





Focused Tutorial on Quantum Computing

TBD

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MNM-Team







What is Quantum Computing?

Exploiting quantum mechanical effects for computations







What is Quantum Computing?

- Exploiting quantum mechanical effects for computations
 - Superposition





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- Exploiting quantum mechanical effects for computations
 - Superposition
 - Interference





What is Quantum Computing?

- Exploiting quantum mechanical effects for computations
 - Superposition
 - Interference
- Optimal hardware yet to be determined







Why do we need Quantum Computing?

Speed up classical computation





- Speed up classical computation
 - Prime factorization





- Speed up classical computation
 - Prime factorization
 - Optimization/ Search algorithms





- Speed up classical computation
 - Prime factorization
 - Optimization/ Search algorithms
 - Simulation of quantum systems





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- Cryptography





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 - Bug-proof communication





- Speed up classical computation
 - Prime factorization
 - Optimization/ Search algorithms
 - Simulation of quantum systems
- Cryptography
 - Bug-proof communication
 - True randomness



Outlook of today's tutorial

- First part: Introduction to mathematics of QC
 - Qubit states
 - State manipulation via unitary matrices
 - Quantum circuits
- Second part (after LRZ site visit): Classication with quantum computing
 - Quantum programming in PennyLane framework
 - Variational quantum circuits
 - Binary classification



Overview

Classical vs. Quantum Computing

	Classical Computing	Quantum Computing
Basic States	Either 0 or 1	Superposition of 0 and 1
Operations	Logic (boolean) gates	Unitary reversible gates
Copying States	Yes	No
Readout	No information loss	Superposition is destroyed; information loss





Qubit States I

■ State: Qubit – 0, 1 or a *superposition* of 0 and 1



Qubit States I

- State: Qubit 0, 1 or a superposition of 0 and 1
- Represented by a two-dimensional *normalized* vector:

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$

where

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$



Qubit States II

• Instead of vectors, a qubit state can also be written in the *Dirac Notation*:

$$|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad |1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



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Then we can write

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \qquad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$

instead of

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$



Qubit States III

• In some cases, we have to consider qubit states as row vectors:

$$\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
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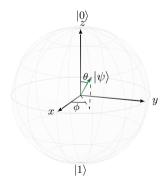
$$\langle \psi | = \alpha^* \langle 0 | + \beta^* \langle 1 | \qquad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$





Bloch Sphere

We can interpret a single qubit vector as a point on a three dimensional plane:



$$|\psi
angle = \cos\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)|0
angle + \sin\left(rac{ heta}{2}
ight)e^{i\phi}|1
angle$$



Unitary Operations

- Quantum operations represented by quantum gates
- The length of the state vector must remain $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$
- \rightarrow Requires unitary matrix operations on the state vector.

$$\begin{pmatrix} u_{00} & u_{10} \\ u_{01} & u_{11} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{00} \cdot \alpha + u_{10} \cdot \beta \\ u_{01} \cdot \alpha + u_{11} \cdot \beta \end{pmatrix}$$

• We can represent operations on qubits in the quantum circuit model:

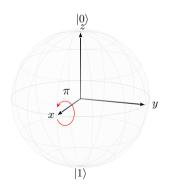
$$|\psi\rangle$$
 — U — $|\psi'\rangle$



Single Qubit Gates I

Pauli matrices:

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



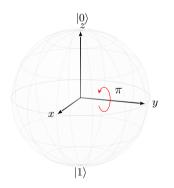


Single Qubit Gates I

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





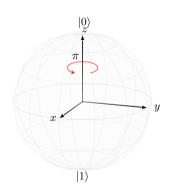
Single Qubit Gates I

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

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

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

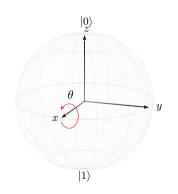




Arbitrary Rotations

 $R_{?}(\theta)\text{-Gate}$: Rotation by θ around the X/Y/Z axis (?: X, Y, or Z)

$$R_{x}(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) & -i\sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) \\ -i\sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) & \cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) \end{pmatrix} - R_{x}(\theta)$$



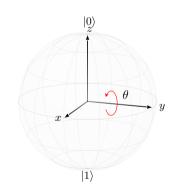


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$$R_y(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) & -\sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) \\ \sin(\frac{\theta}{2}) & \cos(\frac{\theta}{2}) \end{pmatrix} - R_y(\theta)$$





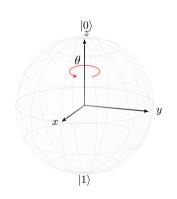
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$$R_z(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\frac{\theta}{2}} \end{pmatrix} - R_z(\theta) - R_z(\theta)$$





Measurement I

Given the qubit in the state $|\psi\rangle=\alpha\,|0\rangle+\beta\,|1\rangle$ is measured. Then...

... the probability of measuring $|0\rangle$ is $|\alpha|^2$

... the probability of measuring $|1\rangle$ is $|\beta|^2$

Probability of measuring $|0\rangle$ for state $|\psi\rangle = H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1\rangle$:

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





Measurement II

- We cannot read the state of a qubit, we can only measure the qubit
- With a measurement on a qubit, its state collapses to one of the basis states
- The original quantum state cannot be restored anymore
- ightarrow We have to measure multiple times to approximate the original quantum state



Multi-Qubit States

Quantum Registers

• Multiple qubits can be combined to a *quantum register* by calculating their tensorproduct:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{n-1} \\ \beta_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_{n-2} \\ \beta_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} \otimes \cdots \otimes \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \beta_0 \end{pmatrix}$$



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• Quantum operations on quantum registers are represented by the tensorproduct of the corresponding matrices (dimension: $2^n \times 2^n$)



Multi-Qubit States

Two Qubit Register

$$|\psi
angle = \mathit{a}_{00}\,|00
angle + \mathit{a}_{01}\,|01
angle + \mathit{a}_{10}\,|10
angle + \mathit{a}_{11}\,|11
angle$$

$$|00
angle = egin{pmatrix} 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ |01
angle = egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ |10
angle = egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \ |11
angle = egin{pmatrix} 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Multi-Qubit Operations



Multi-Qubit Gates

We can also apply gates on multiple qubits:

$$|x_1x_0\rangle$$
 $\left\{ \begin{vmatrix} |x_1\rangle - - - |x_1'\rangle \\ |x_0\rangle - - |x_0'\rangle \end{vmatrix} |x_1'x_0'\rangle$



Multi-Qubit Gates

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For instance, we can combine the existing single qubit gates using the tensor product:

$$X \otimes X =$$



Controlled Qubit Operations

lacktriangle An operation on a qubit may depend on the state of another qubit ightarrow Any single-qubit gate can have a "controlled version"

$$CU = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & u_{00} & u_{10} \\ 0 & 0 & u_{01} & u_{11} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \boxed{U}$$



Controlled Qubit Operations

- An operation on a qubit may depend on the state of another qubit → Any single-qubit gate can have a "controlled version"
- Most common: CX/CNOT and CCX/CCNOT/Toffoli Gate

$$CX = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \qquad CCX = \begin{pmatrix} & & & 0 & 0 \\ & \mathbb{I}_6 & & \vdots & \vdots \\ & & & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



The SWAP Operation

■ The SWAP operation "swaps" the states of two qubits:

$$\mathsf{SWAP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{vmatrix} a \rangle & \xrightarrow{} & |b \rangle \\ |b \rangle & \xrightarrow{} & |a \rangle$$



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It can be implemented with three CNOT gates:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a \rangle & \bullet & b \end{vmatrix}$$



Entanglement I

By applying a controlled gate (e.g., CNOT) on qubits in superposition we can create entanglement: e.g., $|q_1q_0\rangle=|00\rangle$:

$$|\psi_0\rangle$$
 $|\psi_1\rangle$ $|\psi_2\rangle$ $|q_1\rangle$ $|q_0\rangle$

$$|\psi_2
angle=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}egin{pmatrix}1\0\0\1\end{pmatrix}=rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|00
angle+|11
angle)$$

 \Rightarrow We either measure both qubits in $|0\rangle$ or in $|1\rangle$.



Entanglement II

Definition

Qubits are *entangled* with each other iff the qubit state cannot be represented as a tensor product of single qubit states.

e.g.,
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\begin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\ket{00}+\ket{11})$$





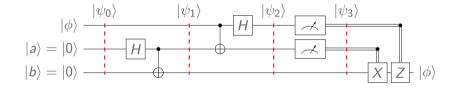
No-Cloning Theorem

- Entanglement is **not** equivalent to cloning a qubit state
- It is not possible to clone or copy an arbitrary qubit state
- With entanglement, it is possible to teleport an arbitrary state from one qubit to another





Teleportation







Observables

• Hermitian operators that describe quantum-physical characteristics of a system





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- Hermitian operators that describe quantum-physical characteristics of a system
- With an observable O, the expectation value of a measurement on qubit $|\psi\rangle$ can be determined:

$$\langle \psi | O | \psi \rangle$$



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$$\langle \psi | O | \psi \rangle$$

 The expectation value is calculated with respect to the eigenvalues of the observable, not the measurement bases

Pauli-Z Matrix as Observable

• Z matrix:
$$Z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- The expectation value can be calculated with $\langle \psi | \, Z \, | \psi \rangle$
- Examples:

1.
$$\langle 0 | Z | 0 \rangle =$$

2.
$$\langle 1 | Z | 1 \rangle =$$

3.
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\langle 0|+\langle 1|)\cdot Z\cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle+|1\rangle)=$$





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- Error correction and mitigation methods are necessary





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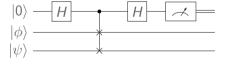
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- Near-term quantum algorithms: Variational Quantum Algorithms (VQAs)





Swap Test I

Means to measure the distance d of two quantum states $|\phi\rangle$ and $|\psi\rangle$ $d=|\langle\psi|\phi\rangle|^2$ (angle² between $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\phi\rangle$)





Swap Test II

- At the end of the circuit the probability of measuring $|0\rangle$ is the following

$$P(\text{``Measure }|0\rangle\,\text{''}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}|\langle\psi|\phi\rangle|^2$$



Swap Test II

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$$P(\text{"Measure } |0\rangle \text{"}) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} |\langle \psi | \phi \rangle|^2$$

- If $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\phi\rangle$ are orthogonal ($|\langle\psi|\phi\rangle|^2=0$), then $P(\text{``Measure }|0\rangle\text{''})=\frac{1}{2}$
- If $|\psi\rangle$ and $|\phi\rangle$ are equal ($|\langle\psi|\phi\rangle|^2=1$), then $P(\text{``Measure }|0\rangle\text{''})=1$



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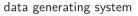
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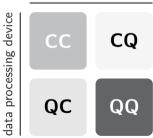
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- Then $d = |\langle \psi | \phi \rangle|^2 = 2P(\text{``Measure } |0\rangle \text{''}) 1$
- With multiple repetitions of the SWAP test, the distance d can be approximated with any precision





Overview



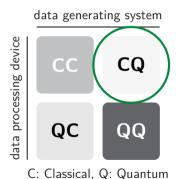


C: Classical, Q: Quantum





Overview







Overview - Classical Machine Learning

data generating system

C: Classical, Q: Quantum

1. Input

- Training data X_{train}
- Initial parameter vector θ





Overview - Classical Machine Learning

data generating system

C: Classical, Q: Quantum

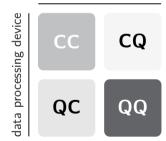
- 1. Input
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- 2. Model: $f(X_{train}, \theta) = \hat{y}$





Overview - Classical Machine Learning

data generating system



C: Classical, Q: Quantum

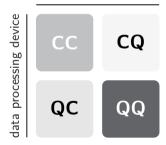
- 1. Input
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- 3. Prediction: Score with cost function $C(\hat{y}, y)$





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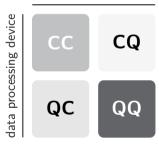
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- 4. Update $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ based on gradient-based techniques





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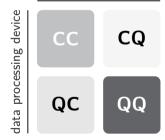
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Overview - Classical Machine Learning

data generating system



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Classical Machine Learning → **Quantum Machine Learning**

- The calculation of the model (step 2) can also be done on a quantum computer
- For this, a variational quantum approach is used

$$|\psi\rangle$$
 — $U(\theta)$ — \angle

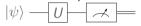


Quantum Machine Learning

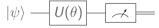


Variational Quantum Algorithms

• "Standard" quantum circuit:



Variational quantum circuit:



- Operations in a variational quantum circuit are parameterized
- The optimal parameter value(s) depend(s) on the specific application
- ightarrow Goal: optimize the parameter value(s) for the application



Variational Quantum Classification



Steps

Input: Training data (already labelled data samples)

Task: Predict the labels for new data

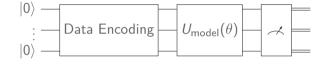
- 1. Encode the classical data into a quantum state
- 2. Encode the model into a parameterized quantum circuit
- 3. Measure the circuit to determine the labels
- 4. Use (classical) optimization techniques to update the parameters of the quantum circuit



Variational Quantum Classification



Quantum Circuit







Basis Encoding

Encode data in computational basis states.



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- E.g. encode the number N = 3 in 2-qubit state:



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- E.g. encode the number N = 3 in 2-qubit state:
 - \bullet Possible basis states for 2 qubits: $\left|00\right\rangle,\left|01\right\rangle,\left|10\right\rangle,\left|11\right\rangle.$



- Encode data in computational basis states.
- E.g. encode the number N = 3 in 2-qubit state:
 - Possible basis states for 2 qubits: $|00\rangle$, $|01\rangle$, $|10\rangle$, $|11\rangle$.
 - $\qquad \qquad \textbf{Encode 3 as } |\psi\rangle = |11\rangle.$



- Encode data in computational basis states.
- E.g. encode the number N = 3 in 2-qubit state:
 - Possible basis states for 2 qubits: $|00\rangle$, $|01\rangle$, $|10\rangle$, $|11\rangle$.
 - Encode 3 as $|\psi\rangle=|11\rangle$.
- Similar to classical computing.





Amplitude Encoding

• Encode data in 2ⁿ amplitudes of n-qubit state



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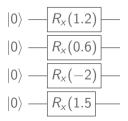
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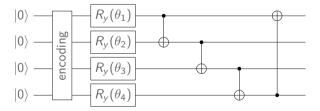


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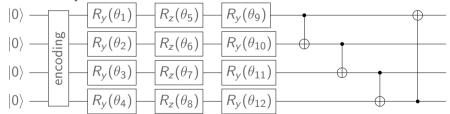
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- E.g., for binary classification we could take the sign function as classification function.





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- Quantum advantage may be mainly in more diverse data encoding.





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- Other algorithms: Grover's algorithm, Shor's algorithm





References I