

Quantum Computing: Introduction

Conventional v/s Quantum Physics

Conventional Physics:

1. **Determinism:** Conventional physics, based on classical mechanics and electromagnetism, operates on deterministic principles. Given the initial conditions of a system, its future behavior can be precisely predicted using Newton's laws or Maxwell's equations.
2. **Continuous Variables:** Conventional physics deals with continuous variables, where properties like position, velocity, and energy can take on any value within a given range. This framework works well for describing macroscopic objects and phenomena.
3. **No Superposition:** Classical objects have definite properties; they cannot exist in multiple states simultaneously. A ball cannot be both at rest and in motion at the same time.
4. **No Entanglement:** Classical objects do not exhibit entanglement, where the properties of one object are correlated with the properties of another, even when separated by large distances.

Quantum Physics:

1. **Probabilistic Nature:** Quantum physics, based on principles such as superposition and wave-particle duality, is inherently probabilistic. Instead of predicting definite outcomes, quantum mechanics provides probabilities for various measurement results.
2. **Discrete States:** Quantum systems have discrete states and quantized properties. For example, electrons orbiting an atom can only occupy certain discrete energy levels.
3. **Superposition:** Quantum objects can exist in superposition, meaning they can be in multiple states simultaneously until measured. For instance, a qubit in a superposition of 0 and 1 can represent both values at the same time.
4. **Entanglement:** Quantum systems can exhibit entanglement, where the properties of entangled particles are correlated regardless of the distance between them. This

phenomenon has been experimentally verified and is crucial for quantum computing and quantum communication.

Conventional Computation v/s Quantum Computation

Conventional Computation:

1. **Binary Representation:** Conventional computers use binary digits (bits) as the fundamental unit of information. These bits can be in one of two states: 0 or 1. Information is processed using logic gates that manipulate these bits.
2. **Deterministic Logic:** Conventional computing operates on deterministic logic, where the outcome of each operation is precisely determined by the input and the logic gates applied. The state of the system at any given time is well-defined.
3. **Sequential Processing:** Conventional computers process information sequentially, executing one instruction at a time. Complex computations are broken down into a series of simple instructions executed in sequence.
4. **Classical Physics:** Conventional computing is based on classical physics principles. It obeys laws such as Newtonian mechanics and classical electromagnetism.

Quantum Computation:

1. **Qubit Representation:** Quantum computers use quantum bits (qubits) as the fundamental unit of information. Unlike classical bits, qubits can exist in a superposition of states, representing both 0 and 1 simultaneously. This superposition enables quantum computers to perform many calculations in parallel.
2. **Probabilistic Logic:** Quantum computing operates on probabilistic logic due to the inherent uncertainty of quantum states. The outcome of a quantum computation is determined probabilistically, with probabilities encoded in complex probability amplitudes.
3. **Parallel Processing:** Quantum computers can process information in parallel due to superposition and entanglement. This allows them to explore multiple computational paths simultaneously, potentially leading to exponential speedups for certain problems.

4. **Quantum Mechanics:** Quantum computing is based on the principles of quantum mechanics, including concepts such as superposition, entanglement, and interference. Quantum systems evolve according to Schrödinger's equation and are described using wave functions.

Conventional Computing Stack v/s Quantum Computing Stack

Conventional Computing Stack

1. Hardware Layer:

Processor: Central Processing Unit (CPU) or Graphics Processing Unit (GPU) containing billions of transistors.

Memory: Random Access Memory (RAM) for temporary storage of data and instructions.

Storage: Hard Disk Drive (HDD) or Solid-State Drive (SSD) for long-term storage of data.

2. Software Layer:

Operating System (OS): Provides an interface between hardware and software, managing resources and executing programs.

Compiler/Interpreter: Translates high-level programming languages (e.g., C, Python) into machine code.

Libraries and Frameworks: Collections of pre-written code for common tasks (e.g., NumPy for numerical computation in Python).

Applications: Programs developed for specific tasks (e.g., web browsers, word processors, games).

Quantum Computing Stack:

1. Hardware Layer:

Quantum Processor: Quantum bits (qubits) implemented using physical systems such as superconducting circuits, trapped ions, or photonic systems.

Quantum Memory: Temporary storage of quantum information required for quantum algorithms and operations.

Classical Control Systems: Classical computers are used to control and read out the state of quantum systems.

2. Software Layer:

Quantum Programming Languages: High-level languages tailored for expressing quantum algorithms (e.g., Qiskit, Cirq).

Quantum Circuit Design Tools: Software for designing and simulating quantum circuits (e.g., IBM Quantum Composer, Quirk).

Quantum Algorithms and Libraries: Implementations of quantum algorithms (e.g., Shor's algorithm, Grover's algorithm) and libraries for quantum simulation and optimization.

Classical-Quantum Interface: Software for interfacing between classical control systems and quantum processors, handling tasks such as error correction, noise mitigation, and measurement.

Quantum Computer Applications

Quantum computers can solve certain problems much faster than classical computers due to their ability to leverage quantum phenomena such as superposition and entanglement. Some problems that quantum computers are expected to excel at include:

1. Factoring large integers: Shor's algorithm, a quantum algorithm, can efficiently factor large integers into their prime factors. This is a fundamental operation underlying many cryptographic protocols, such as RSA encryption, and is believed to be exponentially harder for classical computers as the size of the integer increases.

2. Searching unsorted databases: Grover's algorithm provides a quadratic speedup over classical algorithms for searching unsorted databases. It can be used for tasks like searching an unsorted list or finding a specific entry in a database.

3. Simulating quantum systems: Quantum computers can simulate quantum systems much more efficiently than classical computers. This capability is particularly valuable for understanding complex quantum phenomena in physics, chemistry, and materials science. For example, simulating the behavior of molecules for drug discovery or simulating quantum materials for designing new technologies.

4. Optimization problems: Quantum computers are expected to provide significant speedups for certain optimization problems, such as the traveling salesman problem, portfolio optimization, or optimizing complex supply chain logistics.

5. Machine learning and AI: Quantum computers have the potential to enhance machine learning algorithms and accelerate AI tasks, including data clustering, pattern recognition, and optimization in neural networks.

How to physically generate Qubits?

Quantum bits, or qubits, are the fundamental units of quantum information, analogous to classical bits. Unlike classical bits, which can be either 0 or 1, qubits can exist in a superposition of both 0 and 1 simultaneously, allowing for the potential for exponentially more computational power in quantum computers.

There are various physical systems that can be used to implement qubits, each with its own method of generation. Here are a few examples:

1. Superconducting Qubits: These are typically implemented using superconducting circuits cooled to very low temperatures. Qubits are generated by manipulating the states of superconducting circuits.

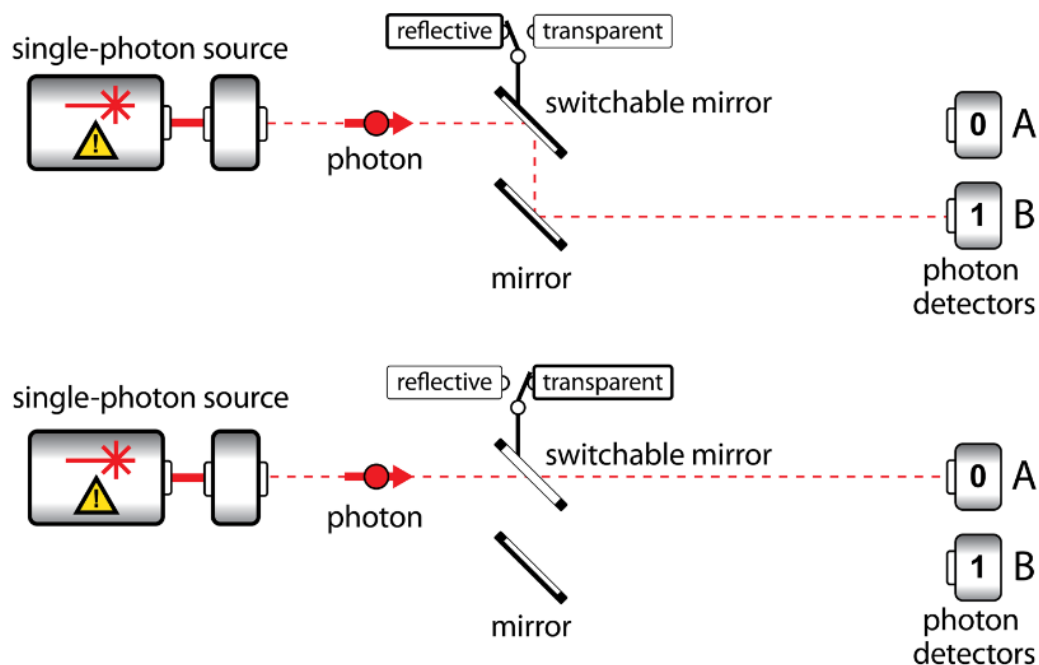
2. Trapped Ions: In this approach, qubits are represented by the internal energy levels of trapped ions (charged atoms). Laser beams are used to manipulate the ions' internal states to initialize, manipulate, and measure the qubits.

3. Quantum Dots: Quantum dots are tiny semiconductor particles that can trap individual electrons. By manipulating the spin of these trapped electrons, they can serve as qubits.

4. Neutral Atoms: Neutral atoms can also be used to implement qubits. They are trapped and manipulated using optical tweezers or magnetic fields.

5. Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR): In NMR-based quantum computing, qubits are typically the nuclear spins of atoms within a molecule. These spins can be manipulated using magnetic fields and radiofrequency pulses.

Qubit Generation using light photon



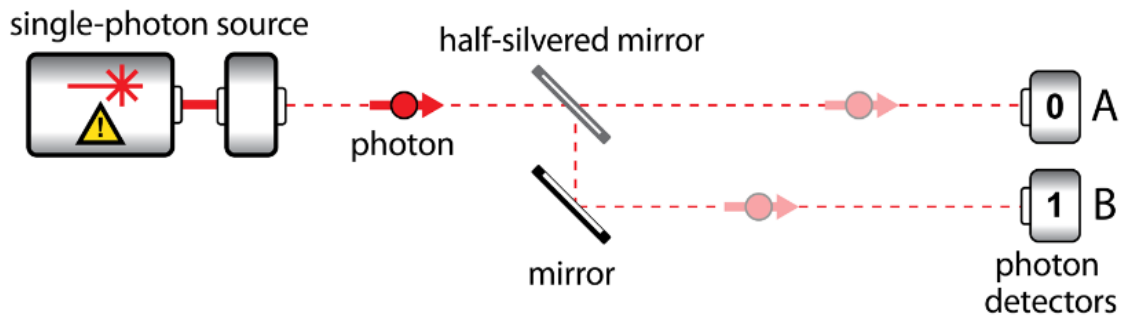


Figure 2.2 A simple implementation of an optical quantum circuit

Wave-Particle Duality

This wave-particle duality is a fundamental aspect of quantum mechanics, where particles exhibit both wave-like and particle-like behavior depending on the experimental setup. The Young's double-slit experiment beautifully demonstrates this duality and provides insight into the mysterious nature of quantum particles.

Wave-particle duality is a fundamental concept in quantum mechanics that describes the dual nature of particles, such as electrons and photons. This concept suggests that particles can exhibit both wave-like and particle-like properties depending on the experimental setup.

Here's a breakdown of wave-particle duality and its role in quantum physics:

1. Wave-Like Behavior: Just like waves, particles described by quantum mechanics can exhibit properties such as interference and diffraction. This means they can overlap and interact with each other constructively or destructively, leading to interference patterns, as seen in the double-slit experiment.

2. Particle-Like Behavior: On the other hand, particles also behave like localized entities with well-defined positions and momenta. This behavior is akin to classical particles,

which follow trajectories and interact with other particles in a manner consistent with classical physics.

The significance of wave-particle duality in quantum physics lies in its ability to reconcile the seemingly contradictory behaviors of particles. Classical physics describes particles as localized entities with definite properties, while wave-like phenomena such as interference and diffraction are typically associated with waves. Quantum mechanics, however, tells us that particles can exhibit both behaviors depending on the circumstances.

Young's double-slit experiment

The double-slit experiment demonstrates that particles, such as electrons or photons, can exhibit wave-like interference patterns when passing through two slits, even when sent through one at a time.

The Young's double-slit experiment is a classic demonstration of the wave-like nature of light and other quantum particles. It was first performed by Thomas Young in 1801 and remains one of the most fundamental experiments in the history of physics.

Here's a simplified explanation of the experiment:

Imagine you have a screen with two small slits (or holes) close to each other. Behind this screen, you place a light source that emits coherent light, such as a laser. When light from the source passes through the slits, it creates two separate waves that propagate outward. These waves then overlap and interfere with each other.

Now, let's consider what happens when these overlapping waves hit a second screen placed behind the slits. On this screen, you'll see a pattern of bright and dark bands known as interference fringes.

To understand this pattern, consider a specific point on the second screen. If the waves from the two slits arrive at this point in phase (with their peaks and troughs aligned), they will interfere constructively, resulting in a bright band. Conversely, if the waves arrive out of phase (with their peaks and troughs misaligned), they will interfere destructively, resulting in a dark band.

This interference pattern arises because the waves from the two slits interfere with each other, creating regions of constructive and destructive interference. The spacing of the

fringes depends on the wavelength of the light, the distance between the slits, and the distance from the slits to the screen.

Now, let's relate this to quantum mechanics. In the double-slit experiment, even when we reduce the intensity of the light source so much that only one photon (a quantum of light) passes through the apparatus at a time, the interference pattern still emerges over time as individual photons hit the screen. This implies that each photon behaves like a wave, passing through both slits simultaneously and interfering with itself.

Links:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Pk6s2OlKzKQ>



<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PVyJFzx7zig>

