

Quantum Computation (Preskill ch. 6)

Quantum Computation

Classical Circuits

- * Universal Gates
- * Circuit Complexity

Quantum Circuits

- * Quantum Complexity
- * Universal Quantum Gates

Review of Classical Circuit Theory

Think of a Computation as a function that maps n bits to m bits

$$f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$$

Maps n bits to m bits

A function with an m bit output is equivalent to m functions with a *one* bit output, so the basic task can be broken into m functions mapping n bits to *one* bit

There are 2^n possible inputs w/2 possible outputs, so a total of 2^{2^n} functions that map n bits to *one* bit

$$f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$$

2^{2^n} of these simple functions

Function evaluation \longleftrightarrow sequence of logic operations

Given a binary input $X = X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$

separate in sets $\begin{cases} f(x) = 1 \\ f(x) = 0 \end{cases}$

Consider the input

$x^{(a)}: f(x^{(a)}) = 1$ \rightarrow define $f^{(a)}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x = x^{(a)} \\ 0 & \text{for } x \neq x^{(a)} \end{cases}$

one of the m simple functions n of these

Given, for example, we implement $f^{(a)}$ w/logic operations

$$x = \begin{cases} 111\dots & \rightarrow f(x) = x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_3 \dots \wedge x_n \\ 0110\dots & \rightarrow f(x) = (\neg x_1) \wedge x_2 \wedge x_3 \wedge (\neg x_4) \dots \end{cases}$$

Finally, given the $f^{(a)}(x)$'s we can implement the $f(x)$'s as

$$f(x) = f^{(1)}(x) \vee f^{(2)}(x) \vee \dots \vee f^{(m)}(x)$$

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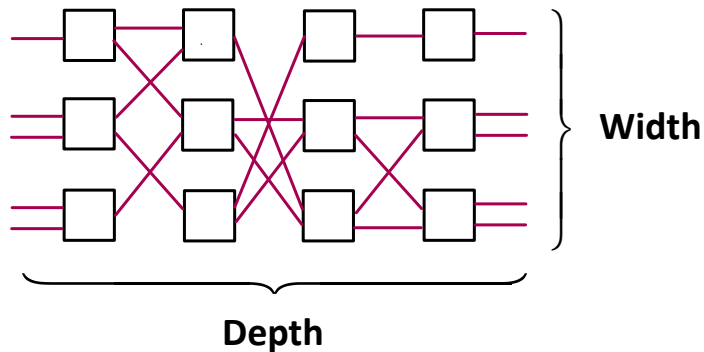
Circuit Complexity

(Pick a universal gate set)

Central Question: How hard is it to solve **PROBLEM** ?

* One measure is the size of the smallest circuit that solves it

Size = Width x Depth



Consider a circuit family $\{C_n\}$ that solves a decision problem

$$f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$$

Examples

FACTORING $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if integer } x \text{ has divisor } < y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

HAMILTONIAN PATH $f(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if graph } x \text{ has Hamiltonian Path} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

We define:

Easy Problems: $size(C_n) \leq poly(n)$

Hard Problems: $size(C_n) > poly(n)$

This distinction allows us to define Complexity Classes, for example

Problem Class P = { Decision Problems solved by a polynomial-sized circuit }

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This distinction allows us to define Complexity Classes, for example

Problem Class $P = \left\{ \text{Decision Problems solved by polynomial-sized circuit} \right\}$

* Whether **PROBLEM** $\in P$ is independent of circuit design, universal gate set & other specifics

* Problems in P are special – they have structure that allows efficient computation

Note: The majority of functions $\notin P$

For example, if the output $f(x) \sim$ random we must compute $f(x)$ by lookup table with 2^n entries



Circuit that does lookup has exponential size

Special Class:

One-Way Function

Problem Class **NP** = $\left\{ \text{PROBLEM is easy or hard, but the answer is easy to check} \right\}$

Stands for “Non-deterministic Polynomial Time”

Examples:

FACTORING $\in NP$

HAMILTONIAN PATH $\in NP$

Note: Clearly $P \subseteq NP$, Conjecture that $P \neq NP$

Quantum Computation (Preskill ch. 6)

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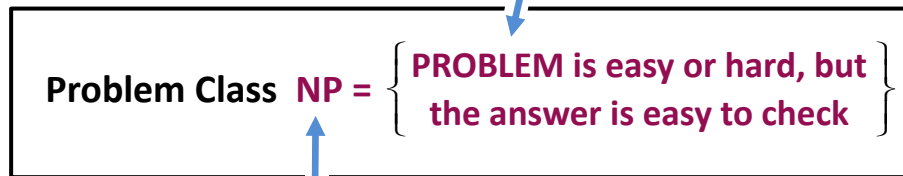
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Examples: **FACTORING** \in NP

HAMILTONIAN PATH \in NP

Note: Clearly $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \text{NP}$, Conjecture that $\mathcal{P} \neq \text{NP}$

Special Problem: **CIRCUIT-SAT** \in NP

Input = Circuit w/ n gates, m input bits

Problem = is there an m -bit input w/output = 1

$$f(c) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \exists x^{(m)} \text{ so } C(x^{(m)}) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Easy to check solution because if we have the input circuit C we can run it with the input $x^{(m)}$ and determine if it evaluates to 1.

Cooks Theorem: Every **PROBLEM** \in NP is polynomially reducible to **CIRCUIT-SAT**



Quantum Computation (Preskill ch. 6)

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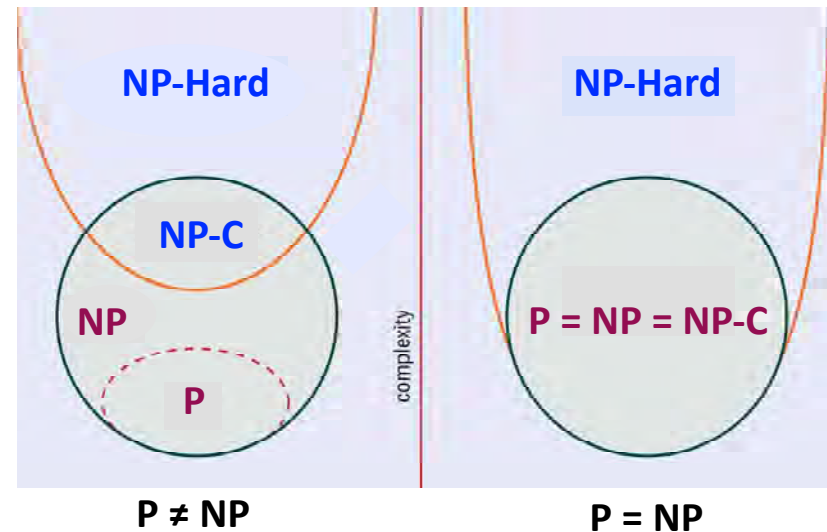
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CIRCUI-T-SAT
HAMILTONIAN PATH } \in NP- Complete NPC \neq NP

Complexity Hierarchy

- * Conjecture: P \in NP
- * \exists Problems in NP that are neither P or NPC
- * NPI: Problems of intermediate difficulty
- * Conjecture: Factoring \in NPI



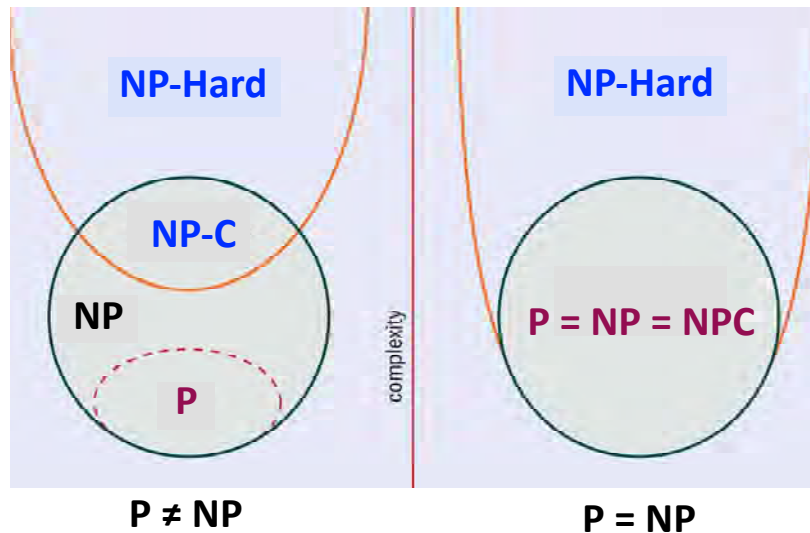
Takeaway Message

- * Complexity theory is a rich field with many known complexity classes
- * Many foundational conjectures remain unproven
- * As we will see, switching to Quantum Circuits changes things

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Complexity Hierarchy

- * Conjecture: $P \in NP$
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- * **NPI**: Problems of intermediate difficulty
- * Conjecture: **Factoring** \in **NPI**



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- * Complexity theory is a rich field with many known complexity classes
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Aside: Classical Reversible Computation

Motivation:

Quantum Computation = Unitary Transformation



Reversible !

Classical Reversible Comp: $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$

Repackage $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ as reversible

$$f: \{0,1\}^{n+m} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{n+m}$$

$$f(x, 0^{(m)}) = (x; f(x))$$

we separate $n + m$ qubit register into input and output so no information is lost

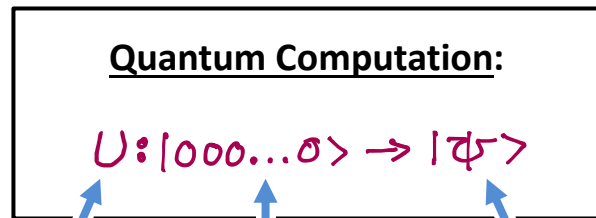
Note: Not all 1 & 2-bit gates are reversible, e. g., AND, OR, ERASE

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Quantum Circuits

Classical Computer = finite set of gates acting on bits

Quantum Computer = finite set of quantum gates acting on quantum bits



unitary composed of finite # of gates

n qubit input

output = outcome of Orthog. Measurement in basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}^n$

Note:

* The Hilbert space of the Quantum Computer has a preferred decomposition into tensor products of low dimensional spaces (qubits), respected by gates which act on only a few qubits at a time.

- This helps establish notion of Quantum Complexity

* Decomposition into subsystems and local manipulations means gates act on qubits in a bounded region.

* It is suspected, but not proven, that the power of Q. C. derives from this decomposition:

n qubits $\rightarrow 2^n$ dimensional \mathcal{H} resource grows $\sim 2^n$

* Unitaries form a continuum, but we restrict to discrete gate sets. This is necessary for Fault Tolerance

* Quantum Gates could be Superoperators, and readout could be POVM's

However:

we can simulate

Superoperators as unitaries
POVM's as Orthog. Meas

in larger \mathcal{H}



Our simpler conceptualization is general

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Our simpler conceptualization is general

- * Final readout could be collective or in a basis \neq the standard logical basis \rightarrow

Unitary maps to standard basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}^n$ with overhead included in complexity

- * We could do measurements during computation, then condition later steps on the outcomes. But one can show the same results can be achieved by measuring at the end of the computation
- In practice measurement during computation is essential for error correction

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At this point we are left with 3 main issues

- (1) Universality: we must be able to implement the most general unitary $\in SU(2^n)$

\uparrow
group of unitaries in \mathcal{H} , $\dim \mathcal{H} = 2^n$

\rightarrow Circuit of chosen gates must approx. any $U \in SU(2^n)$

- (2) Quantum Complexity:

New class **BQP**¹⁾

\uparrow
Decision problems solved w/high prob. by poly-sized quantum circuits

- (3) Accuracy: **BQP** is defined assuming perfect gates. What happens if circuit elements do not have exponential accuracy?

Can show noisy gates are OK:

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T - gate circuit requires error prob. $\propto 1/T$

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Note on Quantum Complexity:

A QC can simulate a probabilistic classical computer
(most general class)

→ $BPP^{2)} \subseteq BQP$

Open Question: Is $BPP \neq BQP$? Seems reasonable,
as a prob. C.C. cannot easily simulate QM in a
 2^n - dimensional Hilbert space.

If so, a QC will negate the **Strong Church-Turing Thesis**
which holds that any physically reasonable model of
computation can be simulated on a probabilistic
classical computer with only polynomial slowdown.

²⁾ **BPP** = Bounded-error Probabilistic Polynomial time

Quantum Computation (Preskill ch. 6)

Definition:

Let $U = e^{iH_j dt}$ be generic (H_j is the generator of U)
 $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ so U^n comes arbitrarily close to $U(\alpha) = e^{i\alpha H_j}$
 ($U(\alpha)$ is reachable by powers U^n)

Seems extraordinarily cumbersome! Why do it that way?

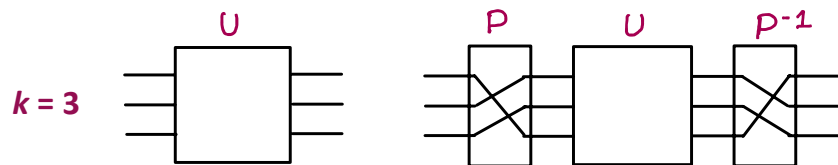
Answer: This is necessary for Fault Tolerant Operation

$\{U^n, n \in \mathbb{N}_0\}$ is a set of measure zero \rightarrow any "noise" takes us to an invalid state that can be detected and corrected.

This is not enough! What else can we do?

(2) Switching leads

k qubits $\rightarrow (2^k)!$ permutations $U' = P U P^{-1}$



This is not enough! What else can we do?

Aside: Consider a d - dimensional Hilbert space \mathcal{H} .

\rightarrow { Operators ($d \times d$ matrices) are vectors $\in d^2$ dim.
 Hilbert space \mathcal{H}^1 w/a scalar product defined as

$$(m_i | m_j) = \text{Tr} [m_i^\dagger m_j]$$



\exists orthonormal basis $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} |A_1\rangle, \dots, |A_{d^2}\rangle \\ (A_i | A_j) = \delta_{ij} \end{array} \right\}$ in \mathcal{H}^1

(3) Completing the Lie Algebra

Assume access to a set of Hamiltonians

$$\{H_0, H_1, \dots, H_n\}, n \in (\dim \mathcal{H})^2$$

Trotter Formulae: for $dt \rightarrow 0$

$$e^{-i\alpha H_j dt} e^{-i\beta H_k dt} = e^{-i(\alpha H_j + \beta H_k) dt} \text{ (Lin. Comb. of } H_j, H_k)$$

$$e^{-i\alpha H_j dt} e^{-i\beta H_k dt} e^{i\alpha H_j dt} e^{i\beta H_k dt} = e^{-[\alpha H_j, \beta H_k] dt^2} \text{ (NL. Comb. of } H_j, H_k)$$

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Aside: Consider a d - dimensional Hilbert space \mathcal{H} .

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(3) Completing the Lie Algebra

Assume access to a set of Hamiltonians

$$\{ H_0, H_1, \dots, H_n \}, n \leq (\dim \mathcal{H})^2$$

Trotter formulae: for $dt \rightarrow 0$

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$$e^{-i\alpha H_j dt} e^{-i\beta H_k dt} e^{i\alpha H_j dt} e^{i\beta H_k dt} = e^{-[\alpha H_j, \beta H_k] dt^2}$$

- * From the Set $\{H_0, H_1, \dots, H_n\}$ we can “simulate” new Hamiltonians using the Trotter formulae
- * If a new Hamiltonian is linearly independent we add it to the set.
- * Continue until the Set has $d^2 = (\dim \mathcal{H})^2$ linearly independent members (Lie Algebra complete)*



Set is a basis in $d^2 \times d^2$ matrix space

Allows to simulate any $H(t)$ & implement any U

Examples:

$$d=2 \rightarrow \{ |A_i\rangle \} = \{ I, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z \} \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{set of } 2^2 = 4 \\ 2 \times 2 \text{ matrices} \end{array}$$

$$d=4 \rightarrow \{ |A_i\rangle \} \leftarrow \text{set of } d^2 = 16 \text{ } 4 \times 4 \text{ matrices}$$

Example: (single qubit control)

Let $d=2$, initial set $\{ \alpha \sigma_x, \beta \sigma_y \}$ (generic)

$$[\sigma_x, \sigma_y] = i\sigma_z \rightarrow \text{we can simulate } i\sigma_z$$

Set $[I, \alpha \sigma_x, \beta \sigma_y]$ sufficient for control

Quantum Computation (Preskill ch. 6)

Deutsch's Gate

(First generic gate,
Reaches any $U \in SU(8)$)

