Breaking News...

- Google claims quantum supremacy
- IBM announces Quantum Computation Center and 53-qubit system

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Google claims to have reached quantum supremacy

Researchers say their quantum computer has calculated an impossible problem for ordinary machines

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NASA/TP-2019-220319



Quantum Supremacy Using a Programmable Superconducting Processor

Eleanor G. Rieffel NASA Ames Research Center Rivals rubbish Google's claim of quantum supremacy

Researchers take aim at tech company for declaring computing milestone

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Quantum supremacy using a programmable superconducting processor

Google AI Quantum and collaborators^{\dagger}

The tantalizing promise of quantum computers is that certain computational tasks might be executed exponentially faster on a quantum processor than on a classical processor. A fundamental challenge is to build a high-fidelity processor capable of running quantum algorithms in an exponentially large computational space. Here, we report using a processor with programmable superconducting qubits to create quantum states on 53 qubits, occupying a state space $2^{53} \sim 10^{16}$. Measurements from repeated experiments sample the corresponding probability distribution, which we verify using classical simulations. While our processor takes about 200 seconds to sample one instance of the quantum circuit 1 million times, a state-of-the-art supercomputer would require approximately 10,000 years to perform the equivalent task. This dramatic speedup relative to all known classical algorithms provides an experimental realization of quantum supremacy on a computational task and heralds the advent of a much-anticipated computing paradigm.

| Rod Van Meter @rdviii · 16h By my count, on the new Google supremacy paper, there are 1.43 authors per qubit. | | | | ~ |
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The Chip (Sycamore)





Quantum Supremacy

- What is the task?
 - sampling the output of a pseudo-random quantum circuit
 - probability distribution of the [measured] bitstrings resembles a speckled intensity pattern produced by light interference in laser scatter
 - classically computing [...] becomes exponentially more difficult as the number of qubits (width) and number of gate cycles (depth) grows



$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{XEB}} = 2^n \langle P(x_i) \rangle_i - 1$$

53 qubits, 1113 single-qubit gates, 430 two-qubit gates = 0.002



IBM Quantum Computing Center

IBM's 10 Quantum Device Lineup Johannesburg Almaden Ourense Poughkeepsie Boeblingen Valencia Singapore Vigo Melbourne Yorktown

53 Qubit Rochester Device



Deutsch-Josza Algorithm

Problem: Given an *n*-bit Boolean function (mapping *n* bits to 1) that is known to be either constant or balanced, determine whether it is <u>balanced</u> or <u>constant</u>. A function is "balanced" if an equal number of input values return 0 and 1.

Apply phase shift of π to negate elements where f(x) = 1. Apply Walsh-Hadamard to the result.

For constant f, the final output is $|0\rangle$ with probability 1. For balanced f, the final output is non-zero with probability 1.

(Details on next slides.)

Requires only a single call to black box U_f , while classical algorithm requires at least $2^{n-1} + 1$ calls.

Background: Hamming Distance

The Hamming distance $d_H(x, y)$ between two bit strings x and y is the number of bits in which the two strings differ.

The Hamming weight $d_H(x)$ of a bit string x is the number of 1 bits.

For two bit strings x and y, the operator $x \cdot y$ gives the number of common 1 bits.

Some interesting notes:

$$x \cdot y = d_H(x \wedge y) \qquad \sum_{x=0}^{2^n - 1} (-1)^{x \cdot x} = 0 \qquad \sum_{x=0}^{2^n - 1} (-1)^{x \cdot y} = \begin{cases} 2^n & \text{if } y = 0\\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

More on Walsh-Hadamard

$$W \left| 0 \right\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} \left| x \right\rangle$$

$$W |r\rangle = (H \otimes \cdots \otimes H)(|r_{n-1}\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |r_0\rangle)$$

= $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}}(|0\rangle + (-1)^{r_{n-1}} |1\rangle) \otimes \cdots \otimes (|0\rangle + (-1)^{r_0} |1\rangle)$
= $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{s=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{s_{n-1}r_{n-1}} |s_{n-1}\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes (-1)^{s_0r_0} |s_0\rangle$
= $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{s=0}^{2^n-1} (-1)^{s \cdot r} |s\rangle$

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(Details on next slides.)

Quirk Circuit

Requires only a single call to black box U_f , while classical algorithm requires at least $2^{n-1} + 1$ calls.

First, prepare a complete superposition, and then apply the phase shift algorithm to negate the terms corresponding to vectors $|x\rangle$ where f(x) = 1.

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{f(i)} |i\rangle$$

Next, apply the Walsh-Hadamard transform to obtain:

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left((-1)^{f(i)} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{i \cdot j} |j\rangle \right)$$

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left((-1)^{f(i)} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{i \cdot j} |j\rangle \right)$$

For constant f, the $(-1)^{f(i)} = (-1)^{f(0)}$ is simply a global phase, and the state $|\phi\rangle$ is $|0\rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} |\phi\rangle &= (-1)^{f(0)} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j} \left(\sum_{i} (-1)^{i \cdot j} \right) |j\rangle \\ &= (-1)^{f(0)} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (-1)^{i \cdot 0} |0\rangle \\ &= (-1)^{f(0)} |0\rangle \end{aligned}$$

because $\sum_{i} (-1)^{i \cdot j} = 0$ for $j \neq 0$.

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left((-1)^{f(i)} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} (-1)^{i \cdot j} |j\rangle \right)$$

For balanced f,

$$|\phi\rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j} \left(\sum_{i \in X_0} (-1)^{i \cdot j} - \sum_{i \notin X_0} (-1)^{i \cdot j} \right) |j\rangle$$
, where $X_0 = \{x | f(x) = 0\}$

In this case, when j = 0, the amplitude is zero. Therefore, measuring $|\phi\rangle$ in the standard basis will return a non-zero j with probability 1.

Links to Quirk Circuits

- <u>Deutsch</u>
- <u>Selective Phase Change</u>
- <u>Deutsch-Josza</u>

Simon's Algorithm

Problem: Given a 2-to-1 function *f*, such that $f(x) = f(x \oplus a)$, find the hidden string *a*.

Create superposition $|x\rangle|f(x)\rangle$

Measure the right part, which projects the left state into $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x_0\rangle + |x_0 \oplus a\rangle)$. Apply Walsh-Hadamard. (Details next slide.)

Measurement yields a random y such that $y \cdot a = 0 \pmod{2}$. Computation is repeated until n independent equations – about 2n times. Solve for a in $O(n^2)$ steps.

Requires O(n) calls to U_f , followed by $O(n^2)$ steps to solve for a. Classical approach requires $O(2^{n/2})$ calls to f.

$$|0\rangle - W - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x_0\rangle + |x_0 \oplus a\rangle)$$
$$|0\rangle - U_f - f(x_0)$$

$$W\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|x_0\rangle + |x_0 \oplus a\rangle)\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y} ((-1)^{x_0 \cdot y} + (-1)^{(x_0 \oplus a) \cdot y)} |y\rangle\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{y} (-1)^{x_0 \cdot y} (1 + (-1)^{a \cdot y}) |y\rangle$$
$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{2^{n+1}}} \sum_{y \cdot a \text{ even}} (-1)^{x_0 \cdot y} |y\rangle$$

Measurement yields random y such that $y \cdot a = 0 \mod 2$, so the unknown bits of a_i of a must satisfy this equation:

 $y_0 \cdot a_0 \oplus \cdots \oplus y_{n-1} \cdot a_{n-1} = 0$

Computation is repeated until n linearly independent equations have been found. Each time, the resulting equation has at least a 50% probability of being linearly independent of the previous equations. After repeating 2n times, there is a 50% chance that n linearly independent equations have been found. These equations can be solved to find a in $O(n^2)$ steps.



- Any efficient reversible classical circuit can be efficiently implemented as a quantum circuit.
 - Use inverse function to reduce space and unentangle temporary bits.
- For quantum advantage, add some non-classical operations.
 - E.g, phase change.
- Are these algorithms really useful?
 - Perhaps not directly, but they illustrate ways in which quantum computing may have an advantage over classical computing.