

Properties of Linear Algebra Applicable to Quantum Computing

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Outline/Goals for Next Few Lectures

- Course introduction
 - Illustrated how D-Wave hardware can be programmed for a specific type of optimization problem
 - One of many different types of problems that may potentially be exploited by quantum computing
- Next few lectures will develop the rigorous mathematical and physics foundations that permit such constructions

Mathematical and Physics Foundations Required to Describe a Quantum Computing System

- Mathematical foundations applicable to quantum computing
- The quantum mechanics postulates that can be described by this mathematics
- Introduce some tools that will allow one to exploit ideas applicable to quantum computing
- With these foundations can now begin to discuss
 - Quantum algorithms and their implementation
 - Using quantum gates to build quantum circuits that can run on quantum computing simulators and quantum computing hardware

Theory of Quantum Mechanics Describes Behavior Observed in a Non-classical World

- Quantum theory is a mathematical model of the physical world at a scale where the size of the observation mechanism is of the same order as the size of the object being observed
- The behaviors of the physical world at the quantum level have no analogs in people's everyday (classical) experiences
- In order to properly design quantum computing devices, algorithms and programs one should
 - Understand the properties and behavior of quantum mechanics and
 - Construct the mathematics that can properly describe it

Building a Rigorous Mathematical Foundation for Describing Quantum Computing

Utilizing the Mathematics of Linear Algebra to Represent Quantum Computing Processes *

* The choice of the linear algebra will become clear when we discuss the postulates of quantum mechanics that describe the behavior of the quantum (non-classical) world

Review Basic Linear Algebra Concepts

Vector Space

A vector space is a collection vectors, which may be added together and multiplied by scalar quantities and still be a part of the collection of vectors

Review Basic Linear Algebra Concepts

Linear Dependence and Linear Independence

A set of vectors is said to be linearly dependent if one of the vectors in the set can be defined as a linear combination of the others

A set of vectors is said to be linearly independent if no vector in the set can be written according to the previous statement

Review Basic Linear Algebra Concepts

Basis Vectors

A set of elements (vectors) in a vector space V is called a basis, or a set of basis vectors, if the vectors are

- linearly independent
- every vector in the vector space is a linear combination of this set

A basis is a linearly independent spanning set

Properties and Definitions of a Vector Space

- Given a vector space V containing vectors A, B, C the following properties apply
 - Commutativity [$A+B=B+A$]
 - Associativity of vector addition [$(A+B)+C=A+(B+C)$]
 - Additive identity [$0+A=A+0=A$] for all A
 - Existence of additive inverse: For any A , there exists a $(-A)$ such that $A+(-A)=0$

Properties and Definitions of a Vector Space

- Given a vector space V containing vectors A, B, C the following properties apply
 - Scalar multiplication identity [$1A=A$]
 - Given scalars r and s
 - Associativity of scalar multiplication [$r(sA)=(rs)A$]
 - Distributivity of scalar sums [$(r+s)A=rA+sA$]
 - Distributivity of vector sums [$r(A+B)=rA+rB$]

Dirac “bra” and “ket” Notation

Dirac “ket” notation $|a\rangle$ represents a column vector \vec{a}

$$|a\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix}$$

a Dirac “bra” notation $\langle a|$

$$\langle a| = (a_1^* \quad a_2^* \quad \dots \quad a_n^*)$$

The transpose \mathbf{a}^T of a column vector \mathbf{a} is a row vector

Examples of Normalized Vectors in Dirac Notation

$$|a\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|0\rangle + |1\rangle] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|b\rangle = \left[\frac{3}{5} |0\rangle - \frac{4}{5} |1\rangle \right] = \frac{3}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{4}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3}{5} \\ -\frac{4}{5} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|c\rangle = \frac{3i}{5} |0\rangle - \frac{4i}{5} |1\rangle = \frac{3i}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{4i}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3i}{5} \\ \frac{4i}{5} \end{pmatrix}$$

Hilbert Space

- A Hilbert Space is a vector space over the complex numbers with an inner product $\langle b | a \rangle$
- The Hilbert Space maps an ordered pair of vectors to the complex numbers with the following properties
 - Positivity $\langle a | a \rangle > 0$ for $|a\rangle > 0$
 - Linearity $\langle c | (\alpha |a\rangle + \beta |b\rangle) = \alpha \langle c | a \rangle + \beta \langle c | b \rangle$ where α and β are complex constants
 - Skew symmetry $\langle b | a \rangle = (\langle a | b \rangle)^*$
- The **adjoint** \mathbf{a}^\dagger is the complex conjugate transpose of a column vector “a” and is sometimes called the Hermitian conjugate
- The space is complete as expressed by the norm

$$||a|| = (\langle a | a \rangle)^{1/2}$$

Mathematical Representation of Binary States and Superposition

- A binary state (classical bit) defines a state by
- values of either “0” or “1” (“on” or “off”)



Mathematical Representation of Bits, Qubits and Superposition

- A classical bit defines a state by values of either “0” or “1” (“on” or “off”)
- A quantum bit (qubit) can also have a state of “0” or “1” but it can also have a possibility of being described by additional states



Mathematical Representation of Bits, Qubits and Superposition

- A classical bit defines a state by values of either “0” or “1” (“on” or “off”)
- A quantum bit (qubit) can also have a state of “0” or “1” and it can also have a possibility of being described by additional states
- Qubit can form a superposition state represented by a vector that is a superposition or linear combination of both a “0” or “1”

$$|a\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle \quad |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$



Basis Vectors for One Qubit

- In Dirac notation this the vector is represented by

$$a = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \quad |\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1 \text{ (modulus)}$$

where α and β are complex coefficients

- α is the probability amplitude of measuring the $|0\rangle$ state and β is the probability amplitude of measuring the $|1\rangle$ state
- Common basis is $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Probability to measure the $|0\rangle$ state is $|\alpha|^2$
- Probability to measure the $|1\rangle$ state is $|\beta|^2$

Mathematical Representation of Many Different Basis States

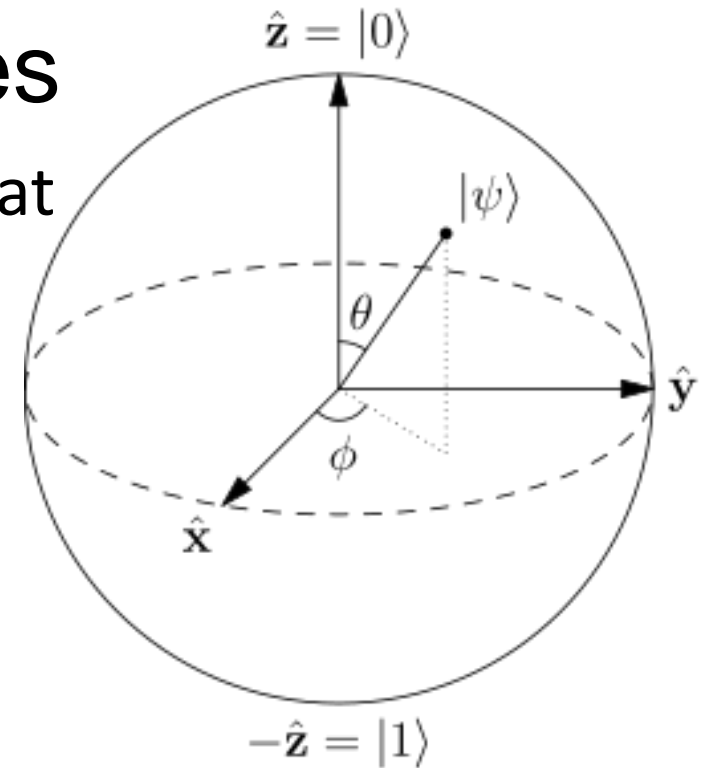
- Represent combination of “0”s and “1”s in a way that many different values can be expressed

- Define $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

- Can re-write $|a\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ as $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$

$$|a\rangle = e^{i\gamma} \left(\cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) |1\rangle \right)$$

- This representation is visualized by states that lie on the surface of a sphere



Bloch Sphere

Figure from Wikipedia Bloch Sphere
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bloch_sphere

Combinations of Dirac Bra and Ket

- Calculate an inner product
- Reminder that $|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Calculate $\langle 0|0\rangle$ (gives an answer of 1 – a single number)

Matrices as Outer Products

If the bra and ket are placed in the opposite order

$$|0\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (1 \quad 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|0\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (0 \quad 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|1\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (1 \quad 0) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (0 \quad 1) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Outer products are a useful mechanism for writing matrices, especially unitaries because they capture state transformations

Matrices as Rotations Acting on Qubits

- Matrices describe the rotations that takes a qubit from an initial state to a transformed state
- These rotations that operate on a qubit are labelled as “gates”
- Because qubit states can be represented as points on a sphere, reversible one-qubit gates can be thought of as rotations of the Bloch sphere. (quantum gates are often called “rotations”)
- Reversible one qubit gates viewed as rotations in this three dimensional representation

Bra and Ket Vectors can be Constructed into Matrices

- The matrix representation of the expression $\sum_i |input_i\rangle\langle output_i|$

$$I = |0\rangle\langle 0| + |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X = |0\rangle\langle 1| + |1\rangle\langle 0| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Z = |0\rangle\langle 0| - |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Y = iXZ = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = i \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)\langle 0| + (|0\rangle - |1\rangle)\langle 1|] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

General Statement - Outer Products

- Any matrix can be written purely in terms of its outer products (example)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} = a|0\rangle\langle 0| + b|0\rangle\langle 1| + c|1\rangle\langle 0| + d|1\rangle\langle 1|$$

- This is a useful formulation to express linear transformations
- Select an original set of basis states (orthogonal) and express in this outer product representation
- Can directly read the effect of the unitary on the basis stated

Properties of Outer Products

- Given vectors \mathbf{U} , \mathbf{V} , and \mathbf{W} and a scalar c

$$(\mathbf{U} \otimes \mathbf{V})^T = (\mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{U})$$

$$(\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{W}) \otimes \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{U} + \mathbf{W} \otimes \mathbf{U}$$

$$\mathbf{U} \otimes (\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{W}) = \mathbf{U} \otimes \mathbf{V} + \mathbf{U} \otimes \mathbf{W}$$

$$c (\mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{W}) = (c \mathbf{V}) \otimes \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{V} \otimes (c \mathbf{W})$$

NOTE: The outer product of tensors also satisfies an additional associativity property

$$\mathbf{U} \otimes (\mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{W}) = (\mathbf{U} \otimes \mathbf{V}) \otimes \mathbf{W}$$

Properties of Complex Matrices

If some of the matrix elements are complex there are specific definitions to describe these types of matrices

- **Hermitian Matrix** – A matrix is defined to be a Hermitian matrix if it is a complex square matrix that is equal to its own conjugate transpose—(the element in the i -th row and j -th column is equal to the complex conjugate of the element in the j -th row and i -th column, for all indices i and j)
- **Unitary matrix** - a complex square matrix whose adjoint equals its inverse
 - the product of U^\dagger and the matrix U is the identity matrix
 - Note: a complex square matrix U is unitary if its conjugate transpose is also its inverse U^{-1})
$$U^\dagger U = U^{-1} U = I$$

State Transformations

- Outer products are a useful mechanism for writing matrices, especially unitaries because they capture state transformations
- Pick an orthogonal set of states (ex pair of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$) and define a set of states $\{|u_{00}\rangle, |u_{01}\rangle, |u_{10}\rangle, |u_{11}\rangle\}$ to which the unitary rotates the original set of orthogonal states

$$U = |u_{00}\rangle\langle 00| + |u_{01}\rangle\langle 01| + |u_{10}\rangle\langle 10| + |u_{11}\rangle\langle 11|$$

- This expression is not unique
- This is a general expression that can be constructed for every possible set of orthogonal input states

State Transformations and Concept of a Phase

- There will be at least one set of orthogonal input states that will take the form of eigenstates of the matrix

$$A = \sum_j \alpha_j |e_j\rangle\langle e_j|$$

where $\alpha_j = \exp(i e_j)$

- The unitary maps each state of the basis $|e_j\rangle \rightarrow \exp(i e_j) |e_j\rangle$
- The transformed state is also a valid basis
 - Implies that the exponential terms must be complex number of magnitude 1
 - The e_j are real numbers
- This formalism also introduces a relative phase when a superposition of these states are combined

Hermitian Matrices and Unitaries

- Hermitian matrices have well defined eigenvalues and eigenstates
- They can be written in the same form as the unitary matrix “A”

$$H = \sum_j h_j |h_j\rangle\langle h_j|$$

- Hermitian matrices have the property that $H=H^\dagger$
- This requirement forces the eigenvalues and eigenvectors to have specific properties

Hermitian Matrices and Unitaries

- Using the property $|h_j\rangle^\dagger = \langle h_j|$ examine the inner product

$$(|h_j\rangle\langle h_j|)^\dagger = (\langle h_j|^\dagger)(|h_j\rangle^\dagger) = |h_j\rangle\langle h_j|$$

- For this to be true the eigenvalues h_j of a Hermitian matrix must be real

Relationship between Unitary and Hermitian

- A unitary matrix (U) has complex exponentials of real numbers for eigenvalues
- Hermitian matrix (H) must have real numbers for eigenvalues
- Based on above 2 statements it is possible to define a Hermitian matrix from every unitary
- The eigenvalues can be related through exponentiation using the definition for exponentiation of a matrix*

$$U = \exp(iH)$$

* An entire family of unitaries can be constructed for each Hermitian

Classical Gates versus Quantum Gates

- A classical computer gate is a logical construction of operations represented by binary inputs and an associated output.
- A quantum gate is a mathematical manipulation of qubits that adhere to the postulates of quantum mechanics and the mathematics of linear algebra

Building Quantum Computing Gates

- Gates are the building blocks for constructing quantum circuits
- Quantum mechanics restricts the types of gates that can be constructed
- Quantum circuits are constructed from the combined actions of unitary transformations and single bit rotations

Imposing Quantum Mechanics on Gate Operations

- A quantum gate must incorporate
 - Linear superposition of pure states that includes a phase
 - Reversibility - All closed quantum state transformations must be reversible
 - Reversible transformations are described through matrix rotations

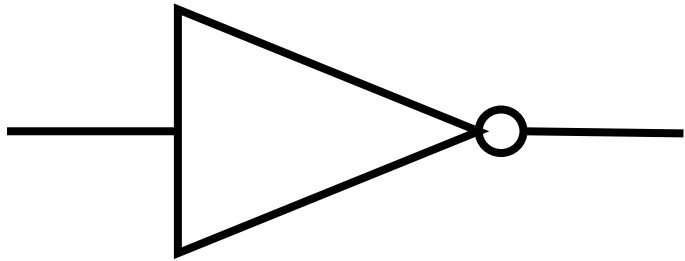
Quantum Computing Gate Operations Under the Constraints of Quantum Mechanics

- A quantum gate must incorporate
 - Unitarity - states evolve over time and are expressed mathematically by a unitary operator (transformation) for a closed quantum mechanics system
 - Unitary operator U is expressed as a complex square matrix whose adjoint equals its inverse and the product of U adjoint and the matrix U is the identity operation

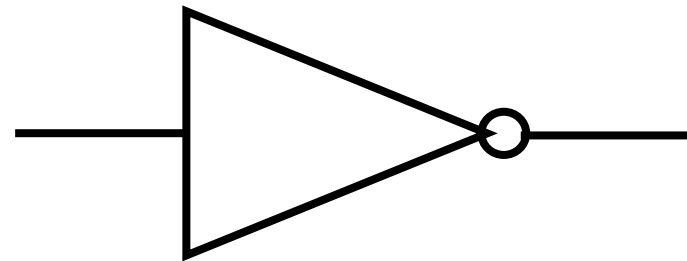
$$U^\dagger U = U^{-1} U = I$$

- Completeness - unitary matrices preserve the length of vectors

Example of a Reversible One Qubit Gate Operation



INPUT	OUTPUT
0	1
1	0



INPUT	OUTPUT
1	0
0	1

- Single bit NOT gate output can be reversed by applying another NOT gate

So Far So Good for One Qubit

but

One Qubit Has Only a Limited Number of Operations

What Does Quantum Mechanics Prescribe for 2 Qubits?

2 Qubit Gates

Two Qubit Representation of States

- Two states are represented by a pair of orthonormal 2 vectors

$$|a\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, |b\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The four states are four orthogonal vectors in four dimensions formed by the tensor products

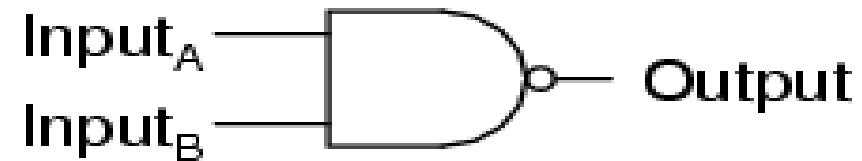
$$|a\rangle \otimes |a\rangle, |a\rangle \otimes |b\rangle, |b\rangle \otimes |a\rangle, |b\rangle \otimes |b\rangle$$

- These states can also be represented by

$$|aa\rangle, |ab\rangle, |ba\rangle, |bb\rangle$$

Consequences for Quantum Computing

NAND gate

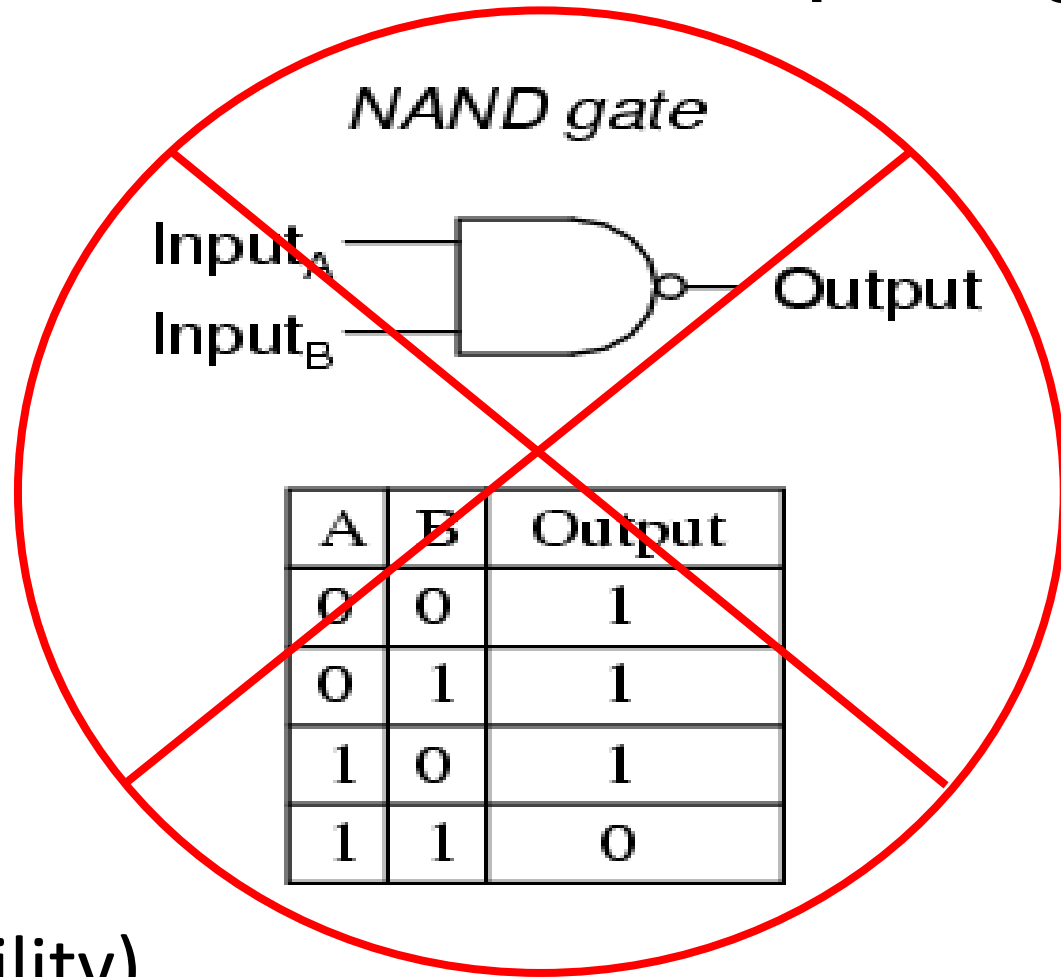


- NAND gate is a fundamental building block for digital computers

A	B	Output
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Consequences for Quantum Computing

- NAND gate is not reversible
- Need to modify a 2 qubit input system so that the output can display bi-directional properties (physics property of reversibility)



Design Reversible 2 Qubit Gate

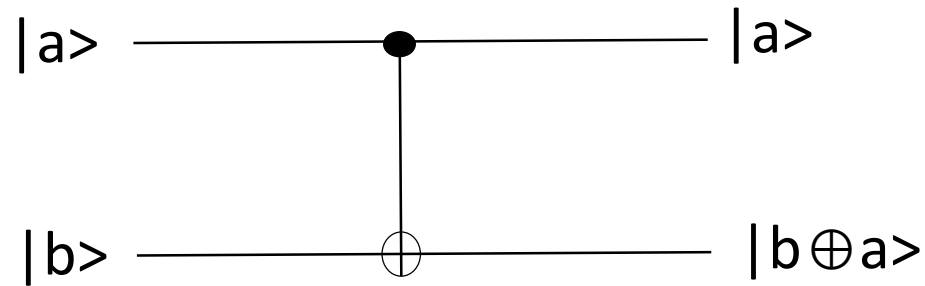
Controlled-NOT Gate

Matrix representation rules for the CNOT gate

$$|a\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, |b\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |aa\rangle &\rightarrow |aa\rangle \\ |ab\rangle &\rightarrow |ab\rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |ba\rangle &\rightarrow |bb\rangle \\ |bb\rangle &\rightarrow |ba\rangle \end{aligned}$$



$$U_{CNOT} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix \rightarrow Reversibility

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

$$U_{CNOT}^\dagger U_{CNOT} = I$$

Additional Useful Mathematical Operation

Exclusive Disjunction

- Exclusive disjunction of $a \oplus b = (a \vee b) \wedge \neg(a \wedge b)$
- Truth table for this operation is

Input		Output
a	b	
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Building a Reversible 2 Qubit Gate

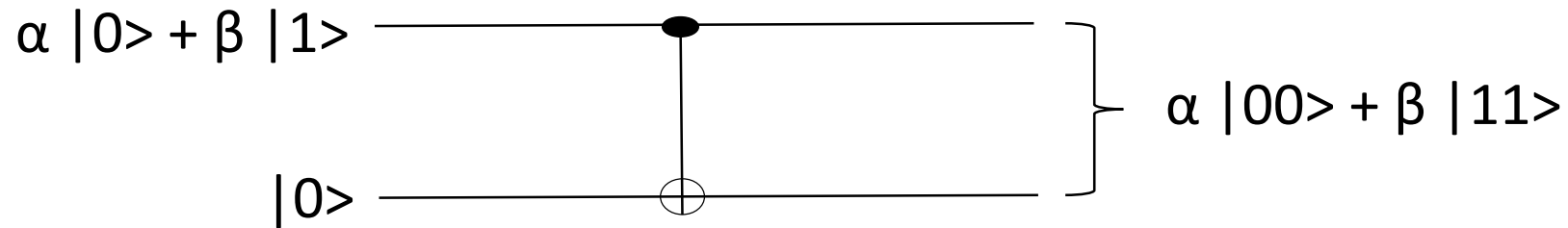
- A two qubit quantum logic gate has a control qubit and a target qubit
- The gate is designed such that if
 - the control bit is set to 0 the target bit is unchanged
 - The control bit is set to 1 the target qubit is flipped

Input	Output
$ 00\rangle$	$ 00\rangle$
$ 01\rangle$	$ 01\rangle$
$ 10\rangle$	$ 11\rangle$
$ 11\rangle$	$ 10\rangle$

- Can be expressed as $|a, b\rangle \longrightarrow |a, b \oplus a\rangle$
- The CNOT gate is generally used in quantum computing to generate entangled states

Quantum Mechanics Surprises Imposed on 2 Qubit Gates

- Consider the CNOT gate below with the given inputs



- The output will be $\alpha |00\rangle + \beta |11\rangle$

Can we Duplicate Quantum States For Programming Quantum Computers?

- Assume there exists two quantum systems P and Q both in a common Hilbert space containing those systems
- Goal: Take a state $|\alpha\rangle_P$ in system P and copy it to system Q
Start with the P state α and combine it with some unknown state Q (call it “ β ”)
 $|\alpha\rangle_P \otimes |\beta\rangle_Q$ (assuming no prior information about $|\beta\rangle_Q$) in such a way that in the end a composite state $|\alpha\rangle_P \otimes |\alpha\rangle_Q$ will be constructed

Can we Duplicate Quantum States For Programming Quantum Computers?

- Need to demonstrate that there is no unitary operator that can be constructed for all states $|\alpha\rangle_p$ and any arbitrary state $|\beta\rangle_q$

$$U(|\alpha\rangle_p |\beta\rangle_q) = \exp(i\Upsilon(\alpha, \beta)) |\alpha\rangle_p |\alpha\rangle_q$$

where Υ is some real number depending on α and β

- If it is possible to fully copy two states then the combined state should obey the time evolution relations connecting unitary and Hermitian states $U(t) = \exp(iH(t)) \rightarrow \exp(iH \otimes H)$

Proof of the No Cloning Theorem

- Start with arbitrary pair of states from P and Q ($|\alpha\rangle_P$ and $|\lambda\rangle_Q$) in the Hilbert space

- Because U is unitary

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \alpha | \lambda \rangle \langle \beta | \beta \rangle &\equiv \langle \alpha |_P \langle \beta |_Q | \lambda \rangle_P | \beta \rangle_Q = \langle \alpha |_P \langle \beta |_Q U^\dagger U | \lambda \rangle_P | \beta \rangle_Q \\
 &= \exp -i(\gamma(\alpha, \beta) - \gamma(\lambda, \beta)) \langle \alpha |_P \langle \alpha |_Q | \lambda \rangle_P | \lambda \rangle_Q \\
 &\equiv \exp -i(\gamma(\alpha, \beta) - \gamma(\lambda, \beta)) \langle \alpha | \lambda \rangle^2
 \end{aligned}$$

No Cloning Theorem

- Assuming that the arbitrary state $|\beta\rangle$ that was picked is normalized then $|\langle \alpha | \lambda \rangle|^2 = |\langle \alpha | \lambda \rangle|$
- Can now argue that there are only 2 options
 1. $\alpha = \exp(i\mu) \lambda$ for any μ
 2. α is orthogonal to β
- For any arbitrary states the two options above cannot be the only possible choices *
- This implies that it is impossible to create an identical copy of an arbitrary unknown quantum state

*Cauchy Schwarz inequality states that for all vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} the following must be true for the inner product space

$$|\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle| \leq \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$$

Conclusion - No Cloning Theorem

- There is no unitary operator U on $H \otimes H$ such that for all normalized states $|\alpha\rangle_P$ and $|\beta\rangle_Q$

$$U(|\alpha\rangle_P |\beta\rangle_Q) = \exp(i\gamma(\alpha, \beta)) |\alpha\rangle_P |\alpha\rangle_Q$$

Questions