

# ?Introduction to Quantum Computing?

## Final Report of the INTEREST Program

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**Abstract:** The goal of the course was to explore Quantum Mechanics (QM) in a simple and intuitive way. We explored the basics of Spin Mechanics, the double-slit experiment and the Stern-Gerlach experiment, and then proceeded to study qubit measurements. We learned about quantum gates, quantum states, and finally we studied Grover's Algorithm. For the computational part of the course, we utilised the SU2 and CPX packages for performing some measurements on the HYBRILIT supercomputing platform and plotted the results using ROOT and Origin. Finally, we used IBM's qiskit platform in order to study and code quantum circuits.

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## 1. Spin Quantum Mechanics

The spin of an elementary particle would appear, on the surface, to be hardly different from the spin of a large, macroscopic, object. Obviously, there is far more going on here than what a simplistic picture of, let's say, a microscopic sphere spinning around an axis, can offer.

The Stern-Gerlach experiment, first performed in 1922, has long been considered the quintessential experiment that illustrates the fact that the electron possesses intrinsic angular momentum, or how it's commonly called, spin.

The original experimental arrangement took the form of a collimated beam of silver atoms heading in the Y direction and passing through a non-uniform magnetic field directed in the Z-direction. Assuming the silver atoms possess a non-zero magnetic moment, the magnetic field will exert a torque on the magnetic dipole so that the magnetic moment vector will precess about the direction of the magnetic field. This will not affect the Z component of the magnetic moment, but it will affect the X and Y components. Also, the non-uniformity of the magnetic field means that the atoms will suffer from a sideways pushing force given by the expression:

$$F_z = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial z} \quad [1]$$

where  $U = -\mu B = -\mu_z B$  is the potential energy of the silver atom in a magnetic field.

Obviously, different orientations of the magnetic vector will lead to different values of  $\mu_z$ , which in turn means that there are different forces acting on the silver atoms depending on the value of  $\mu_z$ .

The expectation based on classical physics is that the magnetic dipole moment vectors of the atoms will be randomly oriented in space, so there should be a continuous spread in the z component of the magnetic moments of the silver atoms. Ultimately, a line should appear on the observation screen along the Z direction. Instead, what happened was that the silver atoms arrived on the screen at only two points that corresponded to magnetic moments of

$$\mu_z = + - \mu_B \quad [2]$$

where

$$\mu_B = \frac{eh}{2m_e} \quad [3]$$

where  $\mu_B$  is known as the Bohr Magnetron.

**Significance and Public Understanding:** Quantum mechanics emerged as a branch of physics in the early 1900s to explain nature on the scale of atoms and led to advances such as transistors, lasers, and magnetic resonance imaging. The idea to merge quantum mechanics and information theory arose in the 1970s but garnered little attention until 1982, when physicist Richard Feynman gave a talk in which he reasoned that computing based on classical logic could not tractably process calculations describing quantum phenomena. Computing based on quantum phenomena configured to simulate other quantum phenomena, however, would not be subject to the same bottlenecks. Although this application eventually became the field of quantum simulation, it didn't spark much research activity at the time.

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41 The effects of this experiment are generally large regarding  
 42 Quantum Mechanics. Regarding Quantum Computing, the  
 43 main ideas to be taken from this are:

- 44 • All two level systems are equivalent to spin
- 45 • Qubits can describe electron spin
- 46 • A qubit can be measured in different bases
- 47 • Entanglement

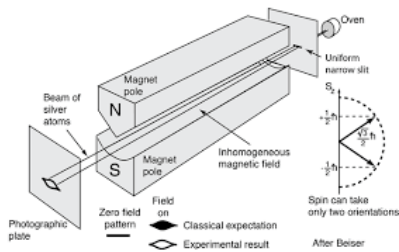


Fig. 1. Scheme of the Stern-Gerlach experiment

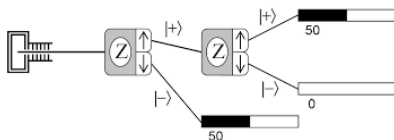


Fig. 2. Postulate of Measurement regarding Stern-Gerlach

48 **A. A few words about the double-slit experiment.** In the basic  
 49 version of this experiment, a coherent light source, such as a  
 50 laser beam, illuminates a plate pierced by two parallel slits,  
 51 and the light passing through the slits is observed on a screen  
 52 behind the plate. The wave nature of light causes the light  
 53 waves passing through the two slits to interfere, producing  
 54 bright and dark bands on the screen – a result that would not  
 55 be expected if light consisted of classical particles. However,  
 56 the light is always found to be absorbed at the screen at discrete  
 57 points, as individual particles (not waves); the interference  
 58 pattern appears via the varying density of these particle hits  
 59 on the screen. Furthermore, versions of the experiment that  
 60 include detectors at the slits find that each detected photon  
 61 passes through one slit (as would a classical particle), and not  
 62 through both slits (as would a wave).

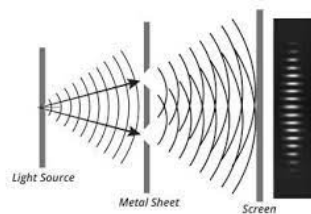


Fig. 3. Scheme of the double-slit experiment

63 This is important because, in the case of quantum comput-  
 64 ers:

- 65 • Qubits have wave characteristics and properties
- 66 • Qubits fall under the effects of the postulate of superpo-  
 67 sition and thus can interfere with each other
- 68 • Interference can amplify the probability of a correct an-  
 69 swer

## 2. Qubits and properties 70

71 A qubit is a two-state (or two-level) quantum-mechanical  
 72 system, one of the simplest quantum systems displaying the  
 73 peculiarity of quantum mechanics. In a classical system, a bit  
 74 would have to be in one state or the other. However, quantum  
 75 mechanics allows the qubit to be in a coherent superposition  
 76 of both states simultaneously, a property that is fundamental  
 77 to quantum mechanics and quantum computing.

78 For the purpose of this report, even though there is a  
 79 multitude of implementations for a Qubit, we will only refer  
 80 to the Superconducting Platform.

81 **A. Superconduction.** If mercury is cooled below 4.1 K, it loses  
 82 all electric resistance. This discovery of superconductivity was  
 83 followed by the observation of other metals which exhibit zero  
 84 resistivity below a certain critical temperature. The fact that  
 85 the resistance is zero has been demonstrated by sustaining  
 86 currents in superconducting lead rings for many years with  
 87 no measurable reduction. An induced current in an ordinary  
 88 metal ring would decay rapidly from the dissipation of ordinary  
 89 resistance, but superconducting rings had exhibited a decay  
 90 constant of over a billion years!

91 The disappearance of electrical resistivity was modeled in  
 92 terms of electron pairing in the crystal lattice by John Bardeen,  
 93 Leon Cooper, and Robert Schrieffer in what is commonly called  
 94 the BCS theory.

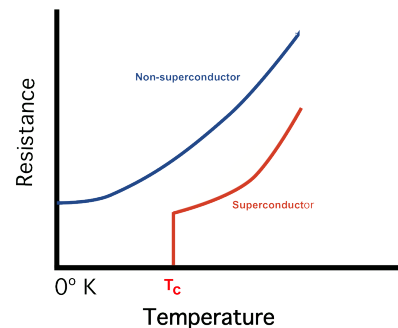


Fig. 4. Difference between a conductor and a superconductor

95 **B. Josephson Junctions.** The Josephson effect is the phe-  
 96 nomenon of supercurrent, a current that flows continuously  
 97 without any voltage applied, across a device known as a  
 98 Josephson junction (JJ), which consists of two or more su-  
 99 perconductors coupled by a weak link. The weak link can  
 100 consist of a thin insulating barrier (known as a supercon-  
 101 ductor-insulator-superconductor junction, or S-I-S), a short  
 102 section of non-superconducting metal (S-N-S), or a physical  
 103 constriction that weakens the superconductivity at the point  
 104 of contact (S-s-S).

105 Electronic circuits can be built from Josephson junctions,  
 106 especially digital logic circuitry. Many researchers are work-  
 107 ing on building ultrafast computers using Josephson logic.

Josephson junctions can also be fashioned into circuits called SQUIDs—an acronym for superconducting quantum interference device. These devices are extremely sensitive and very useful in constructing extremely sensitive magnetometers and voltmeters.

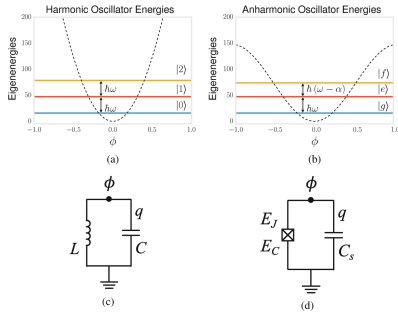


Fig. 5. Quantum phenomena in a circuit

### 113 3. Qubits and measurements

114 Below we describe the measurements we performed using  
 115 the various platforms and packages and then we provide the  
 116 processed data we obtained.

- 117 • Qubit Frequency Scan : there is a frequency at which the  
 118 qubit resonates which is defined by the difference of energy  
 119 between it's ground state and excited state. Even though  
 120 by definition superconduction implies a large number of  
 121 energy levels, it can be tweaked in order to separate low  
 122 energy levels from high energy levels ones.
- 123 • Rabi Experiment : using the previously determined fre-  
 124 quency of the qubit we can determine the strength of the  
 125  $\pi$  pulse. The pulse "jumps" the qubit from it's ground  
 126 state to it's excited state.
- 127 • Discriminating 0 vs 1 : We find out the distribution of  
 128 states in our measurements.
- 129 • Determination of the Decay Time: The application of  
 130 a pulse and a time delay. We vary and repeat with  
 131 incremental time delays.
- 132 • Ramsey Experiment: We first apply a  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  pulse, wait and  
 133 then apply another  $\frac{\pi}{2}$
- 134 • Measurement of the coherence time of the qubit
- 135 • Dynamical Decoupling

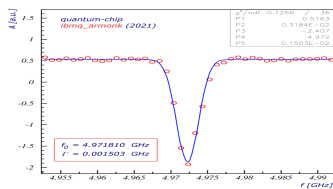


Fig. 6. Qubit Frequency Scan

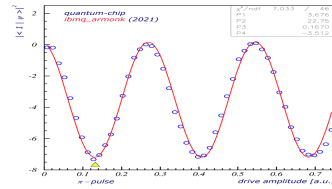


Fig. 7. Rabi Experiment

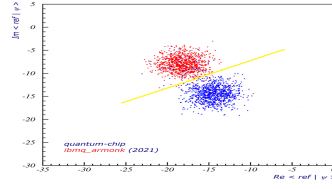


Fig. 8. Discriminating 0 vs 1

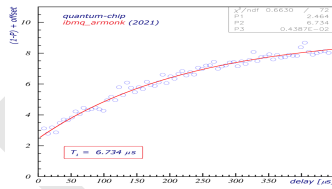


Fig. 9. Decay time

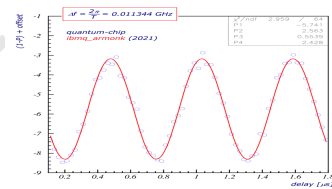


Fig. 10. Ramsey Experiment

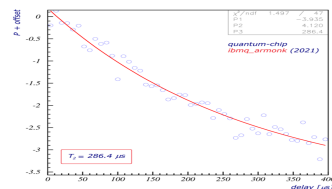


Fig. 11. Coherence Time

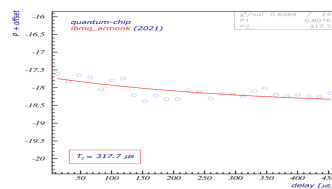


Fig. 12. Dynamical Decoupling

### 4. Grover's Algorithm

Grover's original paper described the algorithm as a database search algorithm, and this description is still common. The database in this analogy is a table of all of the function's outputs, indexed by the corresponding input. However, this database is not represented explicitly. Instead, an oracle is

invoked to evaluate an item by its index. Reading a full data-  
 base item by item and converting it into such a representation  
 may take a lot longer than Grover's search. To account for  
 such effects, Grover's algorithm can be viewed as solving an  
 equation or satisfying a constraint. In such applications, the  
 oracle is a way to check the constraint and is not related to the  
 search algorithm. This separation usually prevents algorithmic  
 optimizations, whereas conventional search algorithms often  
 rely on such optimizations and avoid exhaustive search.

The major barrier to instantiating a speedup from Grover's  
 algorithm is that the quadratic speedup achieved is too modest  
 to overcome the large overhead of near-term quantum com-  
 puters. However, later generations of fault-tolerant quantum  
 computers with better hardware performance may be able to  
 realize these speedups for practical instances of data.

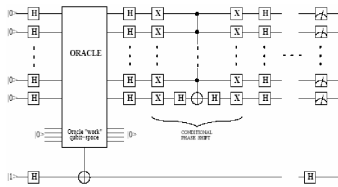


Fig. 13. Grover's Algorithm

## 5. Conclusions

- All two level systems are equivalent to electron spin.
- A qubit is a quantum representation of a classical bit.
- Quantum gates allow us to manipulate a qubit and change its states.

The experience of the course in itself was a pleasant one. I got familiar with the IBM platform and learned a lot about the future of computing.