

6. Quantum Algorithms for Applications

Quantum Computing



**UNIVERSITÀ
DI PARMA**

Finding the period of a periodic function

FT: from times to frequencies \Rightarrow Determine the period of a periodic function $f(x)$!

Classical computer : we need to **evaluate** $f(x)$ **many times**, until we find two identical values

Quantum computer:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{a=0}^{N-1} |a\rangle \otimes |0\rangle \rightarrow |\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{a=0}^{N-1} |a\rangle \otimes |f(a)\rangle$$

This register encodes all the value of $f(a)$, correlated with the inputs a . Hence, the information on the period is present in such a superposition state.

Measure the second register and find $f(a_0)$, i.e.

$$|I \otimes f(a_0)\rangle \langle I \otimes f(a_0)| \psi_0\rangle = [|a_0\rangle + |a_0 + T\rangle + |a_0 + 2T\rangle + \dots] \otimes |f(a_0)\rangle$$

The first register is therefore projected onto the state $|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{T}{N}} \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{T}-1} |a_0 + mT\rangle$ $0 \leq a_0 \leq T - 1$

$$\text{where } b = lN/T \quad U_{QFT} |\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{T}{N}} \sum_{m=0}^{\frac{N}{T}-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{b=0}^{N-1} e^{i2\pi(a_0+mT)b/N} |b\rangle \xrightarrow{U_{QFT}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{l=0}^{T-1} e^{i2\pi a_0 l/T} |lN/T\rangle$$

Finding the period of a periodic function

$$U_{QFT}|\psi\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{T}{N}} \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{b=0}^{N-1} e^{i2\pi(a_0+mT)b/N} |b\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{l=0}^{T-1} e^{i2\pi a_0 l/T} |lN/T\rangle$$

If we measure the first register, we get one of the values

$$b = \frac{lN}{T} \quad l = 0, \dots, T-1$$

If l and T are relatively prime, the simplified fraction gives the value of T

$$\frac{b}{N} = \frac{l}{T}$$

What happens if we use the QFT to find the period of a periodic function in which a value of f appears twice in a single period?

Shor's algorithm

Problem: finding prime factors of a given number N

We select a random integer $y < N$ relatively prime to N . (If not, we have already found a factor of N). We then define

$$f(a) = y^a \bmod N$$

Note that $f(0) = 1$. We seek the smallest subsequent T such that $f(T) = 1$:

$$f(T) = y^T \bmod N = 1$$

T is the period of f . Having T , with some algebra we determine a factor of N :

$$(y^T - 1) \bmod N = 0$$

$$\text{Ex: } 2^0 \bmod 15 = 1$$

$$(y^{T/2} + 1)(y^{T/2} - 1) \bmod N = 0$$

$$2^1 \bmod 15 = 2$$

$$2^2 \bmod 15 = 4$$

$$2^3 \bmod 15 = 8$$

$$2^4 \bmod 15 = 1$$

$$\begin{array}{l} T = 4 \\ y^{T/2} + 1 = 5 \\ y^{T/2} - 1 = 3 \end{array}$$

$$(y^{T/2} + 1)(y^{T/2} - 1) = \lambda N$$

For some integer λ

If T is not even, we must try again with a different value of y

Shor's algorithm: quantum advantage

Best known classical algorithm for factoring a large n -bit number N is **super-polynomial** in n (i.e. not bounded by any polynomial)

The hard step is the **FT**, which can be performed in a **polynomial (rather than exponential)** time on a quantum computer.

Hence, factoring using a quantum processor can also be done in a polynomial time.

Shor's algorithm: implementation

Use **quantum phase estimation** on the unitary operator

$$U|y\rangle = |ay \bmod N\rangle$$

$$a = 3, N = 14$$

$$T = 6$$

Repeated applications of U
(each time we multiply by $a \bmod N$)

$$\begin{aligned} U|1\rangle &= |3\rangle \\ U^2|1\rangle &= |9\rangle \\ U^3|1\rangle &= |13\rangle \\ U^4|1\rangle &= |11\rangle \\ U^5|1\rangle &= |5\rangle \\ U^6|1\rangle &= |1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

A superposition of the states in this cycle
is an eigenstate of U with eigenvalue 1

$$|\xi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [|1\rangle + |3\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle + |11\rangle + |5\rangle]$$

$$U|\xi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [|3\rangle + |9\rangle + |13\rangle + |11\rangle + |5\rangle + |1\rangle] = |\xi_0\rangle$$

$$|\xi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} |a^k \bmod N\rangle$$

$$|\xi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} e^{-\frac{2\pi i k}{T}} |a^k \bmod N\rangle \quad |\xi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [|1\rangle + e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{6}} |3\rangle + e^{-\frac{4\pi i}{6}} |9\rangle + e^{-\frac{6\pi i}{6}} |13\rangle + e^{-\frac{8\pi i}{6}} |11\rangle + e^{-\frac{10\pi i}{6}} |5\rangle]$$

$$U|\xi_1\rangle = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{T}} |\xi_1\rangle$$

$$U|\xi_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [|3\rangle + e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{6}} |9\rangle + e^{-\frac{4\pi i}{6}} |13\rangle + e^{-\frac{6\pi i}{6}} |11\rangle + e^{-\frac{8\pi i}{6}} |5\rangle + e^{-\frac{10\pi i}{6}} |1\rangle]$$

$$= e^{\frac{2\pi i}{6}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} [e^{-\frac{2\pi i}{6}} |3\rangle + e^{-\frac{4\pi i}{6}} |9\rangle + e^{-\frac{6\pi i}{6}} |13\rangle + e^{-\frac{8\pi i}{6}} |11\rangle + e^{-\frac{10\pi i}{6}} |5\rangle + e^{-\frac{12\pi i}{6}} |1\rangle] = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{6}} |\xi_1\rangle$$

Shor's algorithm: implementation

$$|\xi_s\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} e^{-\frac{2\pi i s k}{T}} |a^k \bmod N\rangle \quad U|\xi_s\rangle = e^{\frac{2\pi i s}{T}} |\xi_s\rangle$$

We thus get a unique eigenstate for each integer $s \in [0, T - 1]$

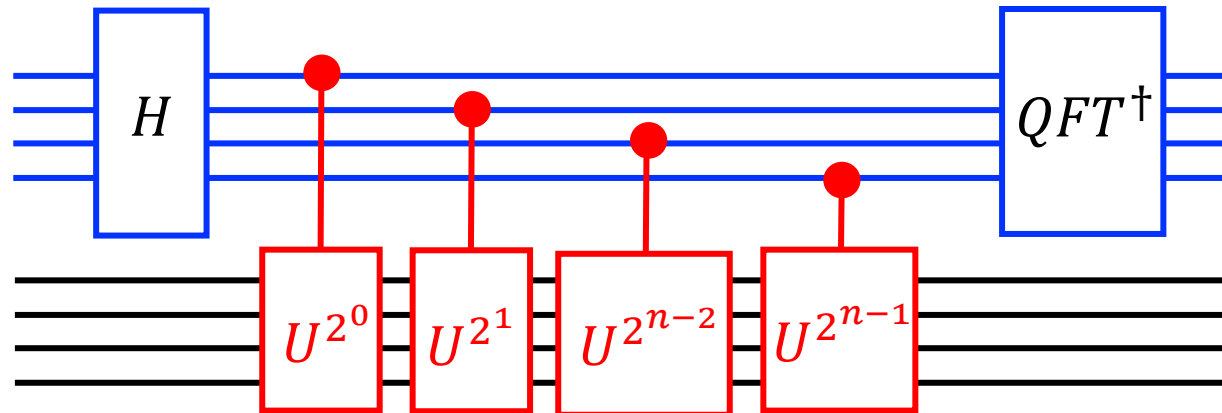
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} \sum_{s=0}^{T-1} |\xi_s\rangle = |1\rangle$$

The computational basis state $|1\rangle$ is a superposition of these eigenstates.



Hence by **QPE** we will measure a phase s/T for a random integer $s \in [0, T - 1]$

$$\begin{aligned} |1\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} [|\xi_0\rangle + |\xi_1\rangle \\ &\quad + \dots + |\xi_{T-1}\rangle] \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{\sqrt{T}} [|2^n 1/T\rangle + |2^n 2/T\rangle \\ &\quad + \dots + |2^n (T - 1)/T\rangle] \end{aligned}$$

Solving linear systems (HHL)

PROBLEM: given $A \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N}$ $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ find $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N$ $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$

The system is s -sparse if A has at most s non-zero entries per rows or column.

On a classical computer we can solve an s -sparse system of size N in $O(Nsk \log(1/\epsilon))$ time by the conjugate gradient method, being ϵ the error of the approximation and k the condition number of the system.

HHL [A. W. Harrow, A. Hassidim, S. Lloyd, Phys. Rev. Lett. **103**, 150502 (2009)] algorithm estimates the solution in $O(\log(N)s^2k^2/\epsilon)$ time

- **Exponential advantage**
- We do not find the full solution, but only **approximate** functions of the solution vector
- We assume A Hermitian and efficient oracles for loading the data

Map to quantum states

$$\vec{x} \rightarrow |x\rangle$$

$$\vec{b} \rightarrow |b\rangle$$

\vec{x}, \vec{b} must be normalized

$$A|x\rangle = |b\rangle$$

$$A = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \lambda_j |u_j\rangle\langle u_j| \quad \lambda_j \in \mathbb{R}$$

Spectral decomposition

$$A^{-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \lambda_j^{-1} |u_j\rangle\langle u_j|$$

$$|b\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |u_j\rangle \quad b_j \in \mathbb{C}$$

Representation of $|b\rangle$
on A eigenbasis.

$$|x\rangle = A^{-1}|b\rangle = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \lambda_j^{-1} b_j |u_j\rangle$$

Implicit normalisation

HHL algorithm

3 registers: $\begin{cases} n_l: \text{ Binary representation of the eigenvalues of } A \\ n_b: \text{ Vector solution. Hereafter } N = 2^{n_b}. \\ n_a: \text{ Ancilla qubit} \end{cases}$

1. Load the data $|b\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^N$ $|0\rangle_{n_b} \rightarrow |b\rangle_{n_b}$

2. Apply QPE to $U = e^{-iAt} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{-i\lambda_j t} |u_j\rangle\langle u_j|$ $\longrightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |\lambda_j\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b}$

3. Add an ancilla qubit and apply a rotation conditioned on $|\lambda_j\rangle$ $\longrightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |\lambda_j\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{c^2}{\lambda_j^2}} |0\rangle + \frac{c}{\lambda_j} |1\rangle \right)$

4. Apply QPE^\dagger . Neglecting possible errors in the QPE $\longrightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |0\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{c^2}{\lambda_j^2}} |0\rangle + \frac{c}{\lambda_j} |1\rangle \right)$


5. Measure ancilla. If we find $|1\rangle$ $\longrightarrow \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} \frac{b_j}{\lambda_j} |0\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b}$ Apart from a normalization

Normalisation
constant

which corresponds (apart from a factor) to the solution.

QPE within HHL

$$QPE(U, |0\rangle_n, |\psi\rangle_m) = |\tilde{\theta}\rangle_n |\psi\rangle_m$$



$$U|\psi\rangle_m = e^{i2\pi\theta} |\psi\rangle_m$$

Binary approximation to $2^n\theta$

Within HHL

$$U = e^{iAt} = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} e^{i\lambda_j t} |u_j\rangle\langle u_j|$$

$$QPE(e^{iAt}, |0\rangle_{n_l}, |u_j\rangle_{n_b}) = |\tilde{\lambda}_j\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b} \quad \tilde{\lambda}_j \text{ is a } n_l\text{-bit binary approximation to } 2^{n_l} \frac{\lambda_j t}{2\pi}$$

If λ_j can be represented exactly with n_l bits

$$QPE\left(e^{iA2\pi}, \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |0\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b}\right) = \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} b_j |\lambda_j\rangle_{n_l} |u_j\rangle_{n_b}$$

Otherwise we obtain an approximation

Example: HHL on 4 qubits

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1/3 \\ -1/3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad |b\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$n_b = 1$ to represent $|b\rangle$ and then the solution
 $n_l = 2$ qubits to store the eigenvalues of A
 $n_a = 1$ to store if the conditional rotation (and hence the algorithm) was successful

QPE gives a binary approximation (on an n_l -bit string) to $2^{n_l} \frac{\lambda_j t}{2\pi}$. Hence, if we set $t = 2\pi \frac{3}{8}$ we get

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{2}{3} \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\frac{\lambda_1 t}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{4} \quad \downarrow \quad |01\rangle_{n_l}$$

$$\frac{\lambda_2 t}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \downarrow \quad |10\rangle_{n_l}$$

Rescaled eigenvalues. We choose this value of t to simplify the problem and get the exact result from QPE .

Eigenvectors of A : $|u_1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad |u_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$|b\rangle = |0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|u_1\rangle + |u_2\rangle)$$

Note that we do not need to know eigenvalues and eigenvectors [$\mathcal{O}(N)$ problem]

Example: HHL on 4 qubits

Initial state $|\psi\rangle = |0\rangle_{n_l} |0\rangle_{n_b} |0\rangle_a = |0\rangle_{n_l} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|u_1\rangle_{n_b} + |u_2\rangle_{n_b}) |0\rangle_a$

QPE

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|01\rangle_{n_l} |u_1\rangle_{n_b} + |10\rangle_{n_l} |u_2\rangle_{n_b}) |0\rangle_a$$

Conditioned rotation of the ancilla ($c = 3/8$ to compensate rescaling of the eigenvalues)

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |01\rangle_{n_l} |u_1\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{(3/8)^2}{(1/4)^2}} |0\rangle_a + \frac{(3/8)}{(1/4)} |1\rangle_a \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |10\rangle_{n_l} |u_2\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{(3/8)^2}{(1/2)^2}} |0\rangle_a + \frac{(3/8)}{(1/2)} |1\rangle_a \right)$$

QPE^\dagger

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |00\rangle_{n_l} |u_1\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{9}{4}} |0\rangle_a + \frac{3}{2} |1\rangle_a \right) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |00\rangle_{n_l} |u_2\rangle_{n_b} \left(\sqrt{1 - \frac{9}{16}} |0\rangle_a + \frac{3}{4} |1\rangle_a \right)$$

Project onto $|1\rangle_a$

$$\propto |00\rangle_{n_l} (2|u_1\rangle_{n_b} + |u_2\rangle_{n_b}) |1\rangle_a = |00\rangle_{n_l} (3|0\rangle_{n_b} + |1\rangle_{n_b}) |1\rangle_a \quad \text{Which is the correct solution}$$

Hybrid algorithms: VQE

Find the **minimum or maximum eigenvalue** is important in many problems: e.g. determine the results of internet search engines, designing new materials and drugs, calculating physical properties.

This problem is very hard for a classical computer.

QPE: exponential speed-up, but to estimate the eigenvalue with precision ϵ it requires $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)$ noiseless operations, during which the QC must remain **coherent**.

The hybrid algorithm Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE) provides an interesting alternative, offering an exponential speedup in evaluating the expectation value of a given Hamiltonian, compared to classical exact diagonalization.

The algorithm is **hybrid** because it combines a quantum and a classical part. This **reduces the coherence requirements** and allows us to implement it efficiently on NISQs.

Variational theorem

We consider a Hamiltonian H and its spectral decomposition:

$$H = \sum_k E_k |\phi_k\rangle\langle\phi_k|$$

The expectation value of H on an arbitrary state $|\psi\rangle$ is given by $\langle H \rangle_\psi = \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle$

Which can be re-written as $\langle H \rangle_\psi = \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle = \sum_k E_k \langle \psi | \phi_k \rangle \langle \phi_k | \psi \rangle = \sum_k E_k |\langle \phi_k | \psi \rangle|^2$

Hence, the expectation value of H on a given state $|\psi\rangle$ is a linear combination of its eigenvalues with **POSITIVE** weights.

$$E_{min} \leq \langle H \rangle_\psi = \sum_k E_k |\langle \phi_k | \psi \rangle|^2$$

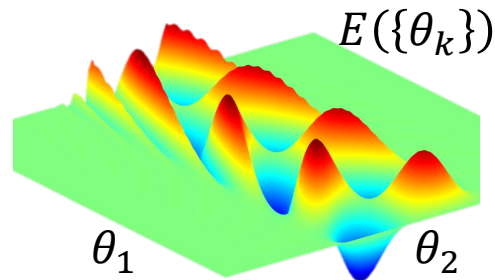
We can use this result to obtain an **approximation** of the **ground state** of a given Hamiltonian

And this value is minimized by $|\psi_{min}\rangle$ such that $H|\psi_{min}\rangle = E_{min}|\psi_{min}\rangle$

Variational Quantum Eigensolver

1. Generate a variational ansatz depending on a set of parameters $|\psi(\{\theta_k\})\rangle$
2. Evaluate the expectation value of the Hamiltonian as a linear combination of Pauli products (local measurements)

3. Combine measurement results and optimize using a classical algorithm to explore the energy surface



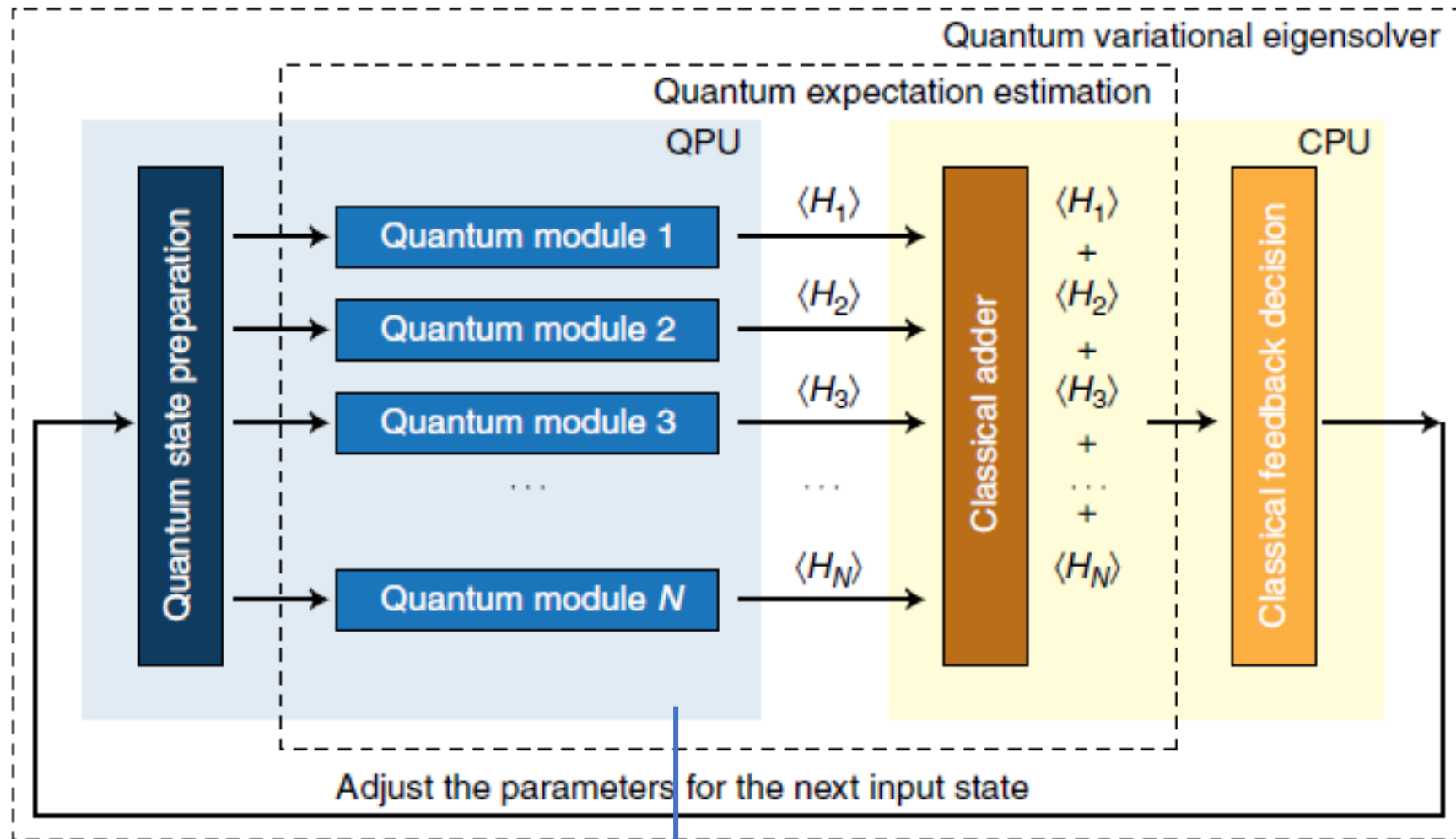
Repeat until
convergence
(energy
variation
below a
threshold)

$$E(\{\theta_k\}) = \frac{\langle \psi(\{\theta_k\}) | H | \psi(\{\theta_k\}) \rangle}{\langle \psi(\{\theta_k\}) | \psi(\{\theta_k\}) \rangle} = \sum_j \frac{\langle \psi(\{\theta_k\}) | H_j | \psi(\{\theta_k\}) \rangle}{\langle \psi(\{\theta_k\}) | \psi(\{\theta_k\}) \rangle}$$

Any hermitian Hamiltonian can be expressed as a **combination of tensor products of Paulis**.

Since the expectation value is linear, we can evaluate all these terms separately, by **local measurements** on each qubit performed in parallel.

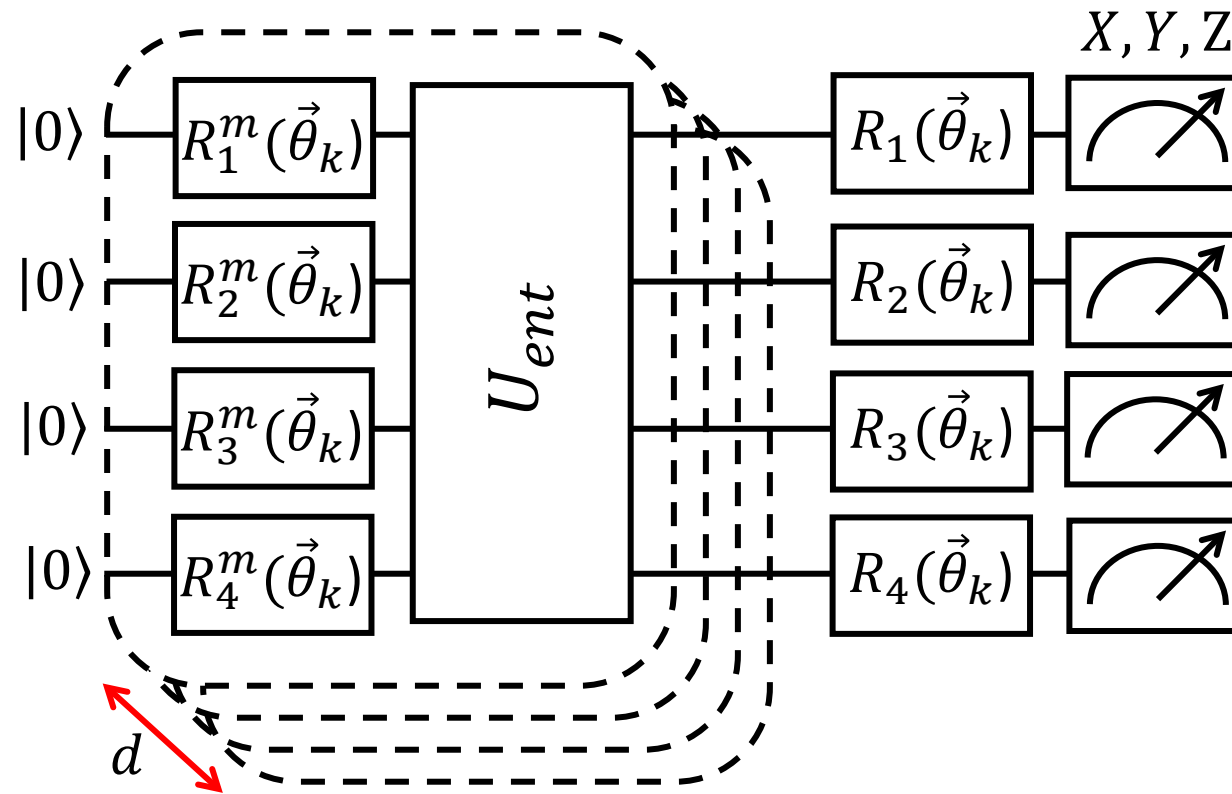
Variational Quantum Eigensolver



A. Peruzzo et al., Nature Commun. 5, 4213 (2014)

$$H = H_1 + H_2 + \dots + H_N \Rightarrow \langle H \rangle = \langle H_1 \rangle + \langle H_2 \rangle + \dots + \langle H_N \rangle$$

Preparation of the variational ansatz



Generate ansatz $|\psi(\{\theta_k\})\rangle$

Uses layers of rotations (depending on some parameters) and entangling gates to generate the variational ansatz

A. Kandala et al., Nature **242**, 549 (2017)

Example: VQE on a spin dimer

Spin systems are an **ideal test-bed** for a quantum hardware

$$H = J_x X_1 X_2 + J_y Y_1 Y_2 + J_z Z_1 Z_2 + b(Z_1 + Z_2)$$

The Hamiltonian (and hence its expectation value) is already a sum of products of Paulis

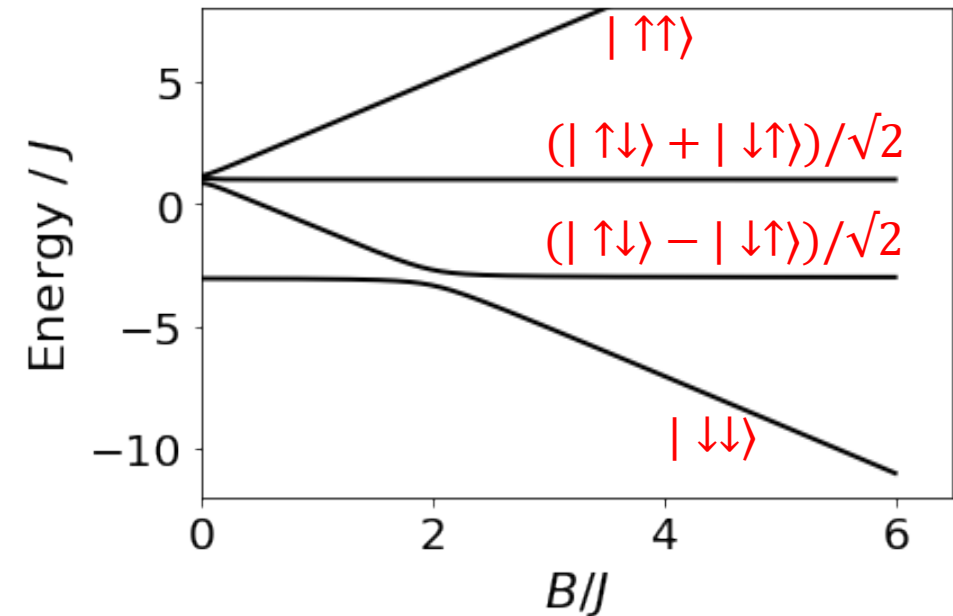
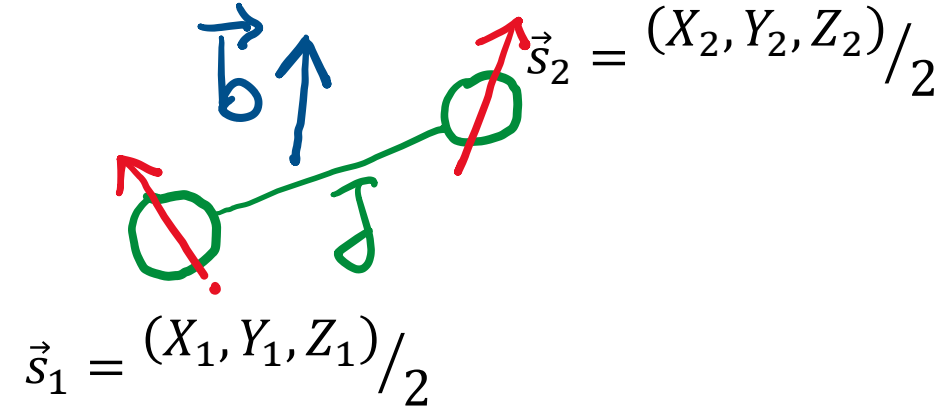
$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | H | \psi \rangle &= J_x \langle \psi | X_1 X_2 | \psi \rangle + J_y \langle \psi | Y_1 Y_2 | \psi \rangle + J_z \langle \psi | Z_1 Z_2 | \psi \rangle \\ &+ b \langle \psi | Z_1 | \psi \rangle + b \langle \psi | Z_2 | \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

In this simple example we can compare the solution by exact diagonalization with that found using the VQE algorithm and calculate the final **fidelity** (i.e. 'closeness' of two states)

$$\mathcal{F} = |\langle \psi_0 | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle|$$

We can also compute some **observables** (e.g. magnetization) on the **final ground state**

$$\langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | M_z | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle = \langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | (Z_1 + Z_2) | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle / 2$$



Example: VQE on a spin dimer

$$\langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | M_Z | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle = \langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | (Z_1 + Z_2) | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle / 2$$

$$|\psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\})\rangle = \alpha_{00}|00\rangle + \alpha_{01}|01\rangle + \alpha_{10}|10\rangle + \alpha_{11}|11\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | (Z_1 + Z_2) | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle &= \langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | Z_1 | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle + \langle \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) | Z_2 | \psi(\{\tilde{\theta}_k\}) \rangle \\ &= |\alpha_{00}|^2 \langle 00 | Z_1 | 00 \rangle + |\alpha_{01}|^2 \langle 01 | Z_1 | 01 \rangle + |\alpha_{10}|^2 \langle 10 | Z_1 | 10 \rangle + |\alpha_{11}|^2 \langle 11 | Z_1 | 11 \rangle \\ &\quad + |\alpha_{00}|^2 \langle 00 | Z_2 | 00 \rangle + |\alpha_{01}|^2 \langle 01 | Z_2 | 01 \rangle + |\alpha_{10}|^2 \langle 10 | Z_2 | 10 \rangle + |\alpha_{11}|^2 \langle 11 | Z_2 | 11 \rangle \\ &= |\alpha_{00}|^2 \langle 0 | Z_1 | 0 \rangle + |\alpha_{01}|^2 \langle 0 | Z_1 | 0 \rangle + |\alpha_{10}|^2 \langle 1 | Z_1 | 1 \rangle + |\alpha_{11}|^2 \langle 1 | Z_1 | 1 \rangle \\ &\quad + |\alpha_{00}|^2 \langle 0 | Z_2 | 0 \rangle + |\alpha_{01}|^2 \langle 1 | Z_2 | 1 \rangle + |\alpha_{10}|^2 \langle 0 | Z_2 | 0 \rangle + |\alpha_{11}|^2 \langle 1 | Z_2 | 1 \rangle \\ &= |\alpha_{00}|^2 + |\alpha_{01}|^2 - |\alpha_{10}|^2 - |\alpha_{11}|^2 + |\alpha_{00}|^2 - |\alpha_{01}|^2 + |\alpha_{10}|^2 - |\alpha_{11}|^2 \\ &= 2(|\alpha_{00}|^2 - |\alpha_{11}|^2) \end{aligned}$$

Example: spin dimer

If $J_x = J_y = J_z = J$ (isotropic exchange interaction) the solution is analytic, but it requires a bit of Quantum Mechanics.

We can rewrite $H = H_1 + H_2$, with

$$H_1 = J(X_1X_2 + Y_1Y_2 + Z_1Z_2) = 2J \vec{s}_1 \cdot \vec{s}_2 = 2J(S^2 - s_1^2 - s_2^2)$$

$$H_2 = b(Z_1 + Z_2) = 2b S_z$$

$$[H_1, H_2] = 0 \quad S^2 |S, M\rangle = S(S+1) |S, M\rangle$$

$$S_z |S, M\rangle = M |S, M\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} H_1 |S, M\rangle &= 2J[S(S+1) - s_1(s_1+1) - s_2(s_2+1)] |S, M\rangle \\ &= 2J[S(S+1) - 3/2] |S, M\rangle \end{aligned}$$

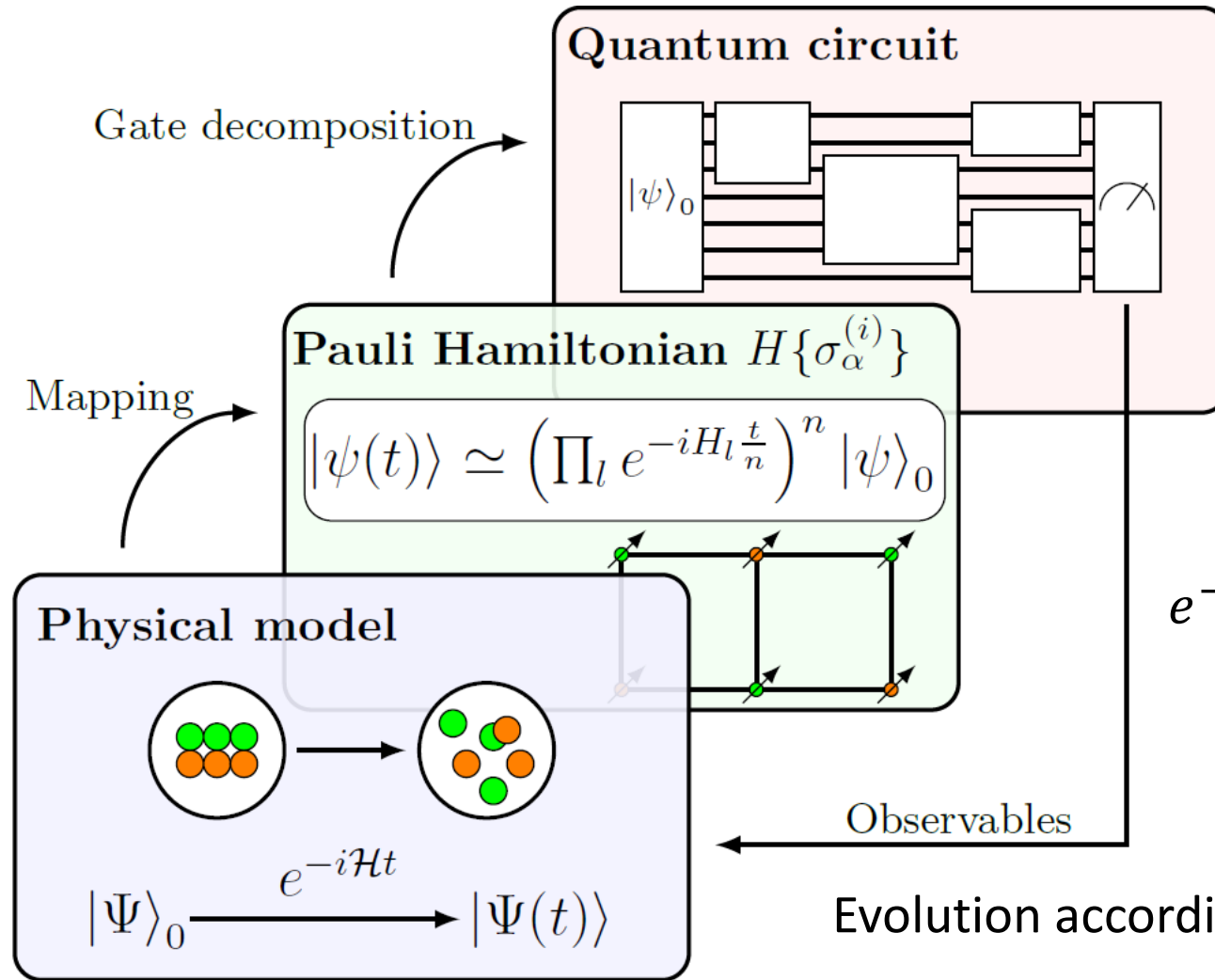
$$(H_1 + H_2) |S, M\rangle = [2bM + 2JS(S+1) - 3J] |S, M\rangle$$

$$H_2 |S, M\rangle = 2bM |S, M\rangle$$

{	$ S = 1, M = 1\rangle$	$J + 2b$	\updownarrow split by b Two multiplets separated by $4J$
	$ S = 1, M = 0\rangle$	J	
	$ S = 1, M = -1\rangle$	$J - 2b$	
	$ S = 0\rangle$	$-3J$	

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{S} &= \vec{s}_1 + \vec{s}_2 \\ s_1 &= s_2 = 1/2 \\ S &= |s_1 - s_2|, \dots, s_1 + s_2 \\ M &= -S, \dots, S \end{aligned}$$

Quantum Simulation



Compute **observables**
 $A(t) = \langle \psi(t) | A | \psi(t) \rangle$

Suzuki-Trotter approximation

$$e^{-it/\hbar \sum_l H_l} |\psi(0)\rangle \approx \left(\prod_l e^{-\frac{iH_l t}{\hbar n}} \right)^n |\psi(0)\rangle$$

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_l H_l \quad [H_l, H_k] \neq 0$$

Evolution according to target Hamiltonian \mathcal{H}

S. Lloyd, Science **273**, 1073 (1996)

F. Tacchino et al., <https://arxiv.org/pdf/1907.03505.pdf> Adv. Quant. Technol. 1900052 (2019)

Optimizing the digitalization

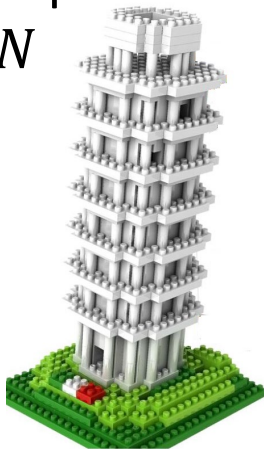
In the **NISQ** (noisy-intermediate scale quantum computing) era
each operation is error-prone

By increasing the circuit depth we increase the error probability.

Trade-off

Targeted error mitigation strategies

N Trotter steps
 $\tau = t/N$



Coarse discretization

$$\tau' < \tau$$

$$N' > N$$



Good simulation

$$\tau'' < \tau'$$

$$N'' > N'$$



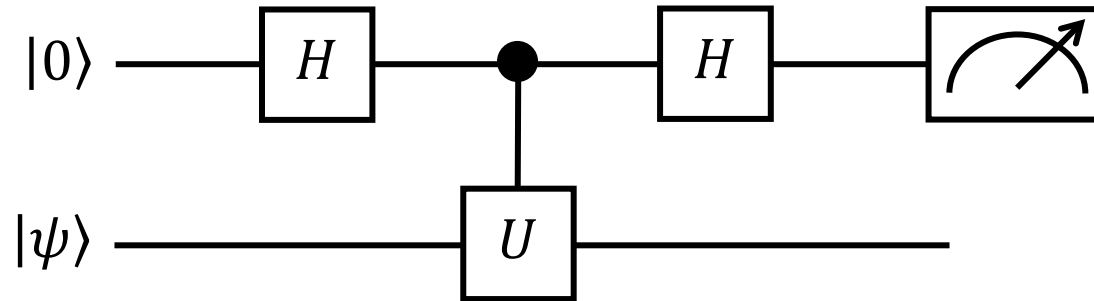
Too many
noisy gates



Simulator fails

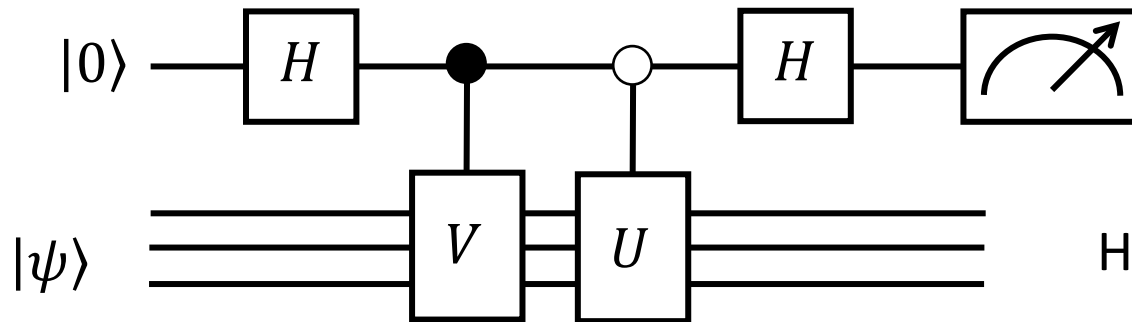
Quantum Simulation: Hadamard test

Compute observables and/or correlation functions using an ancilla for the Hadamard test:



$$P_0 - P_1 = \text{Re}\langle U \rangle_\psi$$

Check this identity



$$P_0 - P_1 = \text{Re}\langle U^\dagger V \rangle_\psi$$

How can you compute the imaginary part $\text{Im}\langle U \rangle_\psi$?

R. Somma et al., Phys. Rev A **65**, 042323 (2002).

Quantum Simulation: correlation functions

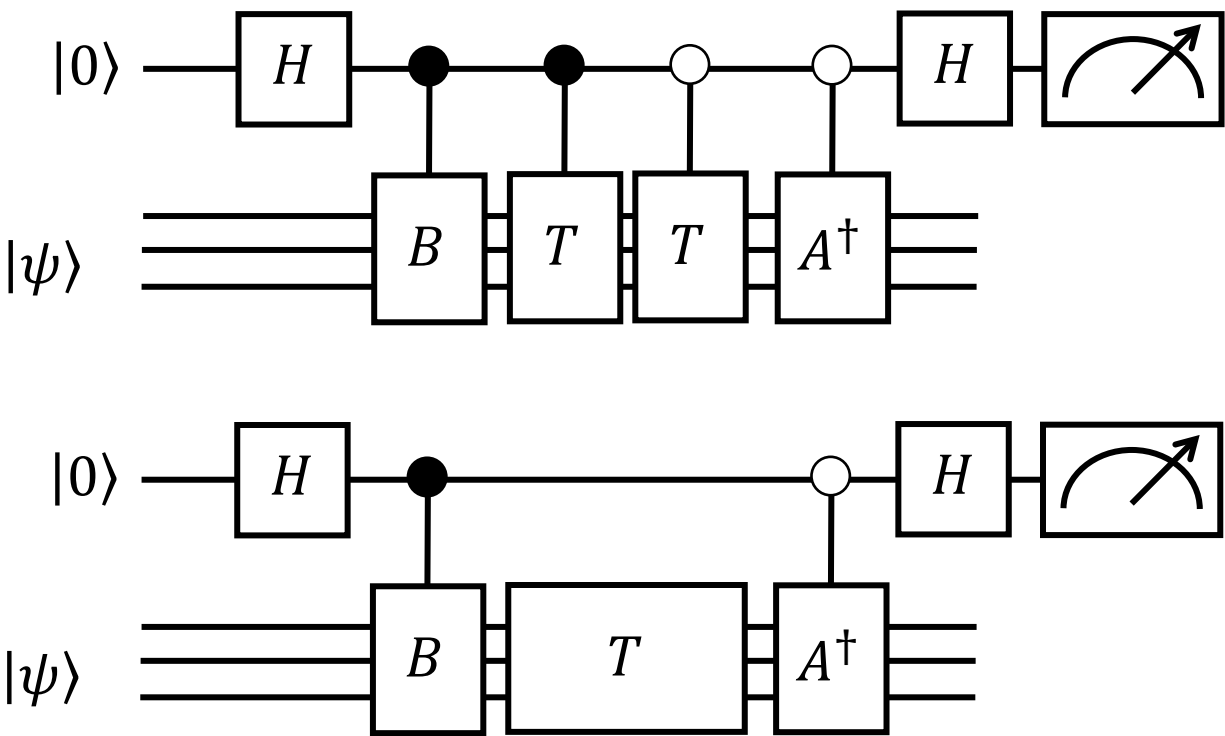
It is often useful in Physics to compute dynamical **correlation functions**, i.e.

$$\langle \psi | A(t) B(0) | \psi \rangle = \langle \psi | T^\dagger A T B | \psi \rangle$$

As before, with $U^\dagger = T^\dagger A$ and $V = T B$

$$T = e^{-i\mathcal{H}t}$$

$$P_0 - P_1 = \text{Re} \langle A(t) B \rangle_\psi$$



R. Somma et al., Phys. Rev A **65**, 042323 (2002).
 A. Chiesa et al., Nature Phys. **15**, 455 (2019).

Quantum Approximate Optimization

Goal: minimize or maximize a function $C(x)$ subject to $x \in S$

Cost, distance, length of a trip,
weight, processing time, energy
consumption, number of objects

Profit, yield, efficiency, utility,
capacity, number of results

Binary combinatorial problems

n bit strings $x \in \{0,1\}^n$

$x_i \in \{0,1\}$ $w_{(Q,\bar{Q})} \in \mathbb{R}$

$$C(x) = \sum_{(Q,\bar{Q}) \subset [n]} w_{(Q,\bar{Q})} \prod_{i \in Q} x_i \prod_{j \in \bar{Q}} (1 - x_j)$$

Map to diagonal Hamiltonian in the computational basis $H = \sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} C(x) |x\rangle\langle x|$ $|x\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$

If $C(x)$ only has at most weight k terms (terms with at most k bits), this diagonal Hamiltonian is the sum of weight k Z operators.

Quantum Approximate Optimization

$$H = \sum_{(Q, \bar{Q}) \subset [n]} w_{(Q, \bar{Q})} \frac{1}{2^{|Q|+|\bar{Q}|}} \prod_{i \in Q} (1 - Z_i) \prod_{j \in \bar{Q}} (1 - Z_j)$$

$$H = \sum_{k=0}^m C_k$$

We assume only a m (polynomial in n) w are non-zero

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \quad \left| \psi_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \right\rangle = e^{-i\beta_p B} e^{-i\gamma_p H} \dots e^{-i\beta_1 B} e^{-i\gamma_1 H} |+\rangle^n$$

Ansatz obtained by combining p alternating evolutions of H and B

$$F_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) = \left\langle \psi_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \left| H \right| \psi_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \right\rangle = \sum_k \left\langle \psi_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \left| C_k \right| \psi_p(\vec{\gamma}, \vec{\beta}) \right\rangle$$

To be minimized, as in VQE

E. Farhi, J. Goldstone, and S. Gutmann, [arXiv:1411.4028](https://arxiv.org/abs/1411.4028) (2014)

Quantum Image Processing

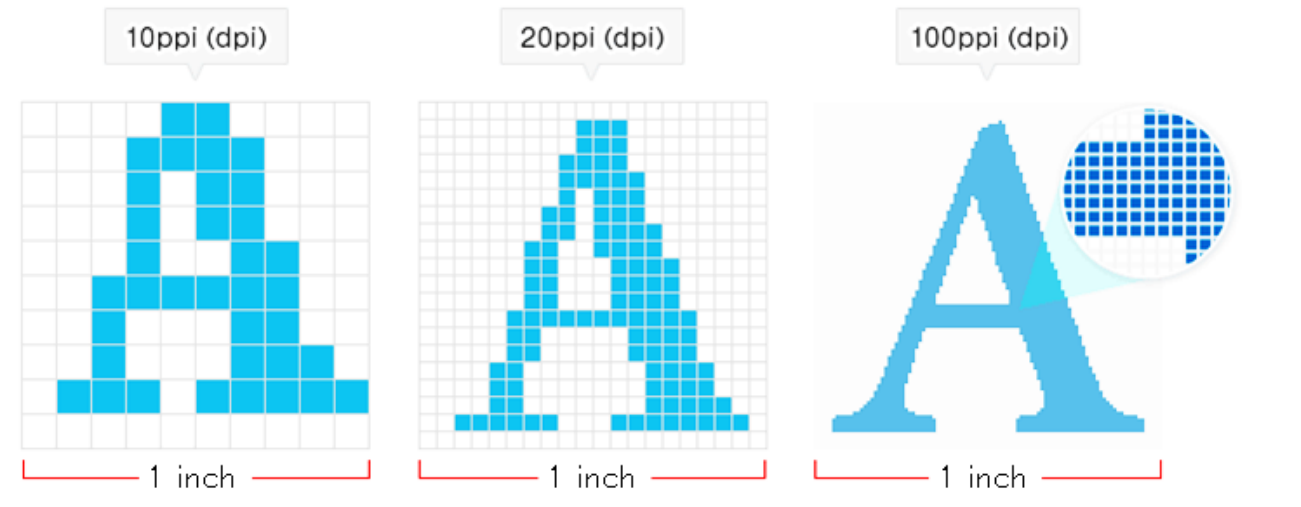
Various applications:

- Visual recognition
- Video analysis
- Optical character recognition (OCR)
- Movement detection

We focus on:

- Image encoding
- Edge detection

- Efficiency decreases by:
 - Increasing image size
 - Increasing image resolution (dpi: dots per inch, ppi: pixels per inch)



Flexible Representation of Quantum Images

$$|I(\theta)\rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{i=0}^{2^{2n}-1} (\cos \theta_i |0\rangle + \sin \theta_i |1\rangle) \otimes |i\rangle$$
$$\theta_i \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right], i = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{2n} - 1$$

- Created for black and white images is easily generalised for color images.

Requirements:

$2n + 1$ qubits are needed to encode a square $2^n \times 2^n$ gray tones image. Gray tones must be encoded from 0 to $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

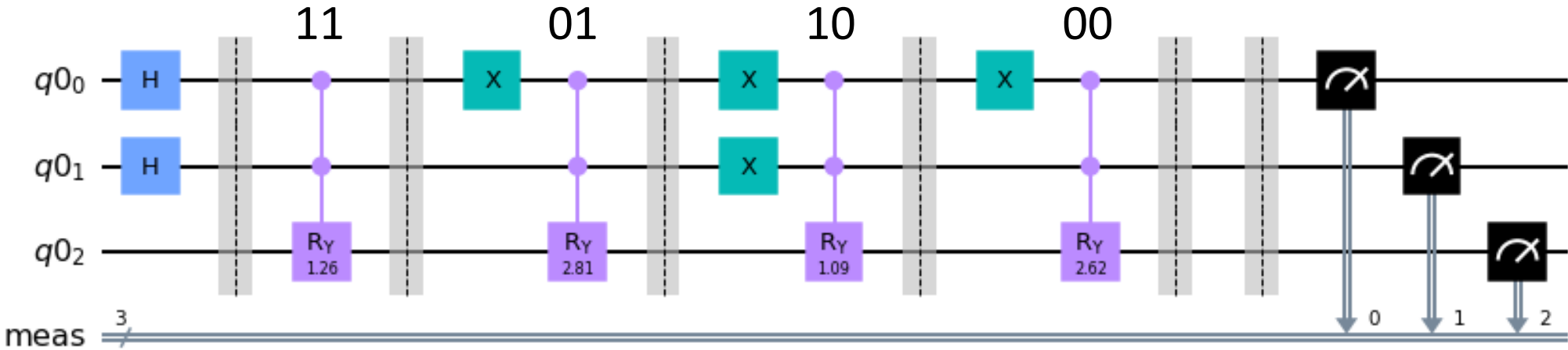
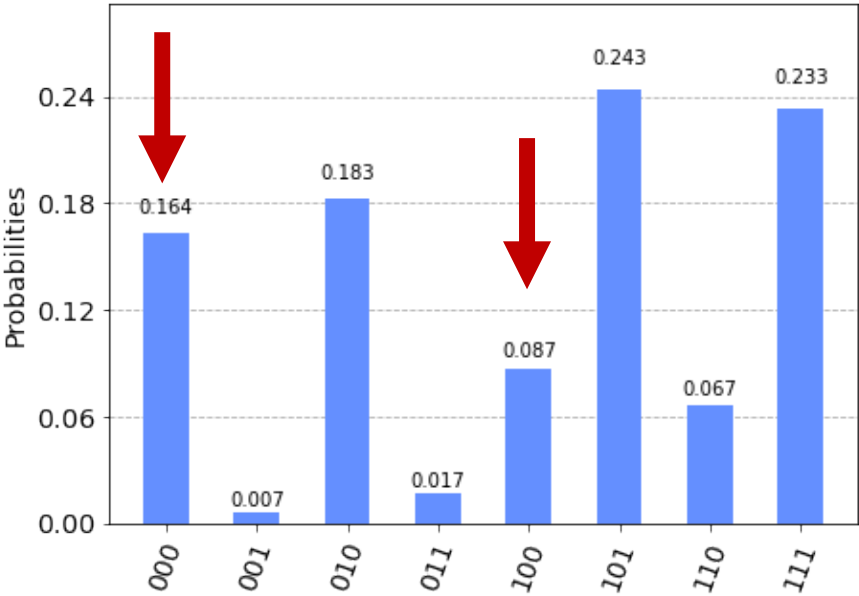
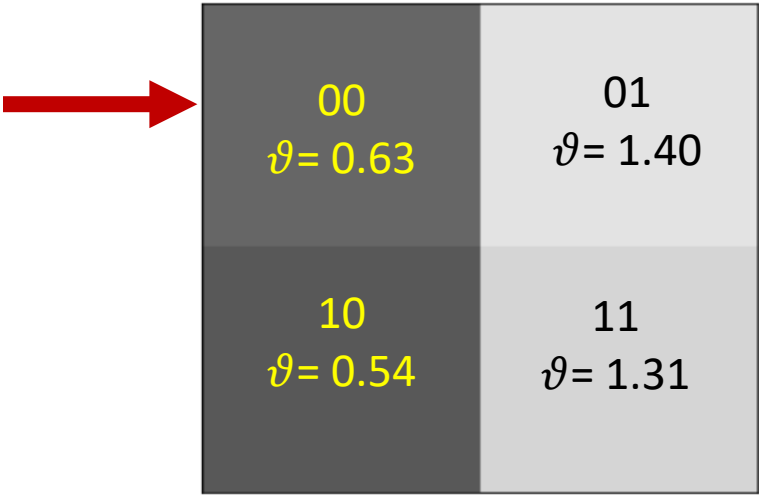
Superposition state:

$$|H\rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} |0\rangle \otimes H^{\otimes 2n} |0\rangle$$

Encoding gray tones: Applying Multi Control Ry gates (MCRY)

$$C^{2n} \left(R_y(2\theta_i) \right) |H\rangle = |I(\theta)\rangle$$

Flexible Representation of Quantum Images



Novel Enhanced Quantum Representation

$$|I\rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{Y=0}^{2^{2n}-1} \sum_{X=0}^{2^{2n}-1} | \bigotimes_{i=0}^{q-1} \rangle |C_{XY}^i\rangle |YX\rangle$$

$$i = 0, 1, \dots, 7$$

- Quadratic speedup of the time complexity to prepare the NEQR quantum image with respect to FRQI.
- Accurate image retrieval after measurement, as opposed to probabilistic as for FRQI
- Complex operations can be achieved

Requirements:

$2n + m$ qubits are needed to encode a square $2^n \times 2^n$ image. The various shades of gray intensity must be encoded in m bits.

Superposition state:

$$|H\rangle = \frac{1}{2^n} |0\rangle \bigotimes H^{\bigotimes 2n} |0\rangle$$

Encoding gray tones: Applying Multi Control X gates (MCX)

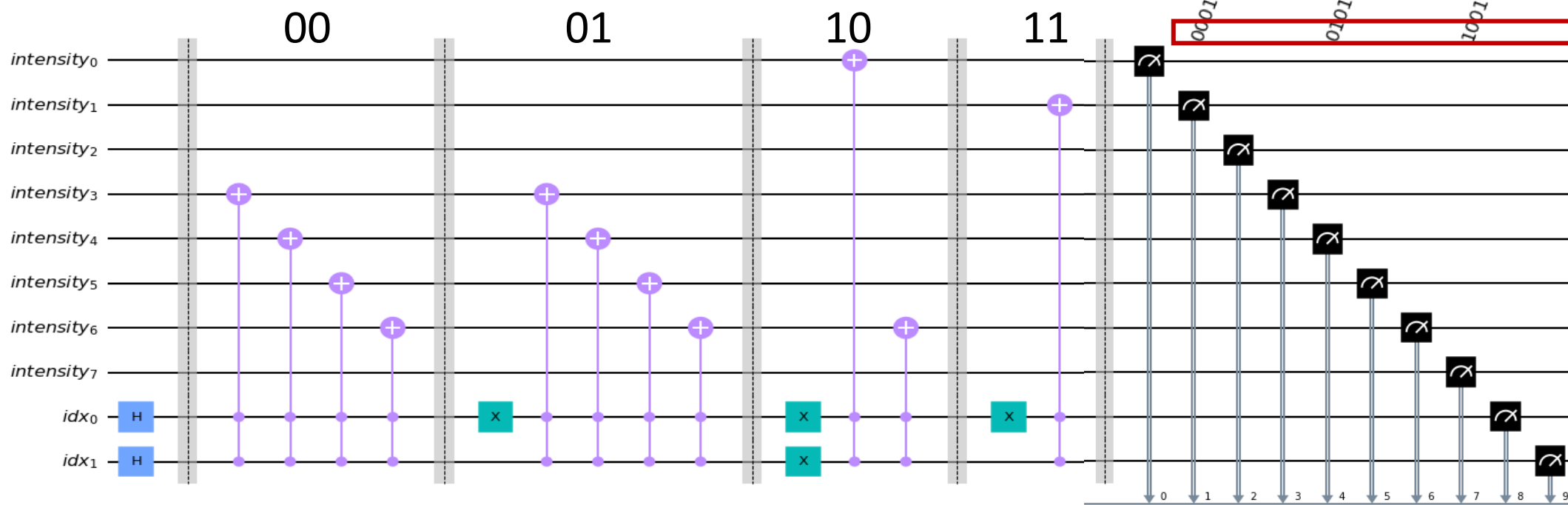
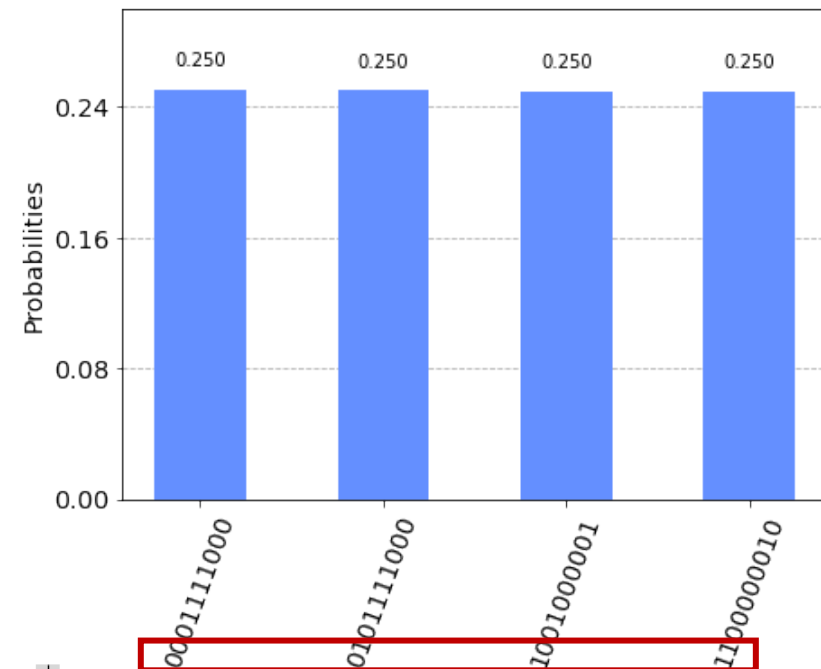
$$C^{2n}(X) |H\rangle = |I\rangle$$

00 120	01 120
10 65	11 2

$$120 = 2^6 + 2^5 + 2^4 + 2^3$$

$$65 = 2^6 + 2^0$$

$$2 = 2^1$$



Edge detection

An edge is a change on image intensity, and it is usually gradual on a certain number of pixels

$$|\text{Img}\rangle = \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} c_i |i\rangle$$

$$|\text{Img}\rangle \otimes \frac{(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

00	01
c_0	c_1
10	11
c_2	c_3

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_{N-2} \\ c_{N-2} \\ c_{N-1} \\ c_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Add an ancilla

$$D_{2^{n+1}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Decrement gate

$$(I_{2^n} \otimes H) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ \vdots \\ c_{N-2} \\ c_{N-1} \\ c_{N-1} \\ c_0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} c_0 + c_1 \\ c_0 - c_1 \\ c_1 + c_2 \\ c_1 - c_2 \\ c_2 + c_3 \\ c_2 - c_3 \\ \vdots \\ c_{N-2} + c_{N-1} \\ c_{N-2} - c_{N-1} \\ c_{N-1} + c_0 \\ c_{N-1} - c_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient

Phys. Rev. X **7**, 031041 (2017)

<https://journals.aps.org/prx/abstract/10.1103/PhysRevX.7.031041>