

Quantum Science

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Lecture 4

Topology in quantum computation



The transmission of information in any digital system, including classical computers, relies on error correction.





In coding theory, the simplest way to implement error correction is through redundancy, in which every bit of information is transmitted multiple times.

$101 \rightarrow 111000111$







If Alice would like to send a bit to Bob, she would send 000 for a 0 bit and 111 for a 1 bit.



If Bob receives something else, say 101, then an error has occurred.





If the probability of an error is small, then one can assume that the 3 digit string has no more than one error. Therefore,

101 ----- 111

Error Correction

after error correction.







 $|\psi\rangle \not\rightarrow |\psi\rangle |\psi\rangle$

To protect quantum information, any error correction code requires fixing qubits without actually reading them!





In 1998, Peter Shor showed that one could use entanglement of several physical qubits with a logical qubit to correct quantum information.









There are different ways in which qubits can be corrupted.

One type of qubit error is when bits are flipped,

$$a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle \longrightarrow a|1\rangle + b|0\rangle$$

Although Alice would like to send three copies of her qubit

$$a|0\rangle + b|1\rangle$$
 0

to prevent errors, this is not possible because of the non-cloning theorem.

Instead, she sends three qubits, one logical and two ophysical qubits 0 = 0 b = a = 0 = 0 and entangle them through a CNOT gate 0 = a = 0 and a = 0 a = 0 = 0 and a = 0 and a = 0a =



Because the communication channel is noisy, Bob may either receive the right qubit or a corrupted one,



Now Bob has to both figure out if his qubit was corrupted or not and fix it (if necessary) without reading the qubit!

To check if any bits need to be corrected, Bob will add two more physical qubits to the received ones and perform 2 CNOT operations for each extra qubit:



 $a c c c + b d_0 d_1 d_2$

 $C_0C_{1 2}$

 d_0d_{1} 2





A similar result oceurs that a fifth qubit, which is:





If the result is $|00\rangle$ then all c bits and d bits are the same. $c \oplus c = 0 \oplus 1 = 0$ Nothing to correct!



If the result is $|10\rangle$ then the c₁ and d₁ bits are the different ones. $B_{0}\oplus A_{1}=0$ They need to be flipped with an X quantum gate!



If the result is $|01\rangle$ then the c₂ and d₂ bits are the different ones. If Bob measures $|11\rangle$ then the c₀ and d₀ bits need to be flipped!



All logical operations in a quantum computer can be performed with five gates acting in one bit plus the CNOT gate, which acts on two.

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$







To be useful, quantum computers need to protect qubits from the environment.

To correct all possible kinds of errors it may be necessary to entangle each logical qubit with dozens of physical qubits!

That could make quantum computing very hard!



Could topology be used for fault-tolerant quantum computation?



Quantum particles can be classified as bosons or fermions depending on their having integer of half-integer spin.

Standard Model of Elementary Particles





Quantum particles can be classified as bosons or fermions depending on their having integer of half-integer spin.

Identical particles are indistinguishable from each other. Therefore, one cannot tell which individual particle lives in a given quantum state!



Quantum particles can be classified as bosons or fermions depending on their having integer of half-integer spin.

A system with two identical bosons is described by an entangled state that is symmetric under the exchange of the two particles,

$$|\psi_1,\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|\psi_1\rangle|\psi_2\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle|\psi_1\rangle\right)$$



Two identical fermions are described by an entangled state that is anti-symmetric under the exchange of the two particles,

$$|\psi_1,\psi_2\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|\psi_1\rangle|\psi_2\rangle - |\psi_2\rangle|\psi_1\rangle\right)$$

Two identical fermions cannot occupy the same quantum state!

$$|\psi_1,\psi_1\rangle=0$$

Without loss of generalit swapped, the total

nenever two identical particles are e function picks up a phase.



8.8

-1 for fermions.

 $|\psi_2,\psi_1
angle$

PHASE



The act of exchanging two anyons corresponds to two distinct braiding operations, depending on how they are swapped!







World line



Non-trivial topology can also appear in the form of knots of world lines!



One can separate world lines in different topological classes based on the number of knots. In 1997, Alexei Kitaev suggested that building qubits with anyons would permit creating quantum computers that are immune to decoherence!



Anyons cannot exist in isolation and must be entangled with other anyons!

They are hard to observe because they are insensitive to local measurements, and can only be destroyed when merged with other anyons.

On the other hand, their qubits are hard to decohere!







The fundamental unit of information (qubit) in a topological quantum computer is a linear superposition of two anyons, which can be braided with other qubits!

Braid Topologies for Quantum Computation

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In topological quantum computation, quantum information is stored in states which are intrinsically protected from decoherence, and quantum gates are carried out by dragging particlelike excitations (quasiparticles) around one another in two space dimensions. The resulting quasiparticle trajectories define world lines in three-dimensional space-time, and the corresponding quantum gates depend only on the topology of the braids formed by these world lines. We show how to find braids that yield a universal set of quantum gates for qubits encoded using a specific kind of quasiparticle which is particularly promising for experimental realization.



In 2005, it was explicitly shown (theoretically) how to perform logical operations by braiding world lines of topological quantum particles!







In 1982, right after the discovery of the integer quantum Hall effect, Tsui and Stomer discovered the appearance of quantum Hall plateaus at some rational fractions of magnetic flux quanta per unit cell.



Flux quanta
$$\nu = \frac{p}{q} = \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{7}, \dots$$

One year later, Bob Laughlin showed the experiment can be explained by the existence of particles with fractional charge!

Fractional quantum Hall effect!



The Nobel Prize in Physics 1998 was awarded jointly to Robert B. Laughlin, Horst L. Störmer and Daniel C. Tsui "for their discovery of a new form of quantum fluid with fractionally charged excitations."



Are particles with fractionalized charge anyons?

Fractional Statistics and the Quantum Hall Effect

Daniel Arovas Department of Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106

and

J. R. Schrieffer and Frank Wilczek

Department of Physics and Institute for Theoretical Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106 (Received 18 May 1984)

The statistics of quasiparticles entering the quantum Hall effect are deduced from the adiabatic theorem. These excitations are found to obey fractional statistics, a result closely related to their fractional charge.



Fractional statistics in anyon collisions

H. Bartolomei¹*, M. Kumar¹*[†], R. Bisognin¹, A. Marguerite¹[‡], J.-M. Berroir¹, E. Bocquillon¹, B. Plaçais¹, A. Cavanna², Q. Dong², U. Gennser², Y. Jin², G. Fève¹§

Bartolomei et al., Science **368**, 173–177 (2020) 10 April 2020



Experimental evidence that they exist! T = 0.27T = 0.5



In 1928, Paul Dirac proposed a relativistic wave equation for spin 1/2 particles, such as electrons, neutrinos and quarks,

$$(i\partial \!\!\!/ -m)\psi = 0.$$





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Etore Majorana proposed in 1937 a variation of the Dirac wave equation for neutral particles with spin 1/2.





He showed that their wave functions are real, and that an electron can be fractionalized in two entangled Majorana fermions, which are charge neutral,

$$|e\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(|\gamma_1\rangle + i|\gamma_2\rangle\right)$$

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 Qubit?

The only way one can destroy a Majorana fermion is by bringing them close to each other and annihilate them.





Whether they recombine into an electron or nothing depends on how they are braided. Otherwise, they are topological excitations and cannot be destroyed by local perturbations!





Fractionalized charges may also exist at the two ends of a superconducting wire or inside the core of a superconducting vortex!

RESEARCH ARTICLE

TOPOLOGICAL MATTER

Flux-induced topological superconductivity in full-shell nanowires

S. Vaitiekėnas¹, G. W. Winkler², B. van Heck², T. Karzig², M.-T. Deng¹, K. Flensberg¹, L. I. Glazman³, C. Nayak², P. Krogstrup¹, R. M. Lutchyn²*, C. M. Marcus¹*



Possible experimental observation of signatures of Majorana fermions!



"I THINK YOU SHOULD BE MORE EXPLICIT HERE IN STEP TWO,"

It seems extremely difficult to observe Majorana fermions in nature and nobody knows for sure (yet) if they exist.

Quantum computing is a major open challenge!