** $V \otimes W$
- Considering the standard bases for the vector spaces V and W , the tensor product space becomes the **Kronecker product**

Tensor Product Properties

- **Tensor Product Properties:** Let $A, B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$ and $C, D \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ be linear transformations on V and W respectively, $v, u \in \mathbb{C}^m$, $w, x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$. The tensor product satisfies the following properties:

- ▶ $(A \otimes C)(B \otimes D) = AB \otimes CD$
- ▶ $(A \otimes C)(u \otimes w) = Au \otimes Cw$
- ▶ $(u + v) \otimes w = u \otimes w + v \otimes w$
- ▶ $u \otimes (x + w) = u \otimes w + u \otimes x$
- ▶ $(A \otimes C)^* = A^* \otimes C^*$

Hilbert Space

- **Definition: Hilbert Space:**

- ▶ A **Hilbert space** is a **vector space** \mathbb{H} with an **inner product** $\langle x, y \rangle = x^*y$ such that the norm defined by

$$|x| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$$

turns \mathbb{H} into a complete metric space

- ▶ For a **complex inner product space**, the inner product $\langle x, y \rangle$ associates a **complex number** to each pair of elements x, y of \mathbb{H} while satisfying the following properties:
 - ★ The inner product of a pair of elements is equal to the **complex conjugate** of the inner product of the **swapped elements**:

$$\langle y, x \rangle = \overline{\langle x, y \rangle}$$

- ★ The inner product is **linear** in its arguments. For all complex numbers $a \in \mathbb{C}$ and $b \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\langle ax_1 + bx_2, y \rangle = a\langle x_1, y \rangle + b\langle x_2, y \rangle$$

- ★ The inner product of an element with itself is **positive definite**:

$$\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$$

where the case of equality holds precisely when $x = 0$

- **Definition: Bra-Ket Notation:**

- ▶ Given a Hilbert space \mathbb{H} , a quantity $\psi \in \mathbb{H}$ enclosed in a **ket**, denoted $|\psi\rangle$, is a vector and can be thought of as a column vector
- ▶ A quantity $\phi \in \mathbb{H}^*$ enclosed in a **bra**, denoted $\langle\phi|$, is a vector in the **dual space**, and can be thought of as a row vector that is the **conjugate transpose** of $\phi \in \mathbb{H}$
- ▶ An **inner product** of $\langle\phi|$ and $|\psi\rangle$ in the Hilbert space \mathbb{H} is denoted by $\langle\phi|\psi\rangle$

- **Notation: Standard Basis:** The standard basis for \mathbb{C}^2 , which is a Hilbert space, is denoted by $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Bra-Ket Representation

- The bra-ket notion of a state $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ is equivalent to the previously defined representation $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$, where α and β are the **amplitudes** of the $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ states respectively
- Basis vectors are **orthogonal**:

$$\langle 0|1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

- The state can be denoted as

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

- Bras and kets are essentially vectors (in dual spaces), and as such they obey the **usual rules** for vectors in vector spaces:

$$\gamma(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) = \gamma\alpha|0\rangle + \gamma\beta|1\rangle \iff \gamma \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma\alpha \\ \gamma\beta \end{bmatrix}$$

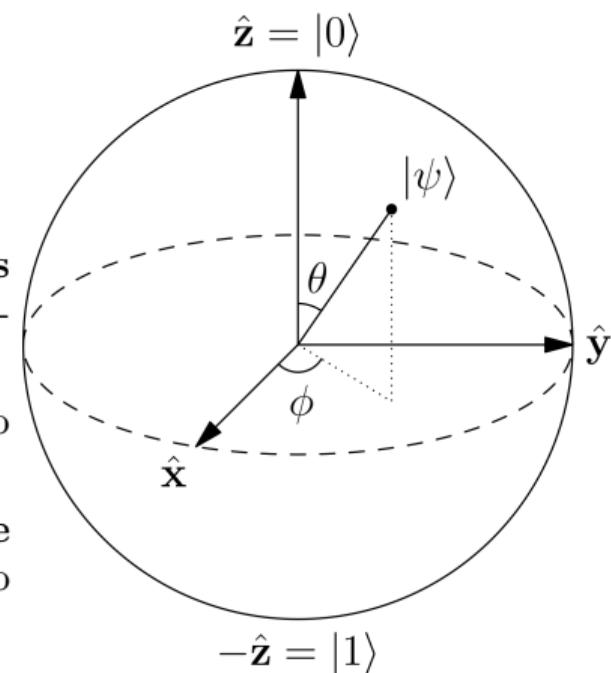
$$(\alpha_1|0\rangle + \beta_1|1\rangle) + (\alpha_2|0\rangle + \beta_2|1\rangle) = (\alpha_1 + \alpha_2)|0\rangle + (\beta_1 + \beta_2)|1\rangle \iff \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_2 \\ \beta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 + \beta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Bloch Sphere Representation

- State space of a **single qubit** can be represented **geometrically** using the **Bloch sphere** representation
- Most general **pure** state

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

- The Bloch sphere is a **unit 2-sphere**, with **antipodal points** corresponding to a pair of **mutually orthogonal** state vectors
- **North** and **south** poles are typically chosen to correspond to the standard basis vectors $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$
- **Points** on the **surface** of the sphere correspond to the **pure states** of the system, whereas **interior points** correspond to the **mixed states** (aka **density matrices**)
- **Unitary** operations correspond to **rotations** on the Bloch sphere



Multiple Qubit State

- The state of q qubits is a **unit vector** in $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes q} = \underbrace{\mathbb{C}^2 \otimes \mathbb{C}^2 \cdots \otimes \mathbb{C}^2}_{q \text{ times}}$
- Given the **standard basis** for each \mathbb{C}^2 , a basis for $(\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes q}$ is given by:

$$|0\rangle = \underbrace{|0\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |0\rangle}_{q \text{ times}} = |0B_q\rangle = |\underbrace{000 \dots 0}_{q-\text{terms}}\rangle$$

$$|1\rangle = \underbrace{|0\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |1\rangle}_{q \text{ times}} = |1B_q\rangle = |\underbrace{000 \dots 1}_{q-\text{terms}}\rangle$$

⋮

$$|2^q - 1\rangle = \underbrace{|1\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |1\rangle}_{q \text{ times}} = |(2^q - 1)B_q\rangle = |\underbrace{111 \dots 1}_{q-\text{terms}}\rangle$$

- The **state of q qubits** can be represented as: $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{2^q-1} \alpha_j |j\rangle$, with $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{C}$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{2^q-1} |\alpha_j|^2 = 1$

Postulates: State Space

- Quantum states are vectors in a **Hilbert** space, a complex vector space:

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ z_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- The z_i are complex numbers, called **amplitudes**
- The inner product on the vector space is defined as

$$\langle\psi'|\psi\rangle = [z_1'^* \ . \ . \ . \ z_n'^*] \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ \cdot \\ z_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i'^* z_i$$

- States are usually normalized $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle = 1$
- Systems are combined by the **tensor product** on their Hilbert spaces: $|\Psi\rangle_{12} = |\psi\rangle_1 \otimes |\psi\rangle_2$.

Postulates: Unitarity

- Evolution is Unitary: $|\psi\rangle \rightarrow |\psi'\rangle = U|\psi\rangle$.
- U is a unitary matrix $U^\dagger U = I$ (the identity matrix).
- Therefore U is its own **inverse** $U^{-1} = U$.
- Rows and columns of U are orthonormal.

Basis States and Superposition

- **Definition:** Standard Basis State: q qubits are in a **basis state** if their state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{2^q-1} \alpha_j |j\rangle$ is such that **exists** an index k for which $\alpha_k = 1$ while $\alpha_j = 0, \forall j \neq k$
 - Otherwise, the qubits are in a **superposition** state
- Proposition: Basis State of Multiple Qubits:** q qubits are in a (standard) basis state if and only if each of the individual qubits is in a basis state
- There is **no classical equivalent** to superposition as q classical bits are **always** in a basis state, i.e., the q bits will always correspond exactly to one of the 2^q binary strings representing the numbers $0, \dots, 2^q - 1$
 - **Superposition** is one of the unique key features of quantum computers

SCHRÖDINGER'S CAT IS
A DEADIVE

Product States and Entanglement - Definition

- **Definition :** A quantum state $|\psi\rangle \in (\mathbb{C}^2)^{\otimes q}$ is a **product state** if there exist q single-qubit quantum states $|\psi_i\rangle \in (\mathbb{C}^2)$, $i = 1, \dots, q$ such that

$$|\psi\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |\psi_q\rangle$$

- Otherwise, it is an **entangled** state



Outline of Quantum Computation

- Single qubit gates

$$|\psi\rangle \xrightarrow{U_{2\times 2}} |\psi'\rangle \quad |\psi'\rangle = U|\psi_{2\times 2}\rangle$$

- Multiple qubit gates

$$|\psi\rangle \xrightarrow{U_{4\times 4}} |\psi'\rangle \quad |\psi'\rangle = U|\psi_{4\times 4}\rangle$$

- **Universality** : **Any unitary operation** (on any number of qubits) can be decomposed in terms of arbitrary one- and two-qubit gates

Quantum Logic Gate

- Logical gates are the fundamental building blocks of computation and information processing tasks
- Similarly to classical logical gate, a quantum logic gate is a mean to manipulate the state of a qubit or a set of qubits
- Examples of classical gates:
 - ▶ NOT - the only single bit gate (unless identity counts...)
 - ▶ AND
 - ▶ OR
 - ▶ XOR
 - ▶ NAND
- Quantum gate set is more elaborate, and subject to several conditions

Quantum Logical Gates - Properties

- **Definition: Gate** : Any operation applied by a quantum computer with q qubits, also called a gate, is a **unitary** matrix in $\mathbb{C}^{2^q \times 2^q}$
- **Definition: Unitary operation** : A matrix U is **unitary** if

$$U^\dagger U = UU^\dagger = I$$

- **Property: Norm Preserving** : Unitary matrices are **norm-preserving**: given a unitary matrix U and a vector $|\psi\rangle$

$$\|U|\psi\rangle\| = \||\psi\rangle\|$$

- **State Evolution**: For a q -qubit system, the quantum **state** is a **unit vector** $|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^q}$, a quantum **operation** is a **unitary matrix** $U \in \mathbb{C}^{2^q \times 2^q}$, and the **application** of U onto the state $|\psi\rangle$ is the **unit vector** $U|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^q}$

Quantum Logical Gates - Properties

- These definitions entail the following central **properties**
 - ▶ **Linearity** : Quantum operations are **linear**
 - ▶ **Reversibility** : Quantum operations are **reversible**
- **Reversibility** : The **classical model of computation** is typically **not reversible**, as memory can be erased, yet, [Bennett, 1973] shows that computations can be **made reversible** by means of (a reasonable amount of) **extra space**
- **Turing Completeness** : While these properties may initially seem to be extremely **restrictive**, [Deutsch, 1985] shows that a **universal quantum computer** is **Turing-complete**, implying that it can **simulate any Turing-computable function**, given sufficient **time** and **memory**

The Pauli Matrices

- **Pauli Matrices** : 2×2 matrices commonly used in quantum computation

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

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

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

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



- The Pauli matrices form a **basis** for $\mathbb{C}^{2 \times 2}$, they are Hermitian, and they satisfy the **relationship** $XYZ = iI$
- The identity operator I is sometimes omitted from the list

Single Qubit Gates - Pauli

- **Pauli Gates** : Perform π radians rotations about a principal axis upon a single qubit

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

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

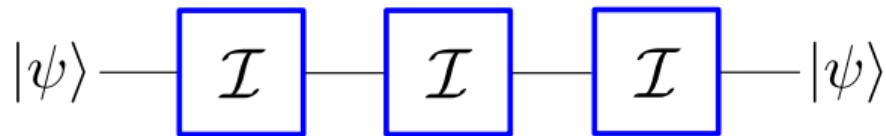
$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- X and Y gates perform quantum equivalent to the classical **NOT** gate
 - ▶ X gate maps $|0\rangle$ to $|1\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ to $|0\rangle$ (**bit-flip**)
 - ▶ Z gate **flips** the **phase**, leaves $|0\rangle$ unchanged, and maps $|1\rangle$ to $-|1\rangle$
 - ▶ Y gate performs both a **bit-flip** and a **phase-flip**
- The **identity** operator I , performs an **idle** operation on a single qubit

Single Qubit Gates - Quantum Wire

- **Quantum Wire** : Trivially maintains the state of a system



- Equivalent to application of **identity** gates **sequentially**
- In practice, **non-trivial** at all in actual quantum systems

Single Qubit Gates - Hadamard Gate

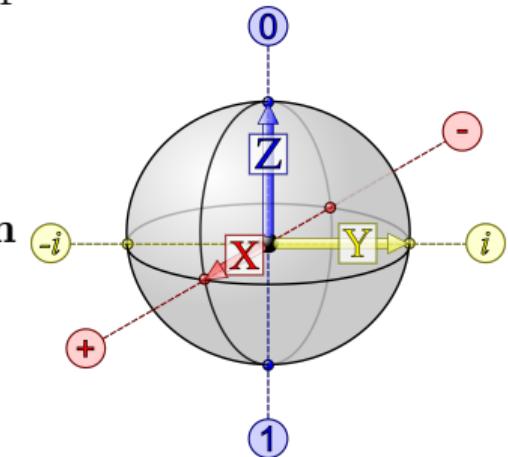
- **Hadamard Gate** : Rotates by π radians about the $X + Z$ axis (which is equivalent to π about X followed by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ over the Y -axis)
- Exchanges the Z and X axes
- Maps classical states to equal-weighted **superposition** states and vice versa

$$\begin{array}{ll} \blacktriangleright |0\rangle \rightarrow |+\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & |+\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow |0\rangle \\ \blacktriangleright |1\rangle \rightarrow |-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & |-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \rightarrow |1\rangle \end{array}$$

- Represented by

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

- Self-inverse



$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\text{cat}\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |\text{not cat}\rangle$$

Multi Qubit Gates

- **Definition : Quantum Register :** A set of qubits grouped together
- **Controlled gates** act on 2 or more qubits, where one or more qubits act as a control for some operation
- **Controlled NOT gate (or CNOT)** acts on 2 qubits, and performs the NOT operation on the target qubit only when the control qubit is $|1\rangle$, and otherwise leaves it unchanged (essentially a reversible **XOR**)

$$\text{CNOT} = \begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ | \\ \bullet \\ | \\ \text{---} \\ \oplus \end{array} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- **Controlled Phase (CPhase)**

- ▶ Same idea but target qubit is flipped around the Z axis (instead of X)
- ▶ Equivalent to $CNOT$ up to single-qubit gates

Quantum Computation Model

- **Circuit** : The **input** to the quantum computer is a **circuit**, comprising the **instructions** as well as the **data** (unless QRAM is assumed)
- On a high level a quantum computer performs 3 tasks:
 - ▶ **State Preparation** : The state of the quantum computer is contained in a quantum register, which is initialized in a predefined way
 - ▶ **State Evolution** : The state **evolves** according to operations specified in advance according to an algorithm
 - ▶ **Quantum Measurement** : At the end of the computation, some information on the state of the quantum register is obtained by means of a special operation, called a **measurement**

Quantum Computation Model

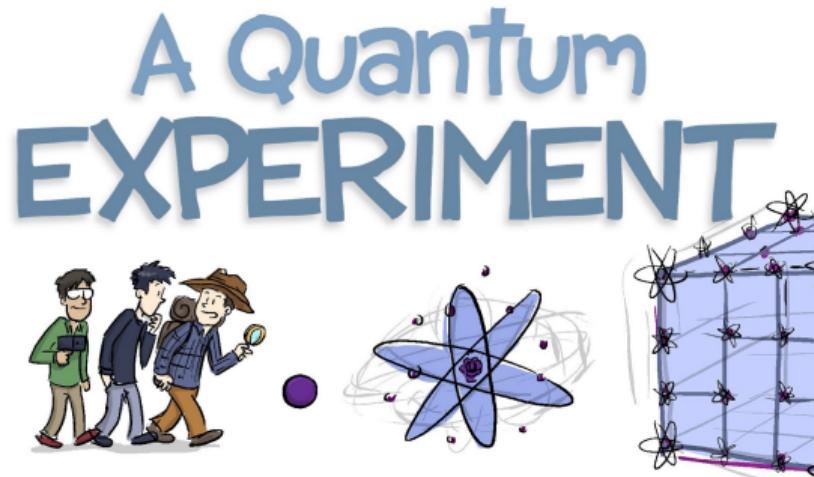
- By convention, the **initial quantum state** of the quantum computing device is $|0\rangle$
- The **input** to a quantum computing device is a **circuit**, or a set of circuits, which are then **combined** in an **algorithm**: the algorithm may be **self-contained** in the **quantum computer**, or it may involve an external, **classical computing**

Quantum Measurement

- Can we **determine** the state of a quantum system by **measurement** ?

Quantum Measurement

- Can we **determine** the state of a quantum system by **measurement** ?
- **No**, in a classical computer we can simply read the state of the bits, whereas in a quantum computer we do **not** have **direct, unrestricted access** to the quantum state
- Partial information regarding the quantum **state** can be gathered through a **measurement gate**



Quantum Measurement: Quantum Drill Sergeant

- Given a quantum system (e.g. a qubit) in an unknown state $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|e_1\rangle + \beta|e_2\rangle$, can we **determine** the quantum state ?

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- The poor private responds “**I don’t know, I’m a little bit of both**”
- “**I asked you a question private!**”
- The terrified private conducts a quick **experiment**, and says “**I’m $|e_1\rangle$ sir!**”
- Thereafter, he remains $|e_1\rangle$...
- Measurement **collapses** the state to a **classical** state, and the amplitudes are gone

Complete Quantum Measurement

- Attempt to articulate the **Quantum Measurement** postulate : A quantum measurement is described by an **orthonormal basis** $|e_j\rangle$ for the state space
- If the **initial state** of the system is $|\psi\rangle$ then we get **outcome** j with probability

$$\Pr(j) = \left| \underbrace{\langle e_j | \psi \rangle}_{\text{amplitude}} \right|^2$$

- The **posterior state** is $|e_j\rangle$
- If we **expand** $|\psi\rangle = \sum_i \alpha_i |e_i\rangle$, the **amplitude** α_j can be found by the inner product

$$\langle e_j | \psi \rangle = \langle e_j | \sum_i \alpha_i |e_i\rangle = \delta_{ij} \alpha_i = \alpha_j$$

- **Problem** : Not general enough to describe **partial measurement**

(Partial) Measurement

- **Quantum Measurement** : A **quantum measurement** is described by a **spanning set of orthogonal subspaces** V_j with corresponding **projectors** Π_j (i.e. $\Pi_j \Pi_k = 0$ when $j \neq k$)
- If the initial state of the system is $|\psi\rangle$ then we get outcome j with probability

$$\Pr(j) = \langle \psi | \Pi_j^\dagger \Pi_j | \psi \rangle$$

- The posterior state is $\frac{\Pi_j |\psi\rangle}{\sqrt{\Pr(j)}}$
- The measurement operators satisfy the **completeness equation**

$$\sum_j \Pi_j^\dagger \Pi_j = I$$

- The projectors to measure a single qubit k out of a register are

$$|0\rangle\langle 0|_k \otimes I_{\bar{k}} \quad \text{and} \quad |1\rangle\langle 1|_k \otimes I_{\bar{k}}$$

Quantum Measurement - Principle of Uncertainty

- **Principle of Uncertainty** : Measurement **disturbs** the qubit. Following the measurement the measured qubit becomes **classical** and the original state is **no longer recoverable**
- The state of the quantum system after a measurement **collapses** to a **linear combination** of only those basis states that are **consistent** with the **outcome** of the measurement
- From an **information theory** standpoint, it implies that only **finite** amount of **classical information** is **storagable** in a qubit

Single Qubit Measurement

- **Single Qubit Measurement :** Given a q -qubit quantum state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{2^q-1} \alpha_j |j\rangle$, a measurement gate on qubit k outputs 0 with probability $\sum_{j:(jB_q)_k=0} |\alpha_j|^2$ and 1 with probability $\sum_{j:(jB_q)_k=1} |\alpha_j|^2$
- That is summation over all j 's such that the binary representation of j is 0 or 1 respectively
- Let $x \in \{0, 1\}$ be the measured value. Following the measurement, the quantum state becomes

$$\sum_{j:(jB_q)_k=x} \frac{\alpha_j}{\sqrt{\sum_{j:(jB_q)_k=x} |\alpha_j|^2}} |j\rangle$$

- **Multiple Qubit Measurement :** Given a q -qubit quantum state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{2^q-1} \alpha_j |j\rangle$, measurement of the q qubits yields jB_q with probability $|\alpha_j|^2$, for $j = 0, \dots, 2^q - 1$

Questions