

Basics of Quantum Computing in CT

Marc Kachelrieß

`marc.kachelriess@dkfz.de`

German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ)

Heidelberg, Germany

www.dkfz.de/ct



DEUTSCHES
KREBSFORSCHUNGSZENTRUM
IN DER HELMHOLTZ-GEMEINSCHAFT

BASICS OF BASICS

Recap

Complex conjugate $z^* = x - iy$

Symmetric matrix $M^T = M$

Orthogonal matrix $O^T = O^{-1}$

Hermitian adjoint = conjugate transpose $M^\dagger = (M^T)^* = (M^*)^T$

Hermitian operator (e.g. Hermitian matrix) $H^\dagger = H$

Unitary matrix $U^\dagger = U^{-1}$

Hermitian operators have real eigenvalues $H|n\rangle = \lambda_n|n\rangle \quad \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$

The matrix exponential of a hermitian is unitary $U = e^{iH}$

Important Statements

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\Psi(t)\rangle = H |\Psi(t)\rangle$$

Schrödinger equation

- Quantum algorithms¹ are those that are
 - inherently quantum
 - use some essential quantum feature such as superposition or entanglement
- The Schrödinger equation is a linear differential equation in time and position. Thus any linear combination of all the eigenfunctions of the Schrödinger equation can be a state of the system.
- Its solution is described by a unitary matrix

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = U(t) |\Psi(0)\rangle = e^{\frac{1}{i\hbar} H t} |\Psi(0)\rangle$$

- A qubit is a two-basis-state QM system with basis $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. Its state is

$$|\Psi\rangle = c_0 |0\rangle + c_1 |1\rangle$$

$$|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 = 1$$

- Two qubits are described by a four-dimensional Hilbert space.

¹All classical algorithms can be performed on a quantum computer. However, it may not make sense to do so.

Pure vs. Mixed States

- Pure states are fully specified quantum states with intrinsic measurement uncertainty.

$$|\Psi\rangle = c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle$$

$$\rho = |\Psi\rangle\langle\Psi|$$

Measuring in the computational basis $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ yields $|i\rangle$ with probability $|c_i|^2$.

If we want to estimate the value of $|c_i|^2$ we have to measure often and compute the relative frequency of having measured $|i\rangle$.

- Mixed states describe statistical mixtures of quantum states and therefore include classical uncertainty.

$$\rho = \sum_k p_k |\Psi_k\rangle\langle\Psi_k|$$

Tensor Product Notation

- Equivalent notations for a tensor product of, say, three qubits:

$$\underset{\substack{\text{most} \\ \text{significant} \\ \text{qubit}}}{|q_2\rangle} \otimes |q_1\rangle \otimes \underset{\substack{\text{least} \\ \text{significant} \\ \text{qubit}}}{|q_0\rangle} = |q_2\rangle|q_1\rangle|q_0\rangle = |q_2, q_1, q_0\rangle = |q_2q_1q_0\rangle = \left| \sum_{b=0}^2 q_b 2^b \right\rangle.$$

- By convention, lexicographical ordering is used:

$$\begin{pmatrix} |0, 0, 0\rangle \\ |0, 0, 1\rangle \\ |0, 1, 0\rangle \\ |0, 1, 1\rangle \\ |1, 0, 0\rangle \\ |1, 0, 1\rangle \\ |1, 1, 0\rangle \\ |1, 1, 1\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} |000\rangle \\ |001\rangle \\ |010\rangle \\ |011\rangle \\ |100\rangle \\ |101\rangle \\ |110\rangle \\ |111\rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \\ |2\rangle \\ |3\rangle \\ |4\rangle \\ |5\rangle \\ |6\rangle \\ |7\rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

Degrees of Freedom for Pure States

- A single qubit state $|\Psi\rangle = c_0|0\rangle + c_1|1\rangle$ is described by two complex-valued coefficients. These must lie on the unit circle $|c_0|^2 + |c_1|^2 = 1$. A global phase factor is irrelevant. Therefore it has two degrees of freedom (two free real values).

- An N qubit state

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{2^N-1} c_k |k\rangle$$

with $\sum_k |c_k|^2 = 1$ therefore has $2 \cdot 2^N - 2$ degrees of freedom.

- However, there is Holevo's bound: You can maximally access N classical bits of this information.

Hadamard Gate

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} |0\rangle \\ |1\rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

- Switches to Hadamard base

$$H|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) = |+\rangle$$

$$H|1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) = |-\rangle$$

- Generates all basis values with equal amplitude

$$H^{\otimes n}|0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} |y\rangle$$

- For $x \in \{0, 1\}$

$$H|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle$$

- For $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$

$$H^{\otimes n}|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle$$

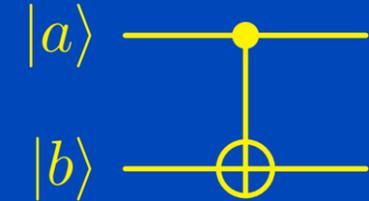
CNOT Gate

$$P_{\text{CNOT}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{matrix} |ab\rangle \\ |00\rangle \\ |01\rangle \\ |10\rangle \\ |11\rangle \end{matrix}$$

- Two qubits a and b

$$\text{CNOT}(|a, b\rangle) = |a, a \oplus b\rangle$$

XOR or
plus modulo 2



$$\begin{aligned} & \text{CNOT}(c_{00}|00\rangle + c_{01}|01\rangle + c_{10}|10\rangle + c_{11}|11\rangle) \\ &= c_{00}|00\rangle + c_{01}|01\rangle + c_{10}|11\rangle + c_{11}|10\rangle \end{aligned}$$

- Note:

- NOT $a \oplus 1 = \bar{a}$
- XOR $a \oplus b$

Toffoli Gate (CCNOT)

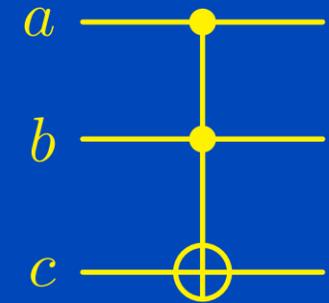
$$P_{\text{Toffoli}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{matrix} |abc\rangle \\ \begin{pmatrix} |000\rangle \\ |001\rangle \\ |010\rangle \\ |011\rangle \\ |100\rangle \\ |101\rangle \\ |110\rangle \\ |111\rangle \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

- Three qubits a , b and c

$$\text{Toff}(|a, b, c\rangle) = |a, b, c \oplus (a \wedge b)\rangle$$

XOR or plus mod 2 AND or times

$$\text{Toff} \left(\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \oplus (a \wedge b) \end{pmatrix}$$

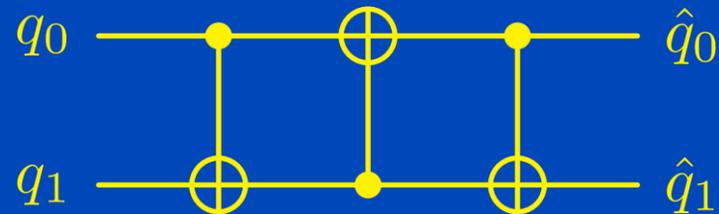


- Note:

- AND $0 \oplus (a \wedge b) = a \wedge b$
- NOT $1 \oplus (a \wedge 1) = \bar{a}$
- OR requires four Toffoli gates (NOT, NOT, AND, NOT), since $a \vee b = \overline{\bar{a} \wedge \bar{b}}$.
- XOR $c \oplus (1 \wedge b) = c \oplus b$

SWAP Gate

$$\text{SWAP}(|a, b\rangle) = |b, a\rangle$$



Short notation:



Note:

A SWAP gate implements a global permutation of the computational basis, not a local memory access.

E.g., swapping qubits 1 and 2 maps the basis state

$$|5\rangle = |101\rangle$$

to the basis state

$$|3\rangle = |011\rangle.$$

q_0 in	q_1 in	q_0 out	q_1 out
0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1

ISING MODEL

Ising Model and Quantum Annealing

- The Ising model is a universal formulation of optimization problems as energy minimization of binary variables – originally for magnetism, today the backbone of quantum optimization.
- Find $s_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ that minimizes the Hamiltonian

$$H_I(s) = \sum M_{ij} s_i s_j + \sum m_i s_i$$

In ideal quantum annealing, the ground-state bitstring is obtained deterministically.

In real devices, repeated runs are needed because they are noisy, thermal, or may have degenerate ground states.

- Can be directly solved by setting the matrix values $\{M_{ij}, m_i\}$ and running the solver using a gradual annealing schedule:

$$H(t) = \underbrace{\alpha(t)}_{\substack{\text{annealing term} \\ \text{(decreases in time)}}} H_0 + \underbrace{\beta(t)}_{\substack{\text{Ising term} \\ \text{(increases in time)}}} H_I = \alpha(t) \sum_i \sigma_i^x + \beta(t) \left(\sum_{i < j} M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z + \sum_i m_i \sigma_i^z \right)$$

Pauli operators

$$\sigma^x |0\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$\sigma^x |1\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$\sigma^z |0\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$\sigma^z |1\rangle = -|1\rangle$$

Terms must not commute. Annealing requires a non-commuting driver. X is the simplest and physically natural choice. It represents quantum tunneling between $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. $[\sigma^x, \sigma^z] = 2i\sigma^y \neq 0$

The device is cooled to mK temperatures.

At $t = 0$ only the transverse-field Hamiltonian H_0 is active. The system relaxes thermally into its ground state $|+\rangle = (|0\rangle + |1\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$.

Quantum Annealing vs. Gate-Based QC

Quantum Annealing	Gate-Based Quantum Computing
Superposition is the thermal ground state, e.g. strong transverse field	Superposition created by gates, e.g. Hadamards on each qubit
Analog Hamiltonian physics	Digital control
<p>Ising is the hardware that works by adiabatic annealing</p> $ \Psi(T)\rangle = \mathcal{T} \exp\left(-i \int_0^T H(t) dt\right) \Psi(0)\rangle$	<p>Ising needs to be emulated as a quantum operator (of depth L) ...</p> $ \Psi(T)\rangle = \mathcal{T} \exp\left(-i \sum_{l=1}^L (\alpha_l H_0 + \beta_l H_1)\right) \Psi(0)\rangle$ <p>... and to be iteratively updated by invoking several runs of the quantum program, i.e. QAOA.</p>
Physics-guided with very limited freedom.	Freedom with very little physics guidance.
More or less restricted to Ising	<p>Not restricted to Ising</p> <p>General Hamiltonians (Heisenberg, Hubbard, quantum chemistry, lattice gauge theories) – True quantum dynamics (Real-time evolution, spectra, transitions, scattering) – Quantum algorithms (Phase estimation, amplitude amplification, linear systems) – Scalability (digital error correction and, potentially, fault tolerance) – ...</p>

\mathcal{T} = time ordering operator, QAOA = quantum approximate optimization algorithm

Ising Model and QUBO

- The Ising model is a universal formulation of spin energies and spin spin interactions. With $s_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ the Hamiltonian is

$$H_I(s) = \sum_{i < j} M_{ij} s_i s_j + \sum_i m_i s_i$$

- Quadratic unconstrained binary optimization (QUBO) is the search for $b_i \in \{0, 1\}$ that minimize the cost function

$$C(b) = \sum_{i < j} K_{ij} b_i b_j + \sum_i k_i b_i$$

- Both problems are equivalent (up to an irrelevant constant) and therefore a quantum system realizing H_I may be useful to minimize C .

SOME EXAMPLES IN OUR FIELD

Binary Tomography

- Binary image $b(x, y) = b_i \in \{0, 1\}$. X-ray transform operator X . Projection data p with

$$p = X \cdot b$$

- Find b by minimizing

$$C_1 = (X \cdot b - p)^2 = b^T \cdot X^T \cdot X \cdot b - 2p^T \cdot X \cdot b + p^2.$$

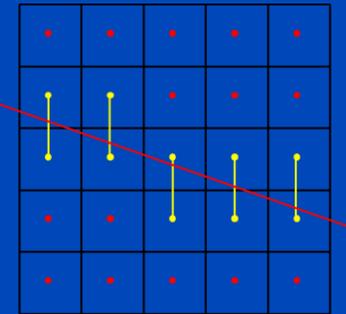
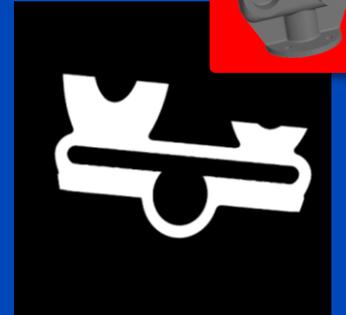
- If we want to find the sparsest solution, also minimize

$$C_2 = \mathbf{1}^T \cdot b = \sum_j b_j.$$

- Minimizing $C_1 + \lambda C_2$ means

$$b = \arg \min_b (b^T \cdot X^T \cdot X \cdot b - 2p^T \cdot X \cdot b + \lambda \mathbf{1}^T \cdot b) = \arg \min_b \left(\sum_{ij} b_i K_{ij} b_j + \sum_i k_i b_i \right)$$

This is solvable by quadratic unconstrained binary optimization (QUBO).



Joseph's forward projector

Enforcing Gradient Sparsity in Binary Tomography

- Instead of minimizing the L_0 norm of the image we could also minimize the gradient's L_0 norm, and thereby enforce homogeneous image regions with few edges in-between.
- Let i index a pixel and j index a pixel in its neighborhood \mathcal{N} . Then

$$C_2 = \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} (b_i - b_j)^2 = \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} (b_i - 2b_i b_j + b_j)$$

would be an adequate cost term, counting the pixels at object edges.

Binary Tomography with Projection Selection

- Binary volume $f_i \in \{0, 1\}$. X-ray transform operator X . Projection data p . Projection selection binaries $s_n \in \{0, 1\}$.

$$S \cdot p = S \cdot X \cdot f \quad S = \text{diag } s = \begin{pmatrix} s_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & s_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & s_N \end{pmatrix}$$

- Find f_i and s_n by minimizing

$$C_1 = (S \cdot X \cdot f - S \cdot p)^2 = f^T \cdot X^T \cdot S \cdot X \cdot f - 2p^T \cdot S \cdot X \cdot f + p^2$$

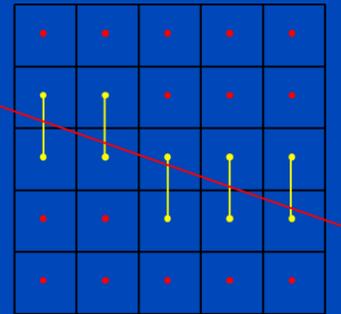
- To enforce gradient and view sparsity, also minimize

$$C_2 = \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} (f_i - f_j)^2 \quad C_3 = \sum_n s_n$$

- Minimizing $C_1 + \lambda_2 C_2 + \lambda_3 C_3$ means (after renaming binaries f_i and s_n)

$$b = \arg \min_b \left(\sum_{ijk} A_{ijk} b_i b_j b_k + \sum_{ij} A_{ij} b_i b_j + \sum_i A_i b_i \right)$$

This is cubic and therefore not (yet) solvable by quadratic unconstrained binary optimization (QUBO).



Joseph's forward projector

Making Cubic Terms be Quadratic

- Let a , b and c be binary variables.
- The ancilla trick with a quadratic penalty does not work:

$$\arg \min_{a,b,c} abc = \arg \min_{a,b,c,d} \left(ad + \lambda \underbrace{(d - bc)^2}_{\text{unfortunately still cubic}} \right)$$

- Instead, one uses a different penalty:

$$\arg \min_{a,b,c} abc = \arg \min_{a,b,c,d} \left(ad + \lambda \underbrace{(bc - 2bd - 2cd + 3d)}_{0 \text{ iff } d=bc, \text{ otherwise positive}} \right)$$

b	c	d	$bc - 2bd - 2cd + 3d$
0	0	0	0 i.e. $bc = d$
0	0	1	3 i.e. $bc \neq d$
0	1	0	0 i.e. $bc = d$
0	1	1	1 i.e. $bc \neq d$
1	0	0	0 i.e. $bc = d$
1	0	1	1 i.e. $bc \neq d$
1	1	0	1 i.e. $bc \neq d$
1	1	1	0 i.e. $bc = d$

Ternary Tomography with One-Hot Coding

- Ternary volume $f_i \in \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$, binary $o_{gi} \in \{0, 1\}$ for one-hot coding:

$$f_i = \sum_{g=1}^3 v_g o_{gi} \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_{g=1}^3 o_{gi} = 1 \quad \text{enforced by penalty} \quad (o_{1i} + o_{2i} + o_{3i} - 1)^2$$

- X-ray transform operator X . Projection data p with $p = X \cdot f$.
- Find f by minimizing

$$C_1 = \sum_n \left(\sum_i X_{ni} f_i - p_n \right)^2$$

- Enforce gradient sparsity

$$C_2 = \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} (f_i - f_j)^2$$

$$C_2 = \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \left(1 - \sum_g o_{gi} o_{gj} \right)$$

- To find the desired o_{gi} , minimize

$$C = \lambda_{\text{one}} \sum_i \left(\sum_g o_{gi} - 1 \right)^2 + \lambda_{\text{raw}} \sum_n \left(\sum_i X_{ni} \sum_g v_g o_{gi} - p_n \right)^2 + \lambda_{\text{grad}} \sum_i \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \left(1 - \sum_g o_{gi} o_{gj} \right)$$

Integer and Real Tomography

- Integer- or real-valued image $f(x, y)$. Radon transform operator R . Projection data p with

$$p = R \cdot f$$

- Find f by minimizing

$$C_1 = (R \cdot f - p)^2 = f^T \cdot R^T \cdot R \cdot f - 2p^T \cdot R \cdot f + p^2.$$

- Replace f_i by its binary expansion

$$f_i = c \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} b_{ip} 2^p$$

- Minimizing C_1 (plus other quadratic constraints $C_2 + C_3 + \dots$) means

$$b = \arg \min_b \left(\sum_{ij} b_i K_{ij} b_j + \sum_i k_i b_i \right)$$



Enforcing Pixel Sparsity in Integer or Real Tomography

- Starting from

$$f_i = c \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} b_{ip} 2^p$$

- To enforce pixel sparsity it is not sufficient to minimize the sum over all b_{ip} . Instead, we need to minimize

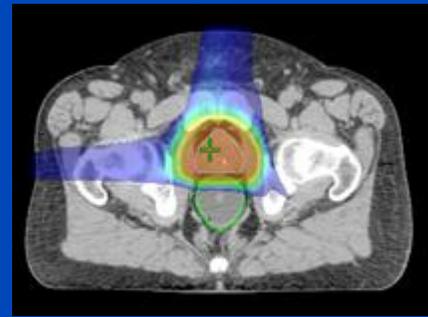
$$C_{\hat{2}} = \sum_i \min(1, \sum_p b_{ip})$$

- Since this is a hard constraint and not (yet) quadratic, we introduce binary slacks and minimize

$$C_2 = \sum_i (\hat{b}_i + \eta((1 - \hat{b}_i) \sum_p b_{ip})).$$

RT Treatment Plan Optimization

(or CT Dose Minimization)



- X-ray or treatment beam index i (orientation, energy, intensity, ...)
- Beam off or on: $b_i \in \{0, 1\}$
- Voxel index j
- Dose d_{ij} of beam i to voxel j .
- Prescribed target dose minimum D^T and organ at risk maximum D^R
- The optimal treatment is given by

$$\mathbf{b} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{b}} \left(\sum_{j \in T} \max(0, D_j^T - \sum_i b_i d_{ij}) + \sum_{j \in R} \max(0, \sum_i b_i d_{ij} - D_j^R) \right)$$

- How can this be converted into a QUBO problem?

Convert Hard Constraints into QUBO

- A sub problem of the previous slide is the constrained problem

$$\mathbf{b} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{b}} \max(0, K - \sum_i k_i b_i)$$

- We introduce two slack variables $u \geq 0$ and $v \geq 0$

$$u - v = K - \sum_i k_i b_i$$

- Since neither u nor v must be negative, we have

$$u = \max(0, K - \sum_i k_i b_i) \quad \text{and} \quad v = \max(0, \sum_i k_i b_i - K)$$

- Our sub problem can now be formulated as QUBO

$$\mathbf{b} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{b}, u, v} (u + \lambda((u - v) - (K - \sum_i k_i b_i))^2)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = c \sum_{p=0}^{P-1} \begin{pmatrix} u_p \\ v_p \end{pmatrix} 2^p$$

$u_p, v_p \in \{0, 1\}$

QUANTUM HARDWARE

Quantum Hardware Today

- Today's quantum hardware splits into
 - large-scale analog annealers (Ising problems)
 - smaller but universal gate-based processors

Quantum Annealing Computers

- **Computational model**

- Based on the Ising Hamiltonian (or QUBO formulation)
- Evolves adiabatically from an initial Hamiltonian H_0 to a problem-specific Hamiltonian H_I .
- Aims at finding low-energy configurations

$$H_I = \sum_{i < j} M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z + \sum_i m_i \sigma_i^z$$

- **Not a universal quantum computer**

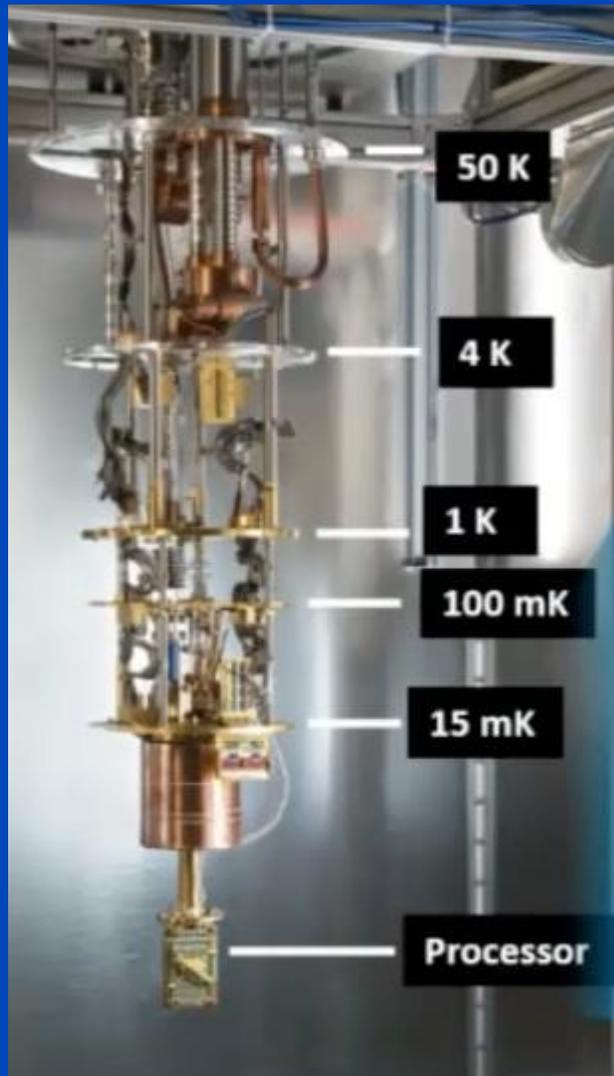
- No execution of arbitrary quantum circuits.

- **Typical hardware characteristics**

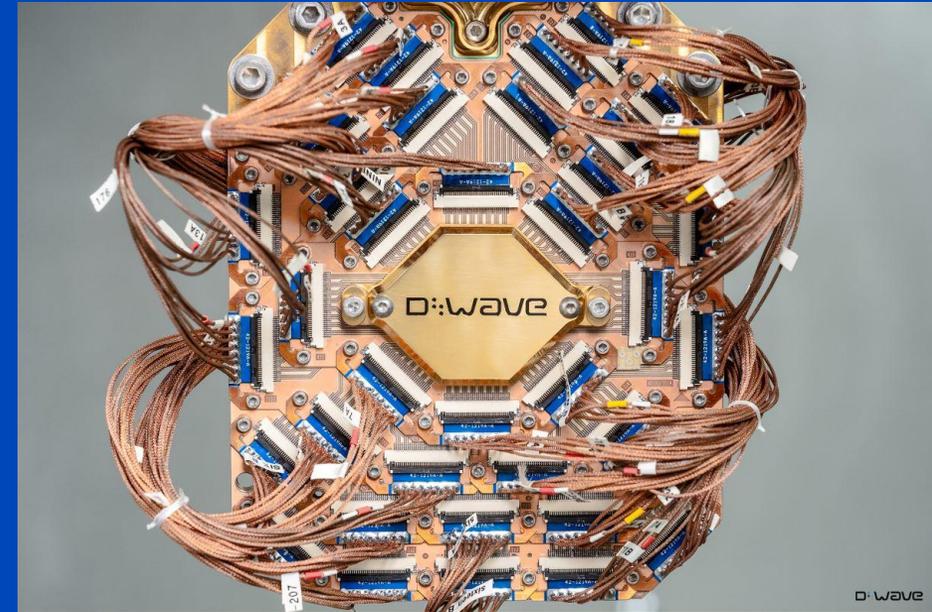
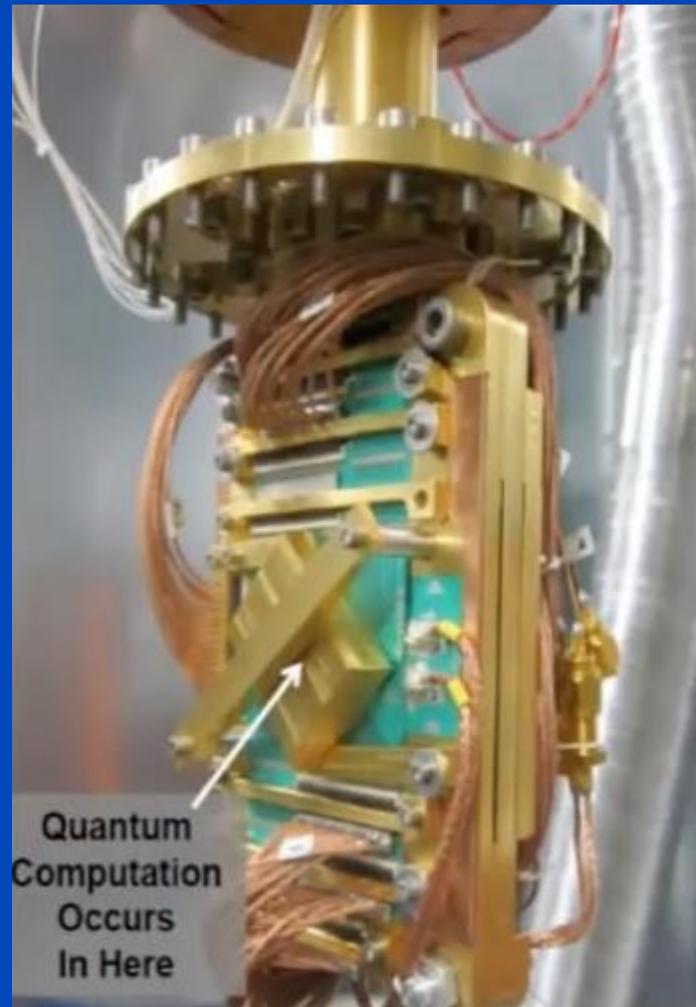
- “Large” number of physical qubits (thousands)
- Sparse but structured connectivity graph
- Analog control parameters M_{ij} and m_i
- Noise and effective temperature are intrinsic to operation

Quantum Annealing Computers

- **Key parameters**
 - Number of physical qubits
 - Connectivity degree (e.g. 15-way, 20-way)
 - Coupler precision and range
 - Annealing time (typically μs to ms)
 - Effective temperature / noise floor
 - Embedding overhead (logical variables \rightarrow chains of physical qubits)
 - Hybrid quantum and classical workflows
- **Representative system**
 - D-Wave Advantage (Pegasus topology)
 - » 5000 superconducting flux qubits
 - » Pegasus graph with ~ 15 connections per qubit
 - » Operated via cloud
- **Annealers trade universality for scale.**



D-Wave



Gate-Based Quantum Computers

- **Computational model**

- Quantum circuit model
- Computation defined by sequences of 1- and 2-qubit gates, followed by measurement
- Universal for quantum algorithms (QFT, Grover, VQE, QAOA, error correction, ...)

$$|\psi_{\text{out}}\rangle = U_N \cdots U_3 U_2 U_1 |\psi_{\text{in}}\rangle$$

- **Core hardware requirements**

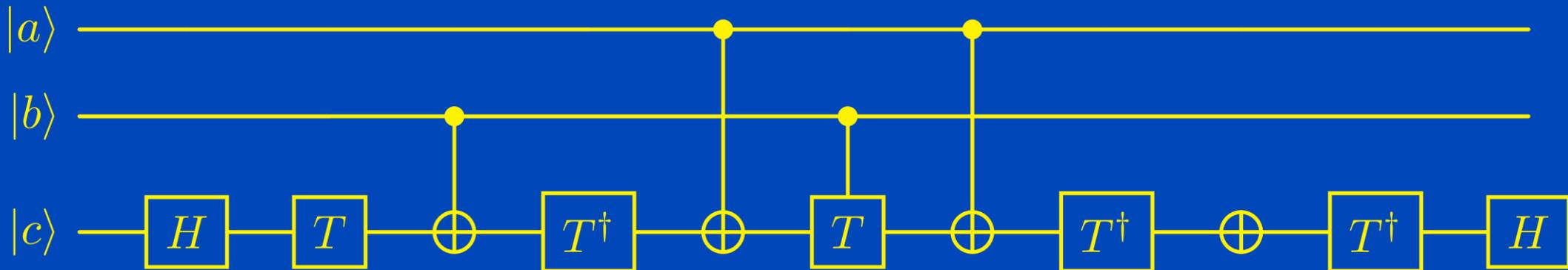
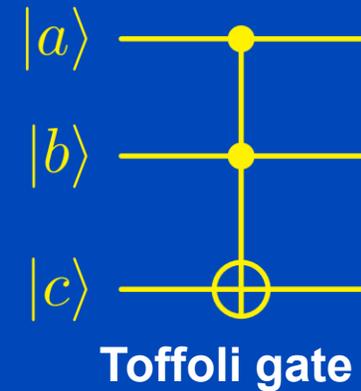
- High-fidelity single- and two-qubit gates
- Stable coherence
- Precise calibration and crosstalk suppression
- Measurement and reset (often mid-circuit)
- Clear scaling path toward quantum error correction (QEC)

$$T = R_z\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\pi/4} \end{pmatrix}$$

Gate-Based Quantum Computers

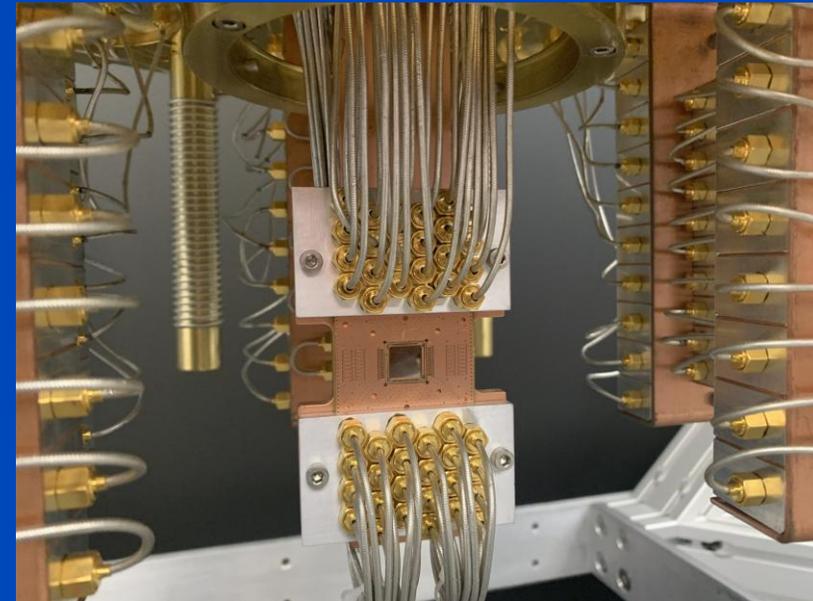
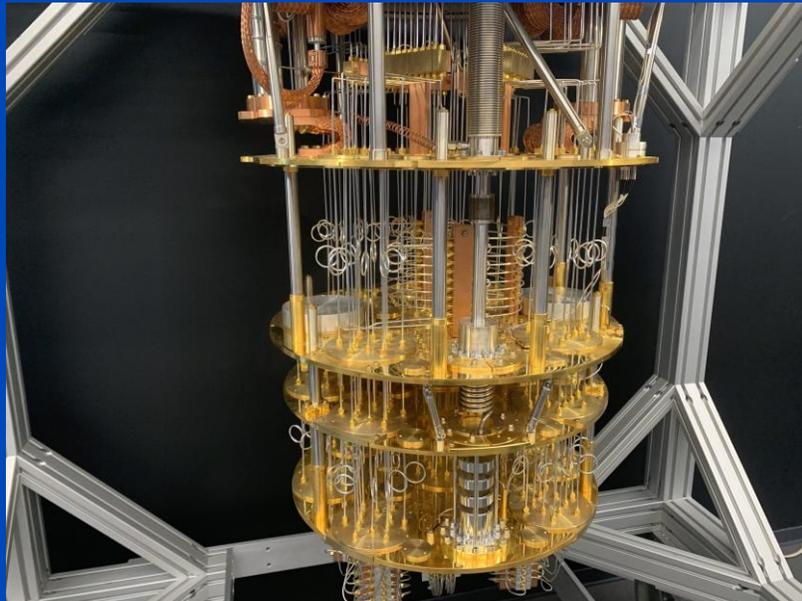
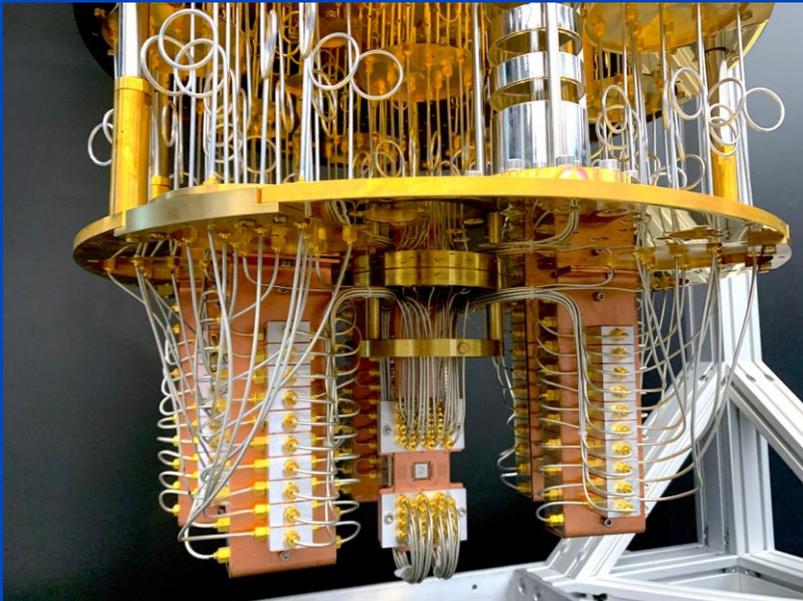
- Key performance parameters

- Number of physical qubits
- Connectivity graph (nearest-neighbor, heavy-hex, all-to-all)
- Single-qubit gate fidelity
- Two-qubit gate fidelity (*dominant bottleneck*)
- Readout fidelity
- Coherence times (T_1 , T_2)
- Native gate set



Superconducting Gate-Based Systems

- **Characteristics**
 - Fast gates (ns to μ s)
 - Lithographically scalable
 - Limited connectivity (planar layouts)
 - Strong focus on surface-code-compatible architectures
- **Example: IBM Quantum – Heron processors**
 - 133 to 156 superconducting transmon qubits
 - Heavy-hex connectivity
 - Explicit system metrics (EPLG, CLOPS)
 - Integrated into modular “System Two” architecture
- **These systems are controlled open quantum systems with strong microwave engineering constraints and continuous recalibration.**



IBM Q

Trapped-Ion Quantum Computers

- **Characteristics**
 - Qubits: internal states of ions
 - All-to-all logical connectivity
 - Very high gate fidelities
 - Slower gate speeds (μs to ms)
 - Excellent platform for early logical qubits
- **Example 1: Quantinuum H2**
 - 56 trapped-ion qubits
 - All-to-all connectivity
 - Emphasis on fault-tolerant primitives
- **Example 2: IonQ Forte Enterprise**
 - Performance expressed in algorithmic qubits
 - Focus on usable circuit depth rather than raw qubit count

Neutral-Atom Platforms

- **Characteristics**
 - Qubits: neutral atoms in optical tweezers
 - Reconfigurable geometries
 - Often used for analog Hamiltonian simulation
 - Digital gate sets are emerging but still limited
- **Example: QuEra Aquila**
 - 256 neutral-atom qubits
 - Programmable interaction graphs
 - Strong overlap with many-body physics and quantum simulation
-

MORE DETAILS ON ISING

One Ising QAOA Layer for All N Qubits

$$\begin{aligned} U(\alpha, \beta) &= e^{-i\alpha H_0} e^{-i\beta H_I} \\ &= \prod_i e^{-i\alpha \sigma_i^x} \prod_{i < j} e^{-i\beta M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z} \prod_i e^{-i\beta m_i \sigma_i^z} \end{aligned}$$

Many Ising QAOA Layers to Add Depth

$$|\psi(\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta})\rangle = \left(\prod_{l=1}^L U(\alpha_l, \beta_l) \right) |+\rangle^{\otimes N}$$

How to Emulate the Ising Hamiltonian

- The Ising Hamiltonian, which is diagonal in the computational basis, is

$$H_I = \sum_{i < j} M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z + \sum_i m_i \sigma_i^z$$

- A gate-based quantum computer cannot “run” a Hamiltonian directly.
- Instead, it can implement unitary operators of the form $U = e^{-i\beta H}$.
- Due to $[\sigma_i^z, \sigma_j^z] = 0$ and $[\sigma_i^z, \sigma_j^z \sigma_k^z] = 0$ we get

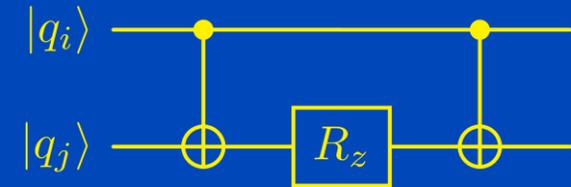
$$U = e^{-i\beta H_I} = \prod_{i < j} e^{-i\beta M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z} \prod_i e^{-i\beta m_i \sigma_i^z}$$

and therefore we can implement each term independently.

How to Emulate the Ising Hamiltonian

- ZZ interaction, i.e coupling. Map parity onto qubit j , apply a phase, undo the parity mapping:

$$e^{-i\beta M_{ij} \sigma_i^z \sigma_j^z} = \text{CNOT}_{ij} R_z^{(j)}(2\beta M_{ij}) \text{CNOT}_{ij}$$



- Z rotation (phase rotation, no entanglement, one gate per qubit):

$$e^{-i\beta m_i \sigma_i^z} = R_z^{(i)}(2\beta m_i)$$



- We also need to consider the mixing Hamiltonian $H_0 = \sum_i \sigma_i^x$ that flips bits, creates superpositions, plays the role of “quantum mixing”:

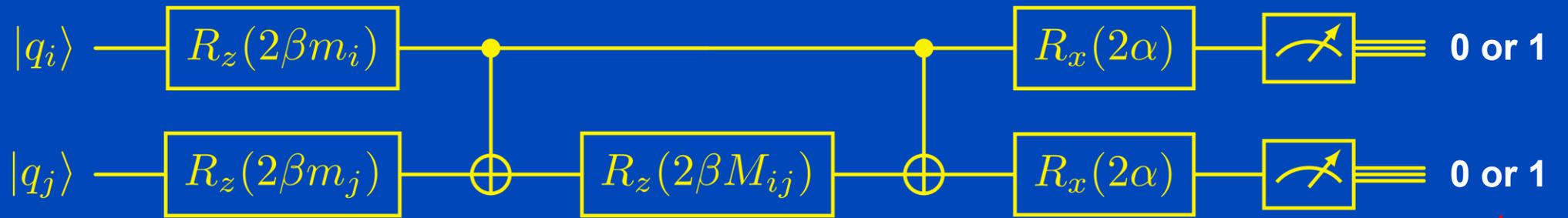
$$e^{-i\alpha H_0} = \prod_i e^{-i\alpha \sigma_i^x} = \prod_i R_x^{(i)}(2\alpha \sigma_i^x)$$



Ising Building Block for two Interacting Qubits

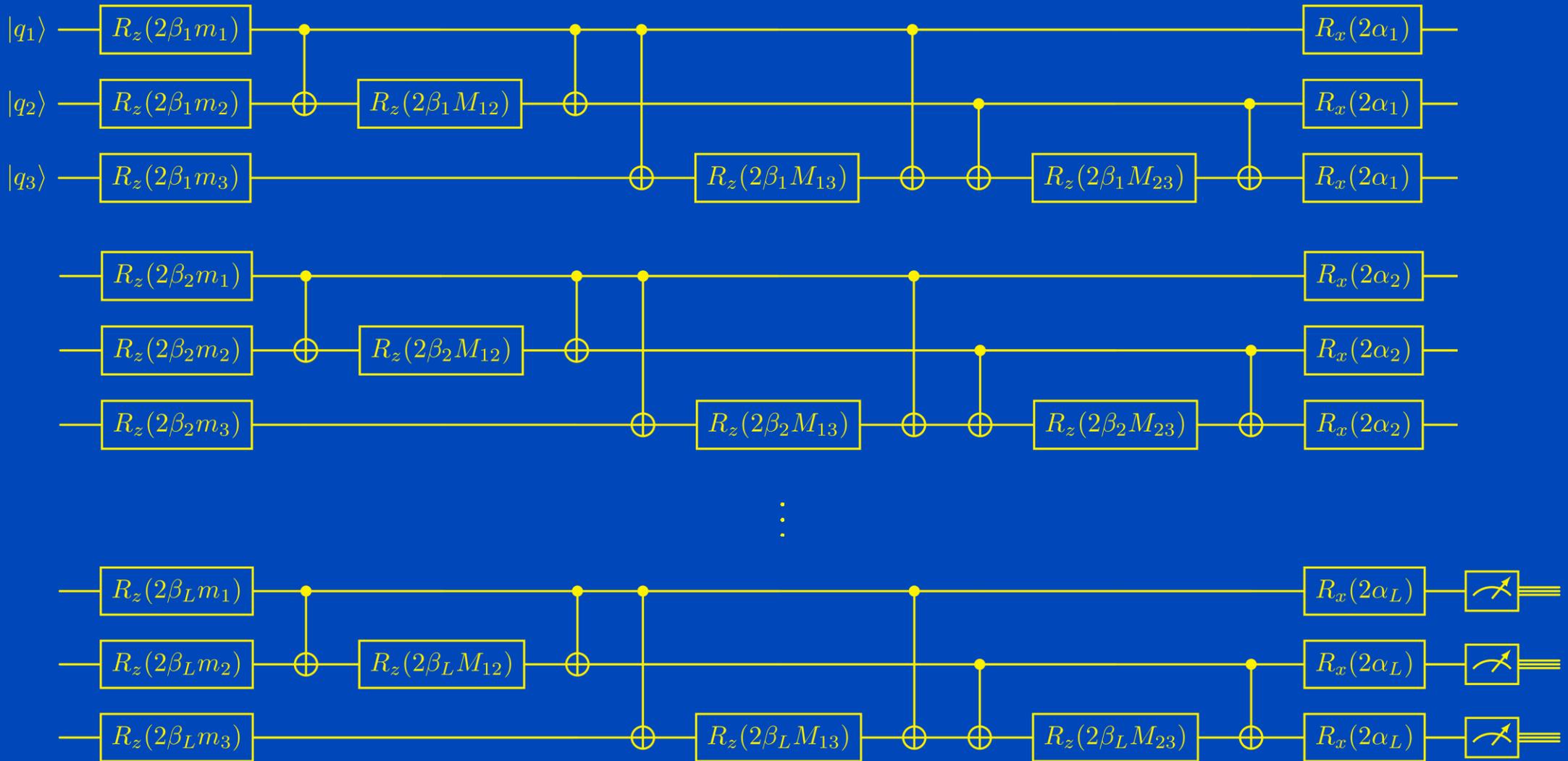


- Rotations are physically realized as carefully timed and phased control pulses.
- A rotation gate on a quantum computer is not applied as a matrix. It rather emerges from controlled time evolution under a physically engineered Hamiltonian.
- R_z is usually implemented virtually, without any physical pulse, i.e. z-rotations are software-defined. The phase reference frame of subsequent pulses is shifted.



Repeat experiment many many times to obtain the likelihoods.

Example for 3 Qubits and L Layers



How to Run QAOA

- **Classical**

- Choose (α, β)

- **Quantum** (repeat measurement M times):

- Initialize qubits

$$|0\rangle^{\otimes N}$$

- Create maximum superposition

$$|+\rangle^{\otimes N} = H^{\otimes N} |0\rangle^{\otimes N}$$

- Apply unitaries

$$|\psi(\alpha, \beta)\rangle = U_L \cdot \dots \cdot U_2 U_1 |+\rangle^{\otimes N}$$

- Measure

$$\{P_b = |b\rangle\langle b| \mid b \in \{0, 1\}^{\otimes N}\}$$

- to obtain a bit string with N bits

$$\mathbf{b} = (b_N, \dots, b_2, b_1)$$

- **Classical** (draw conclusions from the M bit strings):

- Calculate the cost function, given the bit strings that have been obtained in the M runs with the latest (α, β) choice

$$C(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M C(\mathbf{b}_m)$$

- Use, e.g., Nelder Mead to update (α, β) and do another M quantum runs and measurements.

Thank You!

This presentation will soon be available at www.dkfz.de/ct.

Job opportunities through marc.kachelriess@dkfz.de or through DKFZ's international PhD or Postdoctoral Fellowship programs.

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