

Quantum Systems

(Lecture 2: Computing with qubits. The Deutsch algorithm)

Luís Soares Barbosa



Universidade do Minho



Universidade do Minho

Computing with qubits

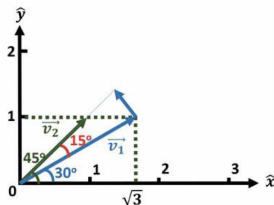
Quantum State: A unit vector of (complex) **amplitudes** in \mathbb{C}^n

- (why **unit**? why **complex** amplitudes?)
- ... whose general 'format' is a **superposition** of **ortonormal** base vectors, e.g. $|0\rangle, |1\rangle$

This means that a quantum state 'lives' in a **complex vector space** with a **inner product**

Recall: what is a inner product?

From a linear algebra textbook: for $\vec{v}_1 = \sqrt{3}\hat{x} + \hat{y}$ and $\vec{v}_2 = \hat{x} + \hat{y}$, the inner (or dot, or scalar) product is



$$\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = |\vec{v}_1| |\vec{v}_2| \cos 15 \approx 2.732$$

i.e. the product of the (magnitudes of) \vec{v}_2 by \vec{v}_1 projected in the direction of \vec{v}_2 .

The inner product defines how much the two vectors have in common after scaled by their magnitudes, where magnitudes are computed through the Pythagorean theorem.

Recall: what is a inner product?

If the basis vectors are orthonormal, this can be computed as

$$\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \vec{v}_1^\dagger \vec{v}_2$$

where x^\dagger is the complex conjugate transpose of x . Thus,

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \approx 2.732$$

Computing with qubits

Quantum State: A unit vector of (complex) **amplitudes** in \mathbb{C}^n

Quantum Operators:

- **measurements** (destructive!)
- **unitary transformations:** vector **rotations** preserving the inner products, ie. the **geometry**, and consequently, **norms**:

$$\|v\| \hat{=} \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$$

... such operators are **reversible**.

Some operators

The X gate



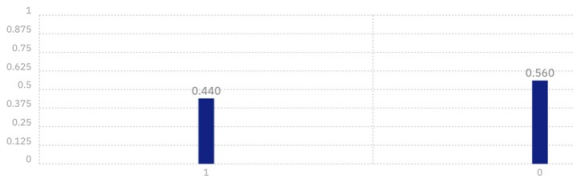
e.g.

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

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

Some operators

The H gate



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

The H gate creates **superpositions**:

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} = |+\rangle$$

My first quantum algorithm

The Deutsch problem

Decide whether

$$f : 2 \longrightarrow 2$$

is constant or not, with a single evaluation of f ?

- Classically, to determine which case $f(1) = f(0)$ or $f(1) \neq f(0)$ holds requires running f twice
- Resorting to quantum computation, however, it suffices to run f once . . . due to two quantum effects **superposition** and **interference**

Turning f into a quantum operation

$f : \mathbf{2} \longrightarrow \mathbf{2}$ extends to a linear map $\mathbb{C}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^2$

... but not necessarily to a **unitary** transformation.

proof

The extended f does not preserve norms: Actually, when f is constant on 0 we obtain $f|0\rangle = |0\rangle$ and $f|1\rangle = |0\rangle$.

Thus,

$$\left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \right| = 1$$

However,

$$\left| f \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \right) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |0\rangle) \right| = \left| \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle \right| = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Turning f into a quantum operation

Intuition

f potentially **loses** information whereas pure quantum operations are **reversible** [Charles Bennett, 1973]

Actually, a unitary transformation is always **injective** so if a map loses information it cannot be unitary.

Turning f into a quantum operation

Proposed Solution

$$\left[\text{---} \text{---}^2 \boxed{U_f} \text{---}^2 \text{---} \right] = |x\rangle \otimes |y\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle \otimes |y \oplus f(x)\rangle$$



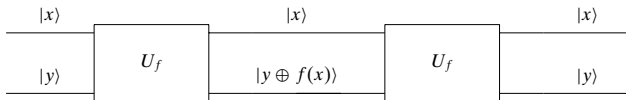
Addition modulo 2

- The **oracle** takes input $|x\rangle|y\rangle$ to $|x\rangle|y \oplus f(x)\rangle$
- Fixing $y = 0$ it encodes f :

$$U_f(|x\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = |x\rangle \otimes |0 \oplus f(x)\rangle = |x\rangle \otimes |f(x)\rangle$$

Turning f into a quantum operation

- U_f is a **unitary**, i.e. a **reversible** gate



$$|x\rangle|(y \oplus f(x)) \oplus f(x)\rangle = |x\rangle|y \oplus (f(x) \oplus f(x))\rangle = |x\rangle|y \oplus 0\rangle = |x\rangle|y\rangle$$

Exploiting quantum parallelism

Key message!

- Through **superposition** one can perform a transformation on multiple basis states at the same time!
- ... but accessing the results is another story.

Can f be evaluated for $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ in one step?

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{---} H \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] U_f \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{array} \right] = U_f(H \otimes I)$$

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Are we done?

$$U_f(H \otimes I)(|0\rangle \otimes |0\rangle) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle|f(0)\rangle + |1\rangle|f(1)\rangle)}_{f(0) \text{ and } f(1) \text{ in a single run}}$$

NO

Although both values have been computed **simultaneously**, only one of them is retrieved upon **measurement** in the computational basis: Actually, 0 or 1 will be retrieved with **identical** probability (why?).

YES

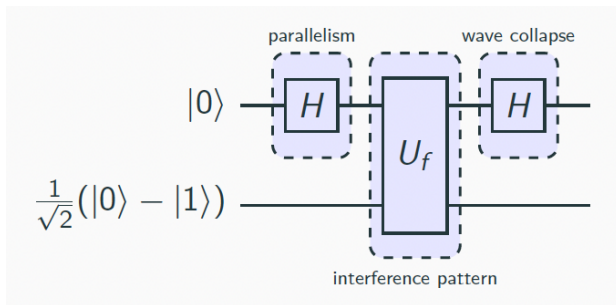
The Deutsch problem is not interested on the concrete values f may take, but on a **global** property of f : whether it is constant or not, technically on the value of

$$f(0) \oplus f(1)$$

Exploiting quantum parallelism and interference

Actually, the **Deutsch algorithm** explores another quantum resource — **interference** — to obtain that **global** information on f

Let us create an **interference pattern** dependent on this property, and resort to wave collapse to prepare for the expected result:



Exploiting quantum parallelism and interference

Let us start with a simple, auxiliary computation:

$$\begin{aligned} & U_f (|x\rangle \otimes (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)) \\ &= U_f (|x\rangle|0\rangle - |x\rangle|1\rangle) && \{\otimes \text{ distributes over } +\} \\ &= |x\rangle|0 \oplus f(x)\rangle - |x\rangle|1 \oplus f(x)\rangle && \{\text{Defn. of } f\} \\ &= |x\rangle|f(x)\rangle - |x\rangle|\neg f(x)\rangle && \{0 \oplus x = x, 1 \oplus x = \neg x\} \\ &= |x\rangle \otimes (|f(x)\rangle - |\neg f(x)\rangle) && \{\otimes \text{ distributes over } +\} \\ &= \begin{cases} |x\rangle \otimes (|0\rangle - |1\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 0 \\ |x\rangle \otimes (|1\rangle - |0\rangle) & \text{if } f(x) = 1 \end{cases} && \{\text{case distinction}\} \end{aligned}$$

leading to

$$U_f (|x\rangle \otimes (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)) = (-1)^{f(x)} |x\rangle \otimes (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Exploiting quantum parallelism and interference

$$\begin{aligned} & (H \otimes I) U_f (H \otimes I) (|0\rangle \otimes |-\rangle) \\ &= (H \otimes I) U_f (|+\rangle \otimes |-\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (H \otimes I) U_f (|0\rangle + |1\rangle \otimes |-\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (H \otimes I) (U_f |0\rangle \otimes |-\rangle + U_f |1\rangle \otimes |-\rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (H \otimes I) ((-1)^{f(0)} |0\rangle \otimes |-\rangle + (-1)^{f(1)} |1\rangle \otimes |-\rangle) \quad \{\text{Previous slide}\} \\ &= \begin{cases} (H \otimes I)(\pm 1)|+\rangle \otimes |-\rangle & \text{if } f(0) = f(1) \\ (H \otimes I)(\pm 1)|-\rangle \otimes |-\rangle & \text{if } f(0) \neq f(1) \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} (\pm 1)|0\rangle \otimes |-\rangle & \text{if } f(0) = f(1) \\ (\pm 1)|1\rangle \otimes |-\rangle & \text{if } f(0) \neq f(1) \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

To answer the original problem is now **enough to measure the first qubit**:
if it is in state $|0\rangle$, then f is constant.

Lessons learnt

- A typical structure for a quantum algorithm includes three phases:
 1. **State preparation**
(fix initial setting)
 2. **Transformation**
(combination of unitary transformations)
 3. **Measurement**
(projection onto a basis vector associated with a measurement tool)
- This 'toy' algorithm is an illustrative simplification of the first algorithm with **quantum advantage** presented in literature [Deutsch, 1985]
- All other quantum algorithms crucially rely on similar ideas of quantum interference

What can be expected from quantum computation?

- The meaning of **computable** remains the same ...
- ... but the order of **complexity** may change

Factoring in **polynomial** time - $\mathcal{O}((\ln n)^3)$

Peter Shor, *Polynomial-Time Algorithms for Prime Factorization and Discrete Logarithms on a Quantum Computer* (1994)

Which problems a Quantum Computer can solve?

- 1994: Peter Shor's factorization algorithm (exponential speed-up),
- 1996: Grover's unstructured search (quadratic speed-up),
- 2018: Advances in hash collision search, i.e finding two items identical in a long list — serious threat to the basic building blocks of secure electronic commerce.
- 2019: Google announced to have achieved quantum supremacy

Availability of proof of concept hardware

Explosion of emerging applications in several domains: security, finance, optimization, machine learning, ...

Quantum algorithms: Engineering Nature

No magic ...

- A huge amount of information can be **stored** and **manipulated** in the states of a relatively small number of qubits,
- ... but **measurement** will pick up just **one** of the computed solutions and **collapse** the whole (quantum) state

... but engineering:

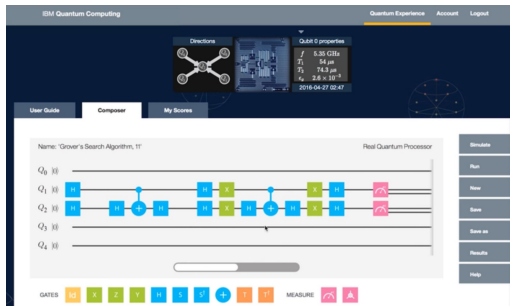
To boost the probability of arriving to a solution by **canceling out** some computational paths and **reinforcing** others,

depending on the **structure of the problem** at hands.

Where exactly do we stand?

NISQ - Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum Hybrid machines:

- the quantum device as a coprocessor
- typically accessed as a service over the cloud



Where exactly do we stand?

- Quantum devices have associated **decoherence times**, which limit the number of quantum operations that can be performed before the results are 'drowned' by noise.
- Each operation performed with quantum gates introduces **accuracy errors** in the system, which **limits the size of quantum circuits** that can be executed reliably.

