

Quantum computing

A quantum computer can be simulated by applying rotations to a unit vector $u \in \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ where \mathbb{C} is the set of complex numbers and n is the number of qubits. The dimension is 2^n because a register with n qubits has 2^n eigenstates. (Recall that an eigenstate is the output of a quantum computer.) Quantum operations are “rotations” because they preserve $|u| = 1$. Mathematically, a rotation of u is equivalent to the product Ru where R is a $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix.

Eigenstates $|j\rangle$ are represented by the following vectors. (Each vector has 2^n elements.)

$$\begin{aligned} |0\rangle &= (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0) \\ |1\rangle &= (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) \\ |2\rangle &= (0, 0, 1, \dots, 0) \\ &\vdots \\ |2^n - 1\rangle &= (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1) \end{aligned}$$

A quantum computer algorithm is a sequence of rotations applied to the initial state $|0\rangle$. (The sequence could be combined into a single rotation by associativity of matrix multiplication.) Let ψ_f be the final state of the quantum computer after all the rotations have been applied. Like any other state, ψ_f is a linear combination of eigenstates.

$$\psi_f = \sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} c_j |j\rangle, \quad c_j \in \mathbb{C}, \quad |\psi_f| = 1$$

The last step is to measure ψ_f and get a result. Measurement rotates ψ_f to an eigenstate $|j\rangle$. The measurement result is $|j\rangle$. The probability P_j of getting a specific result $|j\rangle$ is

$$P_j = |c_j|^2 = c_j c_j^*$$

Note that if ψ_f is already an eigenstate then no rotation occurs. (The probability of observing a different eigenstate is zero.) Since the measurement result is always an eigenstate, the coefficients c_j cannot be observed. However, the same calculation can be run multiple times to obtain a probability distribution of results. The probability distribution is an estimate of $|c_j|^2$ for each $|j\rangle$ in ψ_f .

Unlike a real quantum computer, in a simulation the final state ψ_f , or any other state, is available for inspection. Hence there is no need to simulate the measurement process. The probability distribution of the result can be computed directly as

$$P = \psi_f \psi_f^*$$

where $\psi_f \psi_f^*$ is the Hadamard (element-wise) product of vector ψ_f and its complex conjugate. Result P is a vector such that P_j is the probability of eigenstate $|j\rangle$ and

$$\sum_{j=0}^{2^n-1} P_j = 1$$

Note: Eigenmath index numbering begins with 1 hence $P[1]$ is the probability of $|0\rangle$, $P[2]$ is the probability of $|1\rangle$, etc.

The Eigenmath function `rotate(u, s, k, \dots)` rotates vector u and returns the result. Vector u is required to have 2^n elements where n is an integer from 1 to 15. Arguments s, k, \dots are a sequence of rotation codes where s is an upper case letter and k is a qubit number from 0 to $n - 1$. Rotations are evaluated from left to right. The available rotation codes are

C, k	Control prefix
H, k	Hadamard
P, k, ϕ	Phase modifier (use $\phi = \frac{1}{4}\pi$ for T rotation)
Q, k	Quantum Fourier transform
V, k	Inverse quantum Fourier transform
W, k, j	Swap bits
X, k	Pauli X
Y, k	Pauli Y
Z, k	Pauli Z

Control prefix C, k modifies the next rotation code so that it is a controlled rotation with k as the control qubit. Use two or more prefixes to specify multiple control qubits. For example, C, k, C, j, X, m is a Toffoli rotation. Fourier rotations Q, k and V, k are applied to qubits 0 through k . (Q and V ignore any control prefix.)

List of `rotate(u, s, k, \dots)` error codes:

- 1 Argument u is not a vector or does not have 2^n elements where $n = 1, 2, \dots, 15$.
- 2 Unexpected end of argument list (i.e., missing argument).
- 3 Bit number format error or range error.
- 4 Unknown rotation code.

Example: Verify the following truth table for quantum operator CNOT where qubit 0 is the control and qubit 1 is the target. (Target is inverted when control is set.)

Target	Control	Output
0	0	00
0	1	11
1	0	10
1	1	01

```
U(psi) = rotate(psi,C,0,X,1) -- CNOT, control 0, target 1
```

```
ket00 = (1,0,0,0)
ket01 = (0,1,0,0)
ket10 = (0,0,1,0)
```

```
ket11 = (0,0,0,1)
```

```
U(ket00) == ket00
```

```
U(ket01) == ket11
```

```
U(ket10) == ket10
```

```
U(ket11) == ket01
```

Here are some useful Eigenmath code snippets for setting up a simulation and computing the result.

1. Initialize $\psi = |0\rangle$.

```
n = 4          -- number of qubits (example)
```

```
N = 2^n        -- number of eigenstates
```

```
psi = zero(N)
```

```
psi[1] = 1
```

2. Compute the probability distribution for state ψ .

```
P = psi conj(psi)
```

Hence

$P[1]$ = probability that $|0\rangle$ will be the result

$P[2]$ = probability that $|1\rangle$ will be the result

$P[3]$ = probability that $|2\rangle$ will be the result

\vdots

$P[N]$ = probability that $|N - 1\rangle$ will be the result

3. (Only for macOS) Draw a probability distribution.

```
xrange = (0,N)
```

```
yrange = (0,1)
```

```
draw(P[ceiling(x)],x)
```

4. Compute an expectation value.

```
sum(k,1,N, (k - 1) P[k])
```

5. Make the high order qubit “don’t care.”

```
for(k,1,N/2, P[k] = P[k] + P[k + N/2])
```

Hence for $N = 16$

$P[1]$ = probability that the result will be $|0\rangle$ or $|8\rangle$

$P[2]$ = probability that the result will be $|1\rangle$ or $|9\rangle$

$P[3]$ = probability that the result will be $|2\rangle$ or $|10\rangle$

\vdots

$P[8]$ = probability that the result will be $|7\rangle$ or $|15\rangle$