

Quantum Computing: From Theory to Practice



KSETA 2026

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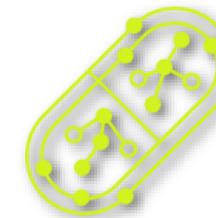
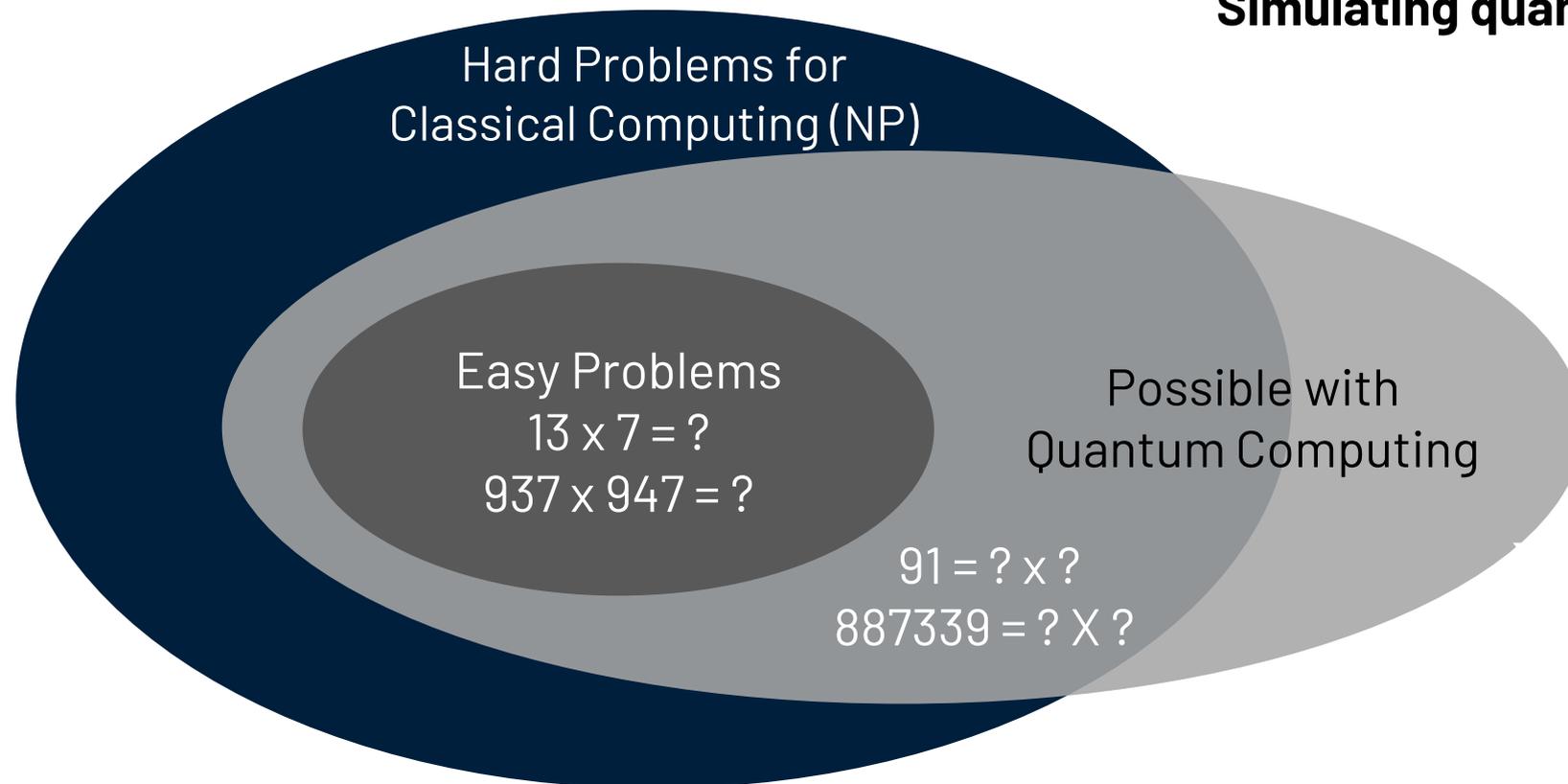
“hard” / intractable problems:

(exponentially increasing resources with problem size)

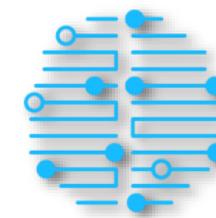
Algebraic algorithms (e.g. factoring, systems of equations)
for machine learning, cryptography,...

Combinatorial optimization (traveling salesman,
optimizing business processes, risk analysis,...)

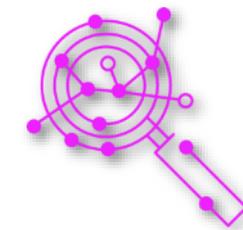
Simulating quantum mechanics (chemistry, material science,...)



Material,
Chemistry



Machine
Learning

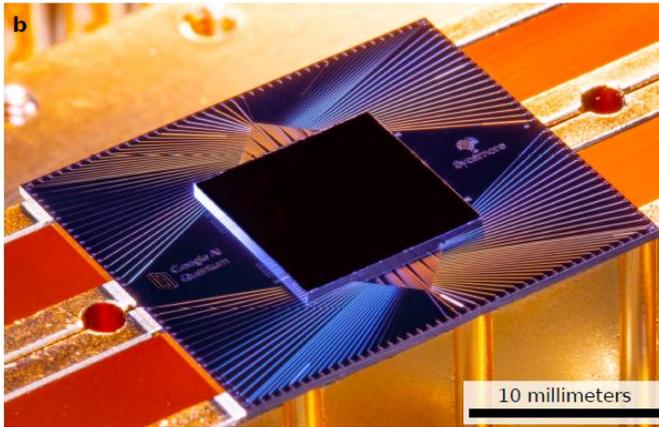


Optimization

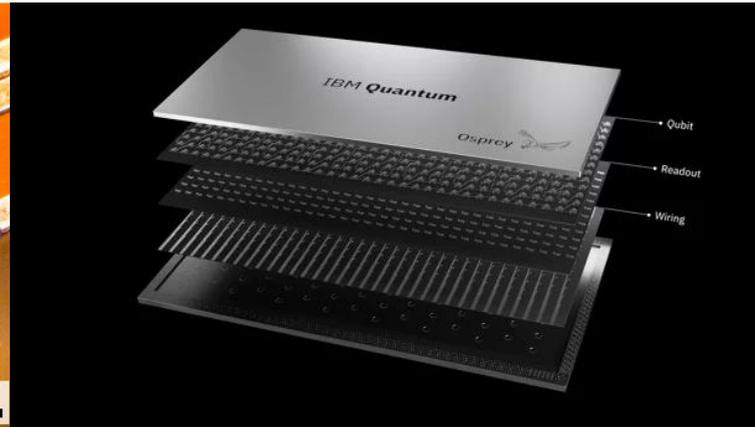
State of the art Quantum Computation

1st quantum computer prototypes are 'on the market' (>100 qubits)

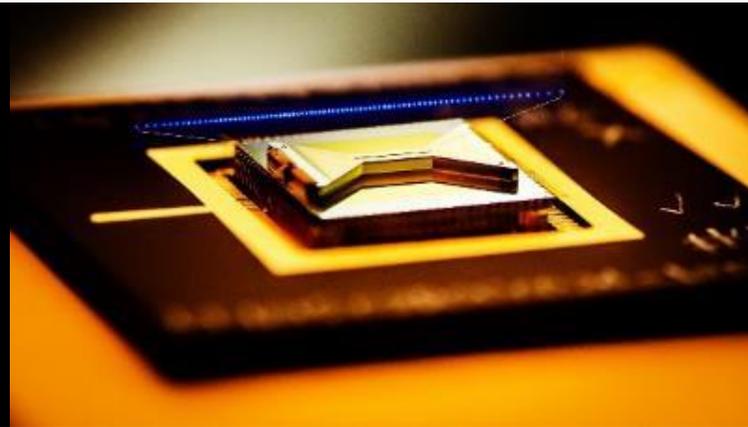
Google AI



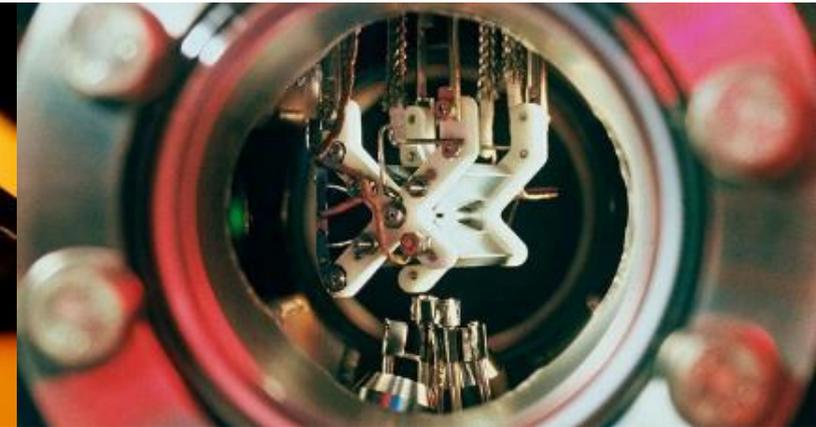
IBM



IonQ



AQT



or in development (



GeQCoS



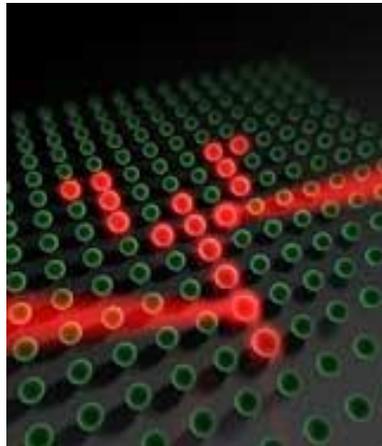
...) on different platforms: solid state systems (quantum

dots, superconducting qubits), atomic systems (trapped ions, neutral atoms), photons, NV-centers

→ many challenges ahead (scaling, coherence, control & readout, system integration)

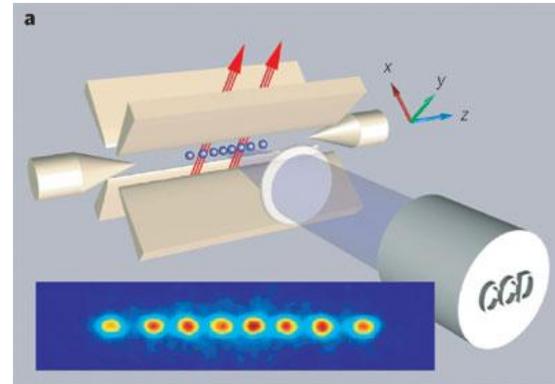
→ next milestones: [practical quantum algorithm](#), [logical qubits](#)

Ultra-cold atoms



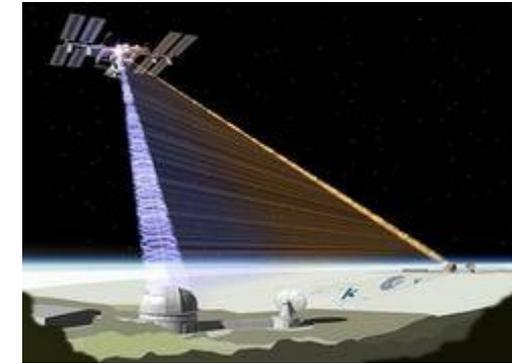
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Trapped ions



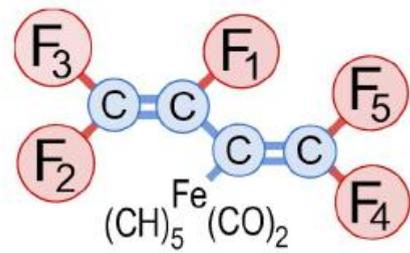
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Photons



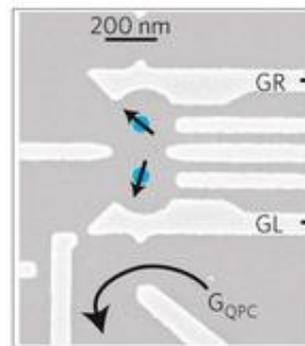
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Nuclear spins (NMR)

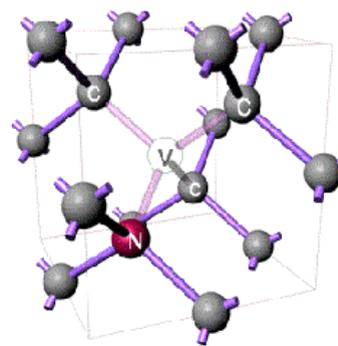


© Vandersypen, Chuang

Quantum dots, NV-centers

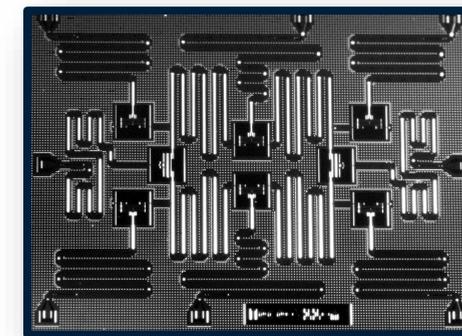


© Bluhm



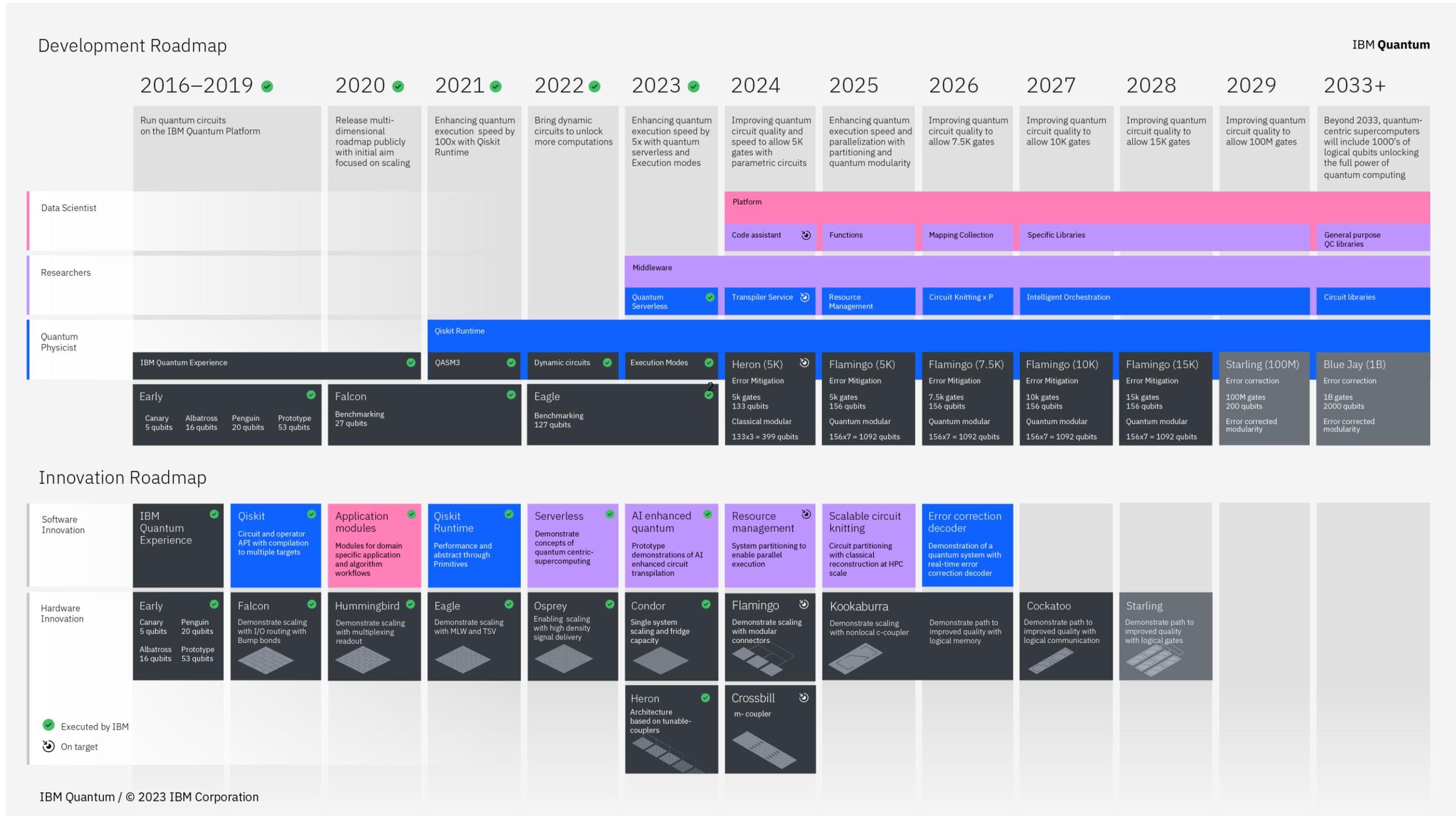
© Wrachtrup

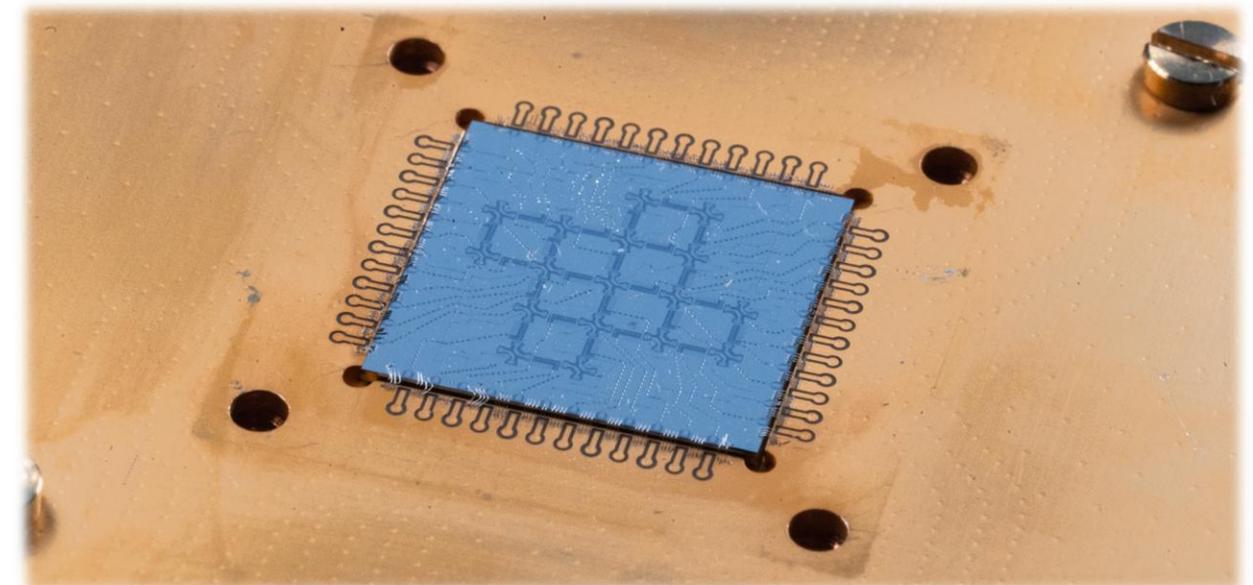
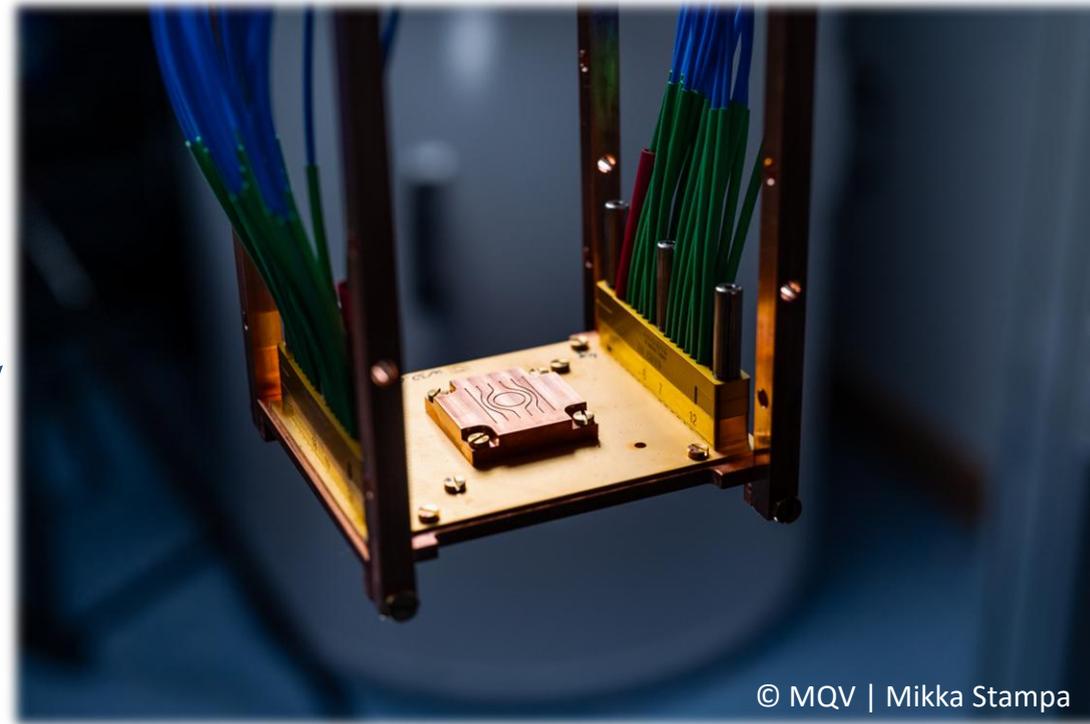
Superconducting qubits



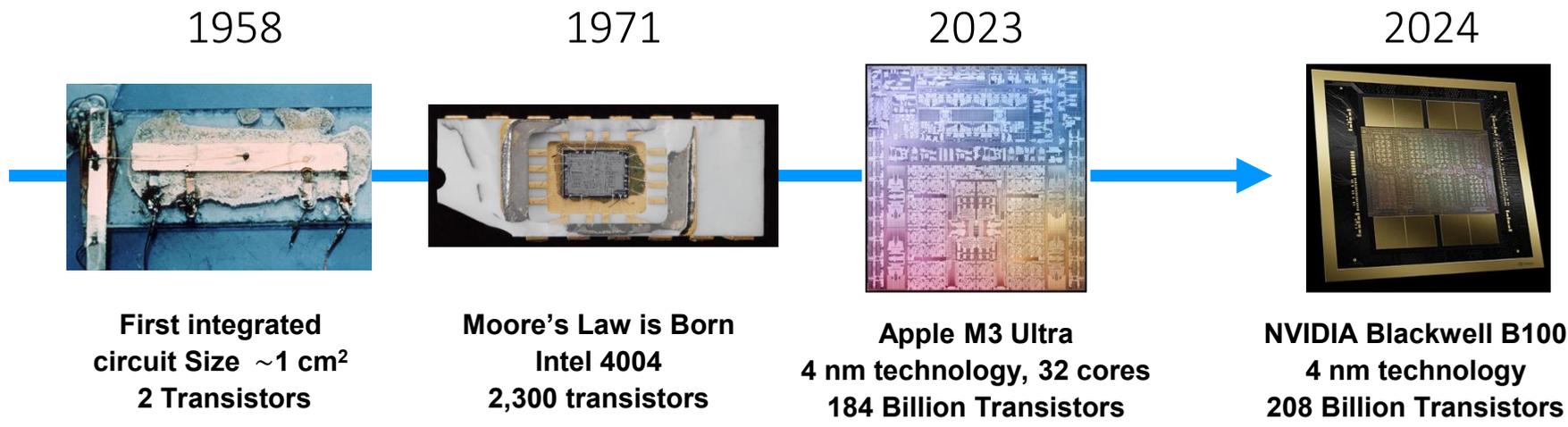
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Exemplary Roadmap (IBM)

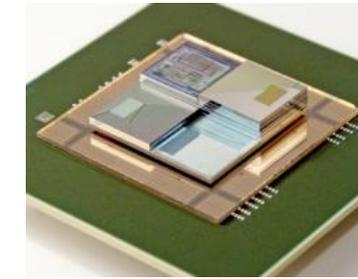




The Future of Computing



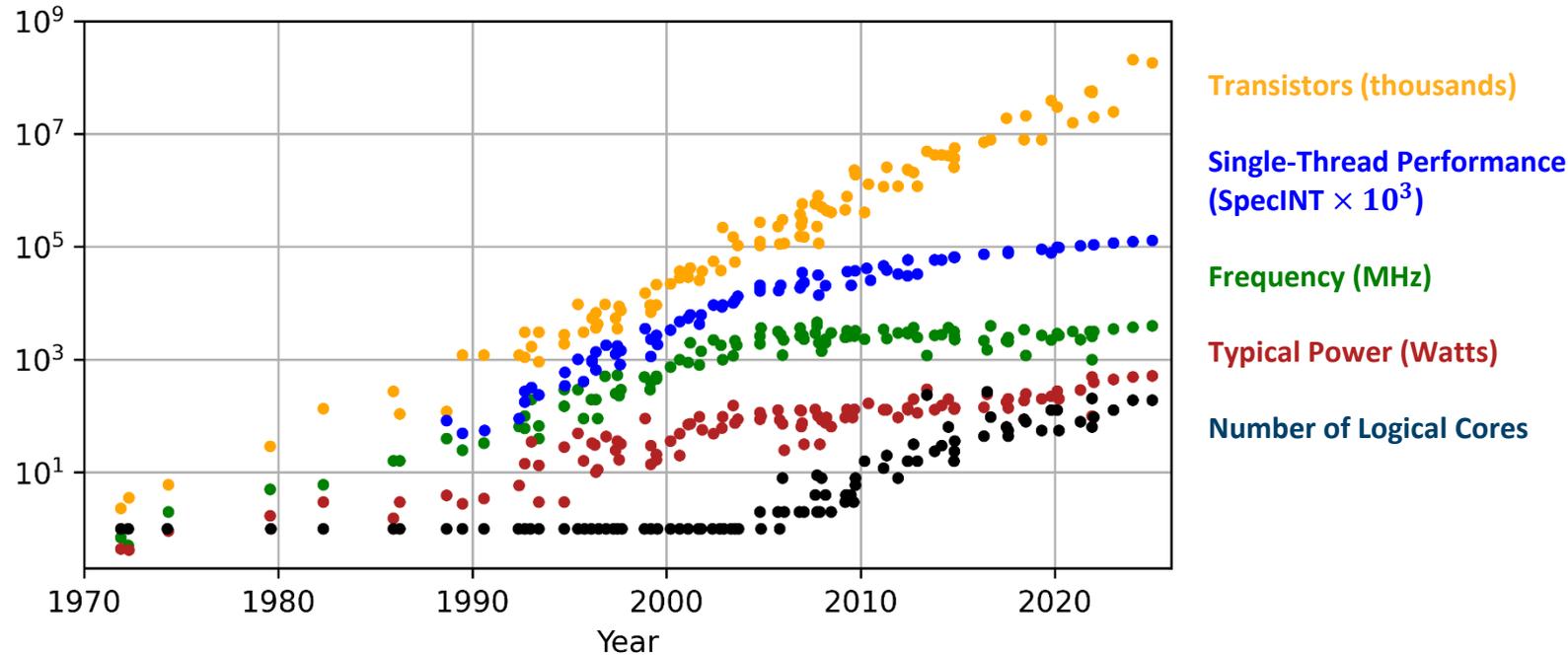
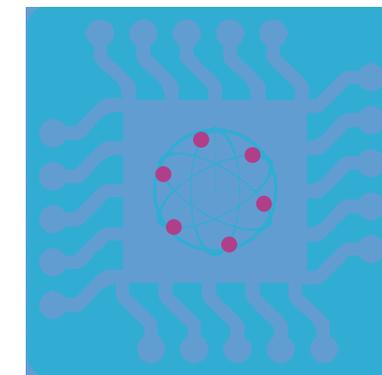
alternative (co-existing) architectures:
next generation systems ('More than Moore')



neuromorphic (cognitive)

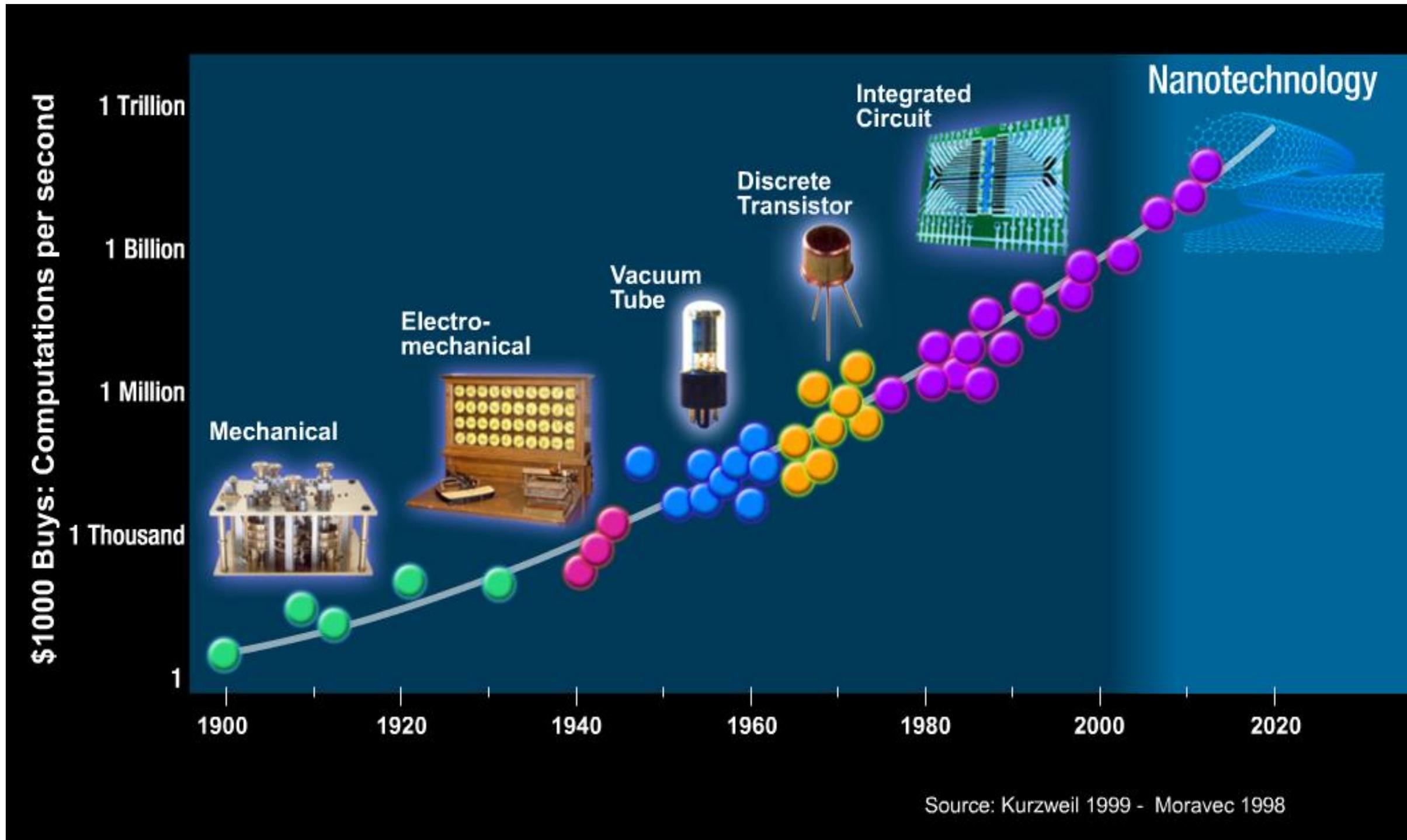


quantum computing

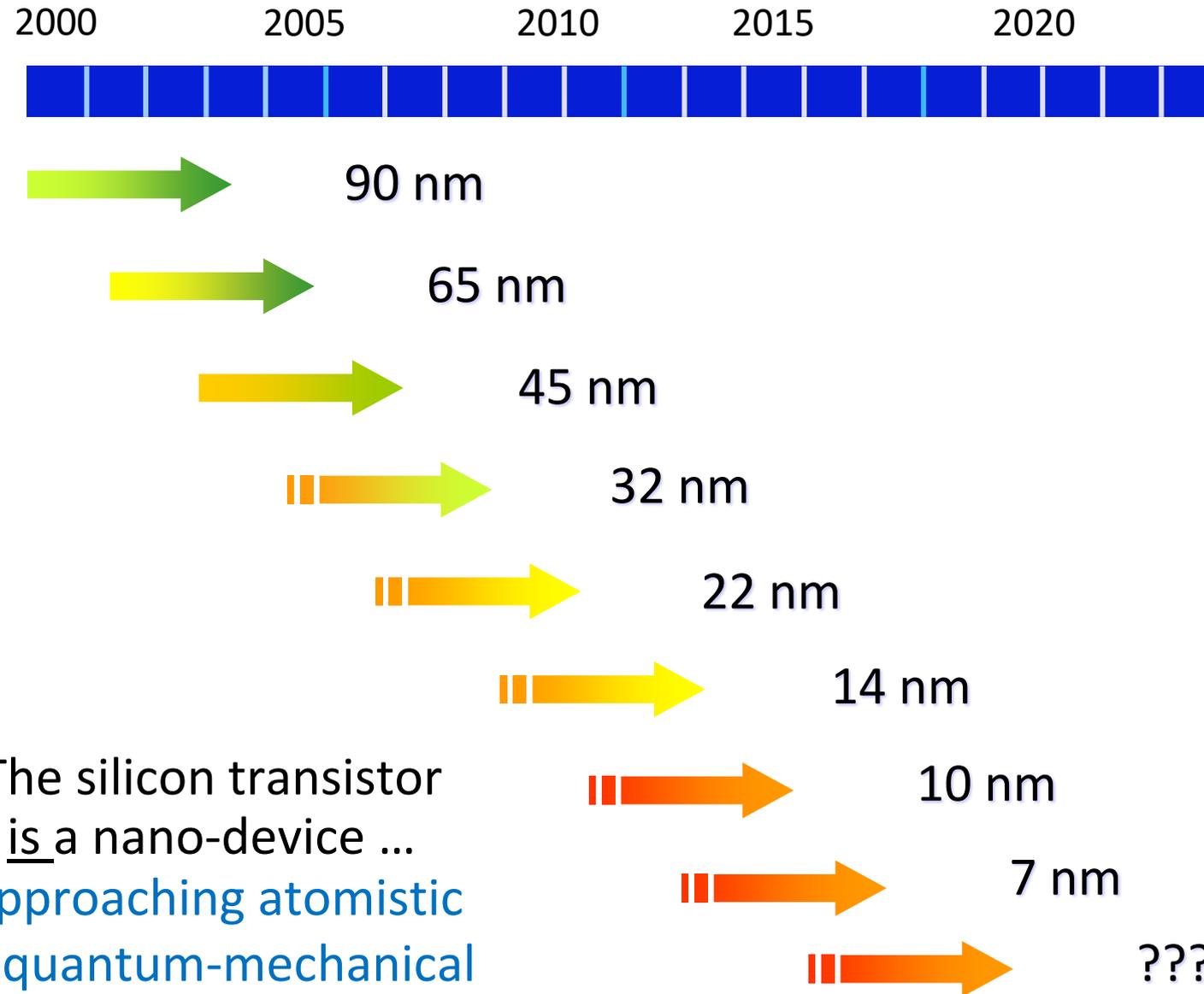
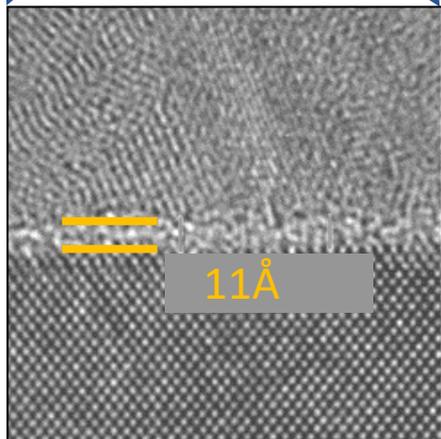
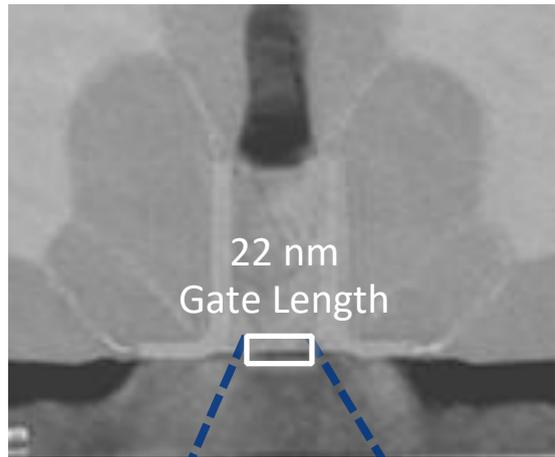


Original data up to year 2010 collected and plotted by M. Horowitz, F. Labonte, O. Shacham, K. Olukotun, L. Hammond, C. Batten
Data from 2010 to 2020 by K. Rupp: github.com/karlrupp/microprocessor-trend-data
Data from 2020 to 2025 collected by OpenAI ChatGPT

Evolution of (Classical) Computing Technology

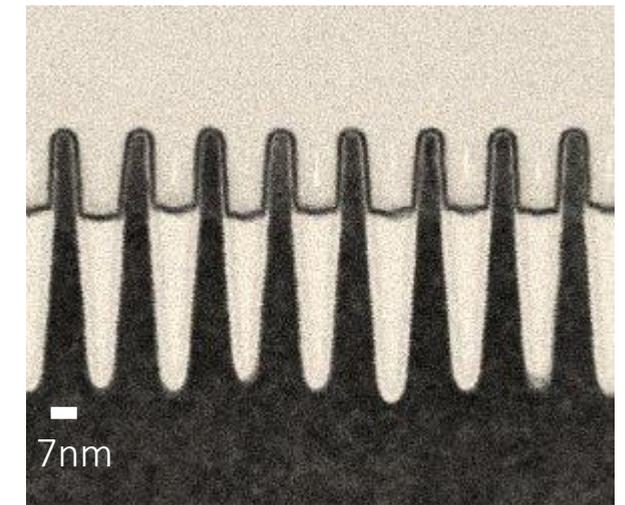


Evolution of Silicon Technology



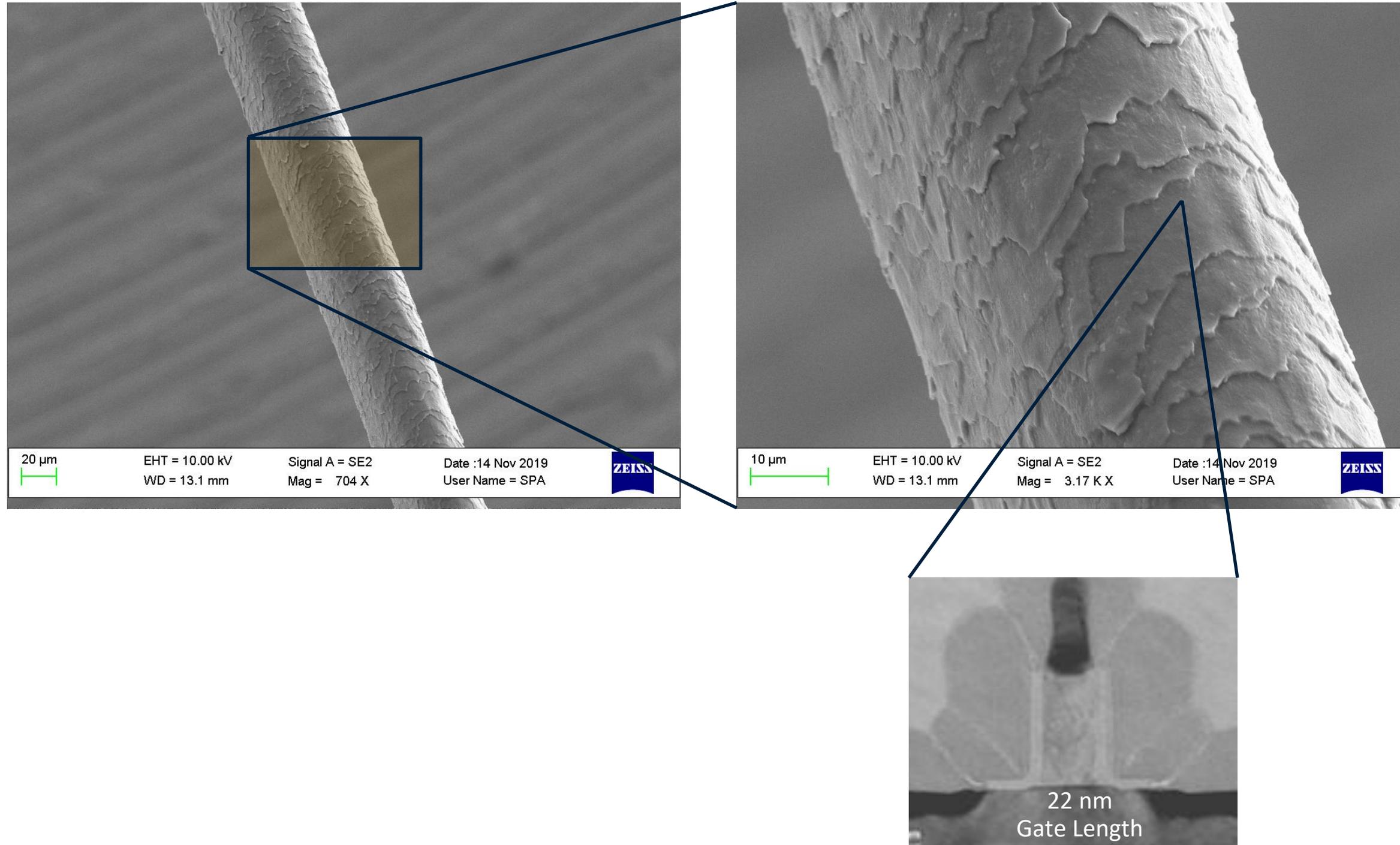
The silicon transistor is a nano-device ...
... approaching atomistic and quantum-mechanical boundaries

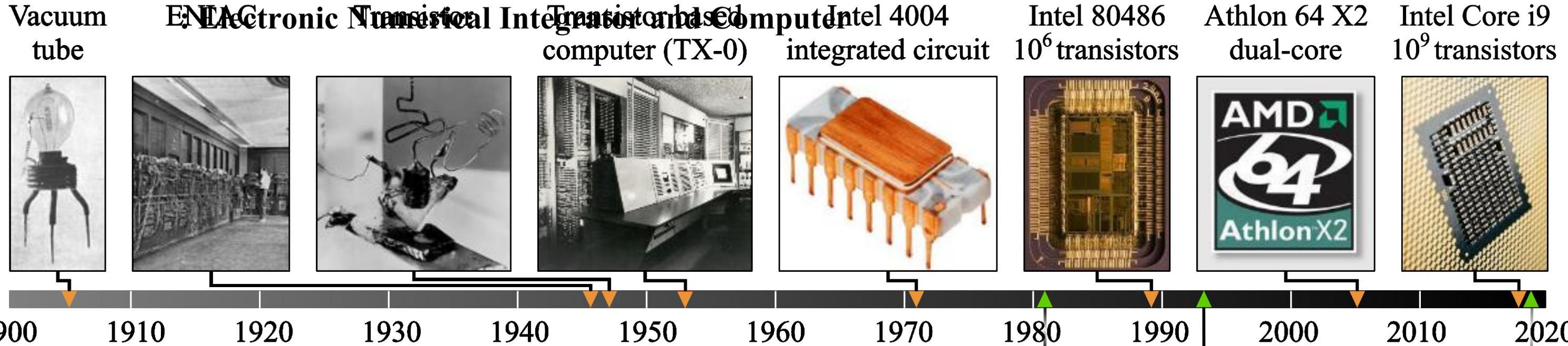
... approaching molecular dimensions.



7 nm finFET (IBM; 2016)

Size of a transistor

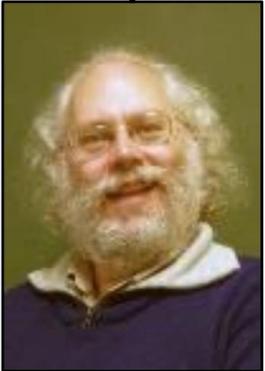




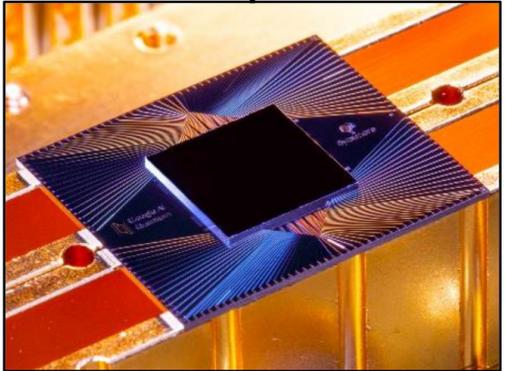
Today's classical computers required >100 years of engineering. Quantum computing is still in its infancy.



Idea of quantum computer



Factoring algorithm



Quantum supremacy (53 qubits)

Computational complexity theory: studies the required computational resources (e.g., time, memory, power) to solve a given problem

Problem: algorithm A run on machine M

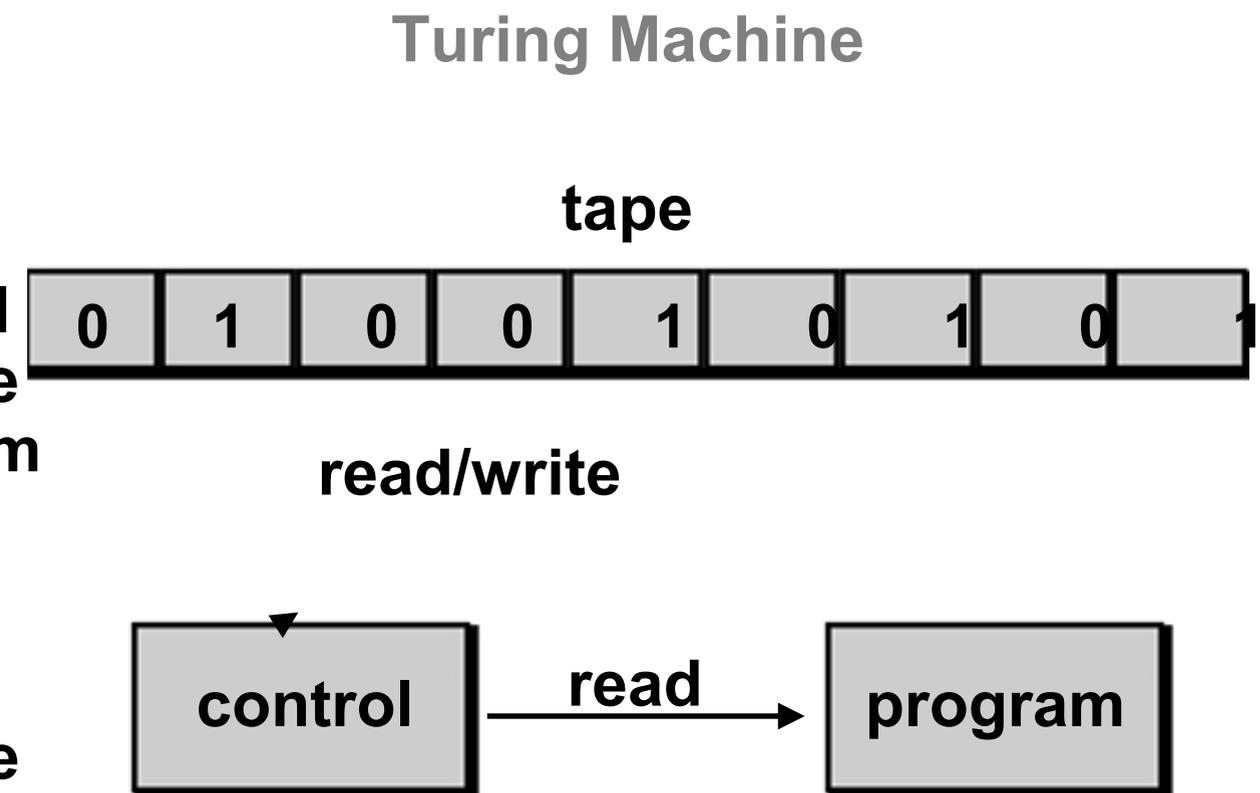
→ **resource requirements are computer architecture dependent**

Turing machine: abstract machine (mathematical model of computation) able to manipulate symbols on a tape according to a program

Resources:

Time: number of steps taken by Turing machine

Space: number of cells on tape used



Turing, A. M., Proceedings of the LMS 2, 41 (1936)

P: Polynomial-Time (Class of feasible problems for classical computers)

Class of decision problems solvable in polynomial time by a deterministic Turing machine

BQP: Bounded-Error Quantum Polynomial-Time (Class of feasible problems for quantum computers)

Class of decision problems solvable in polynomial time by a quantum Turing machine, with at most $1/3$ probability of error

NP: Nondeterministic Polynomial-Time

Class of decision problems solvable by a nondeterministic polynomial-time Turing machine such that

- If the answer is "yes," at least one computation path accepts (verifiable in polynomial time)
- If the answer is "no," all computation paths reject.

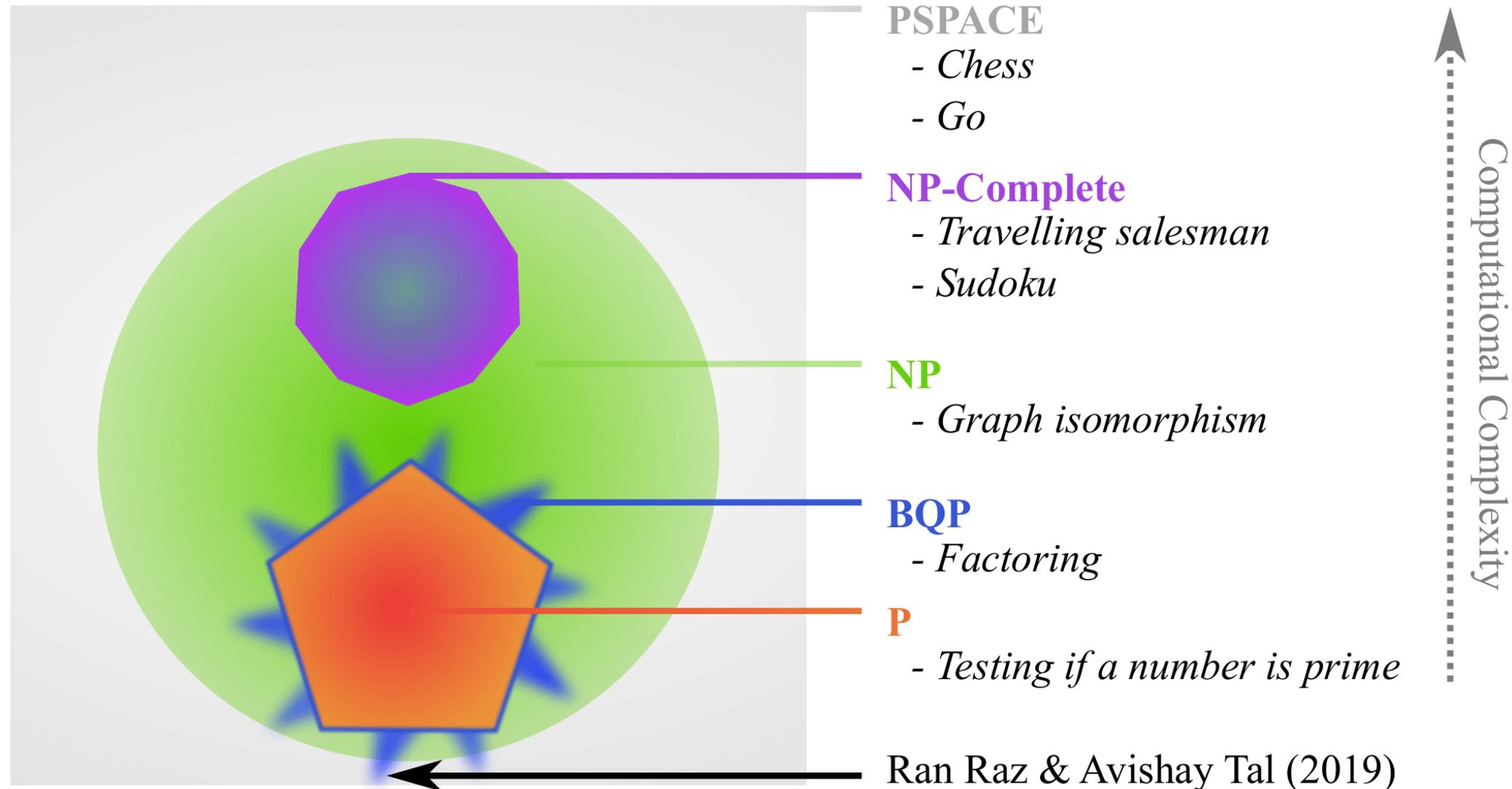
NP-Complete: Nondeterministic Polynomial-Time Complete ("brute-force search")

Class of decision problems that are in NP and every problem in NP that can be reduced to it
NP-complete problems: most difficult problems in NP

PSPACE: Polynomial space

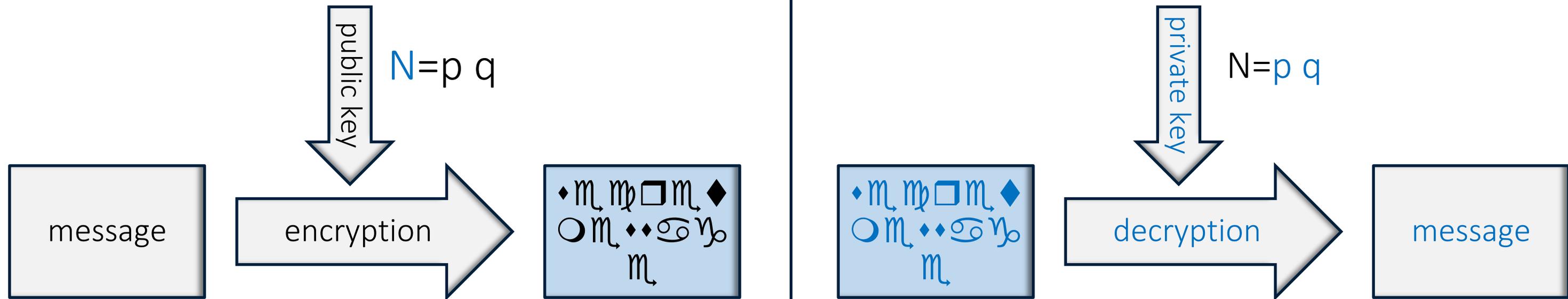
Class of decision problems that can be solved by a Turing machine using a polynomial amount of space

https://complexityzoo.uwaterloo.ca/Complexity_Zoo



Quantum computer is more powerful than classical computer

Encryption - Decryption



Factoring Numbers (Shor's Algorithm)

The problem of multiplication vs factoring:

$3 \times 5 = 15$
 $29 \times 47 = 1363$
→ easy!

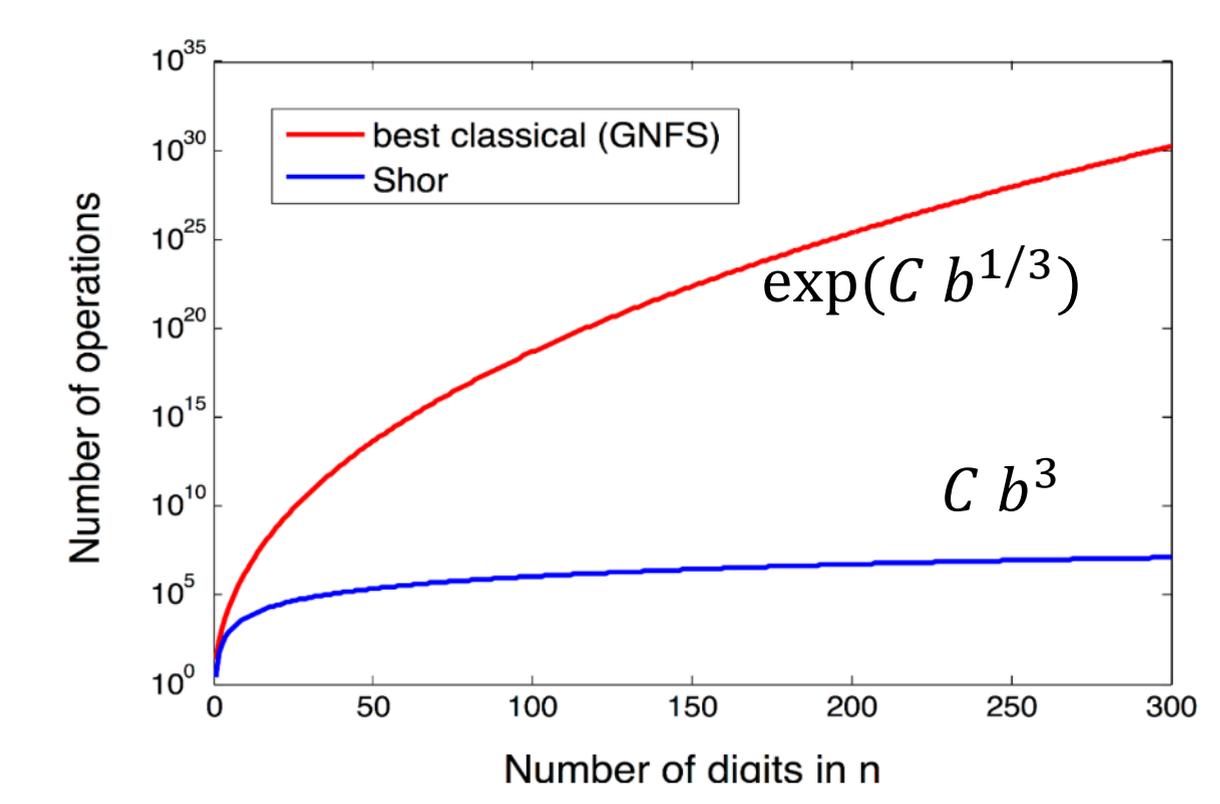
Vs. $35 = 5 \times 7$
 $1711 = 29 \times 59$
→ hard!

1024 bit - number:

68401253462667039102994764560480099222093149
989331030295165931443599135301801722012147065
4132099544994222790937502188609938252282885
92859849846037390163982097843793610808523356
222568724634919656824685012711832466570372812
969247294818566930469719541057172136556101203
93542415375408830748739559265912349073090

= p × q

→ just short of impossible

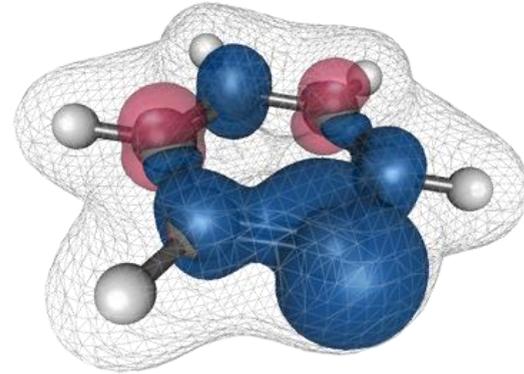


Exponential speed-up:

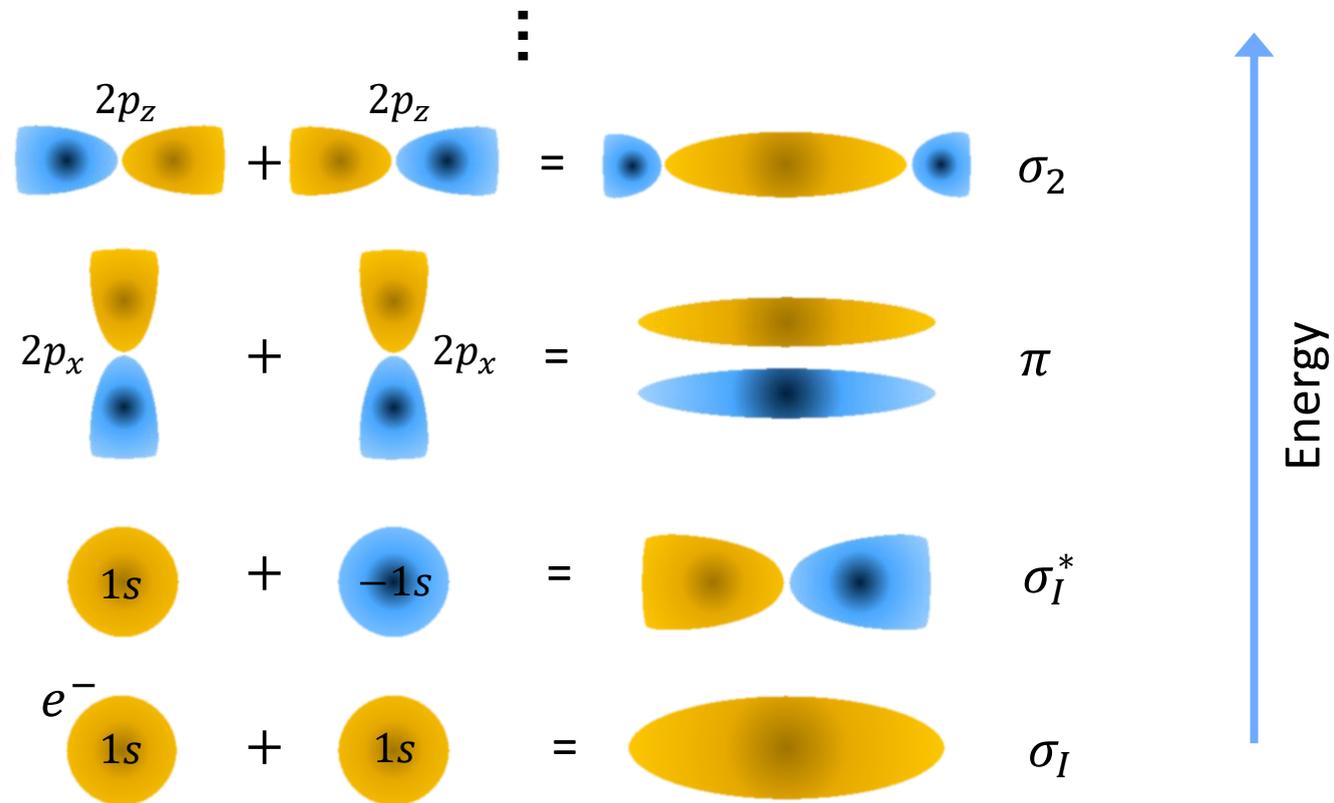
A task taking 300 years (2^{33} seconds) on a classical computer might take a minute (~ 30 seconds) on a quantum computer

Shor's algorithm jumpstarted interest in quantum computing!

Quantum chemistry – Why is it a challenge?



Electrons can occupy different orbitals in many possible combinations (e.g. in hydrogen H_2)



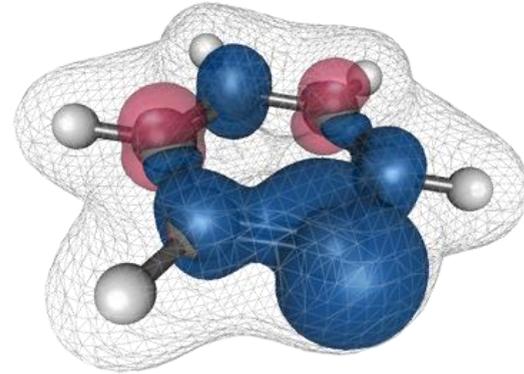
How many possibilities are there to arrange N electrons in M orbitals?

a) $\frac{M!}{(M-N)!N!}$

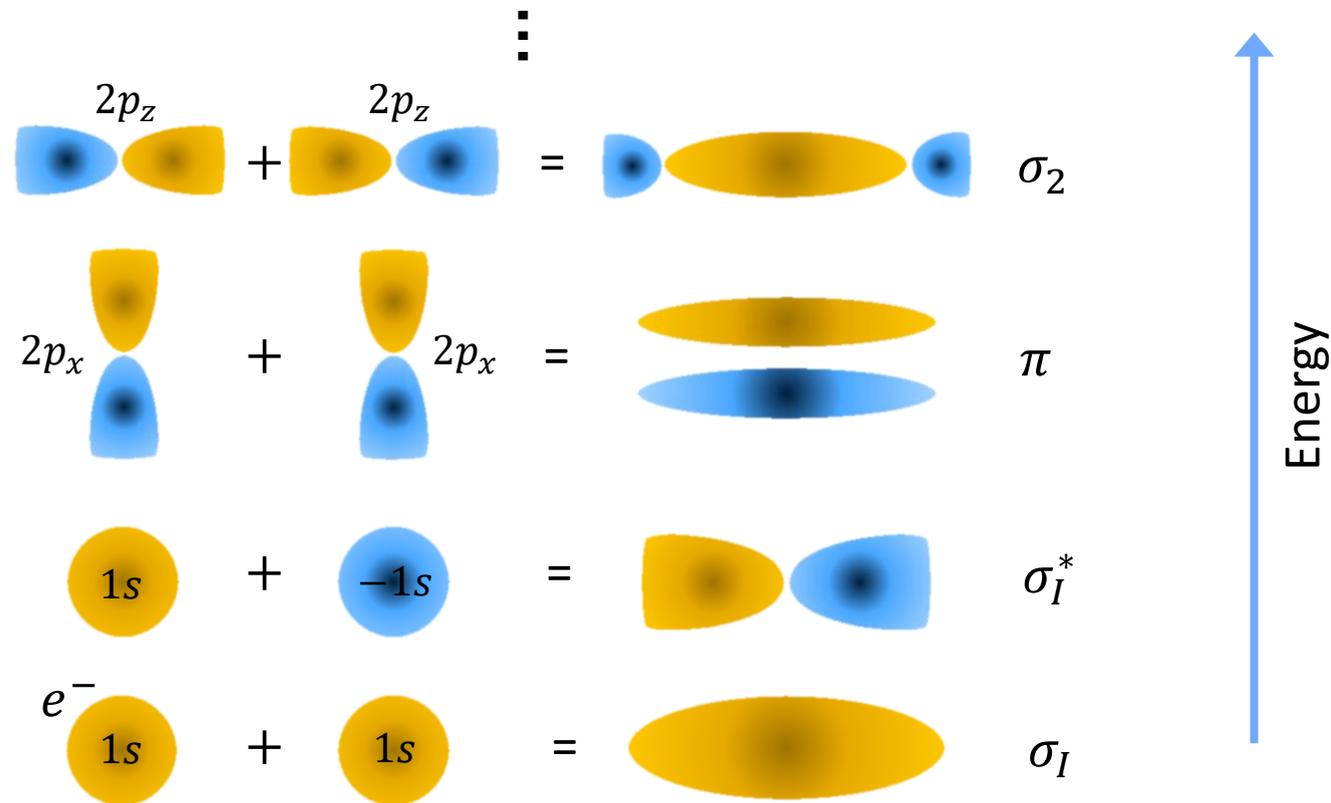
b) $M \cdot N$

c) $e^{M \cdot N}$

Quantum chemistry – Why is it a challenge?



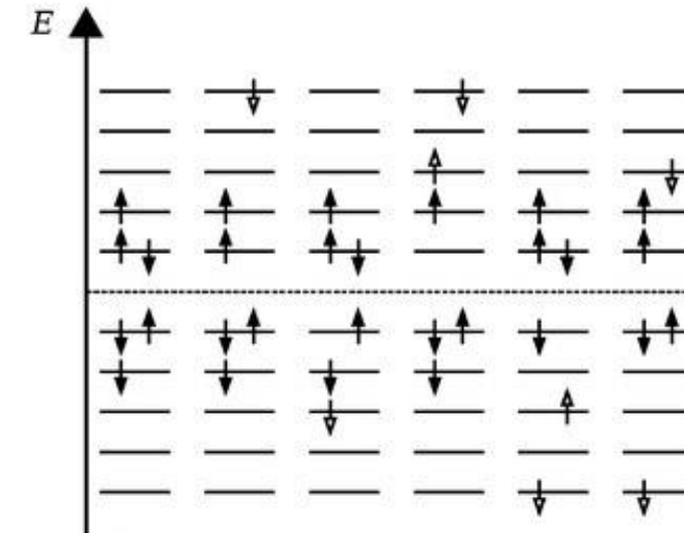
Electrons can occupy different orbitals in many possible combinations (e.g. in hydrogen H_2)



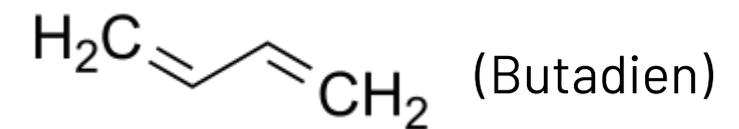
$$\frac{M!}{(M - N)! N!}$$

M: # orbitals

N: # electrons



$\approx 2^{65}$ possibilities
for $M=82, N=22$

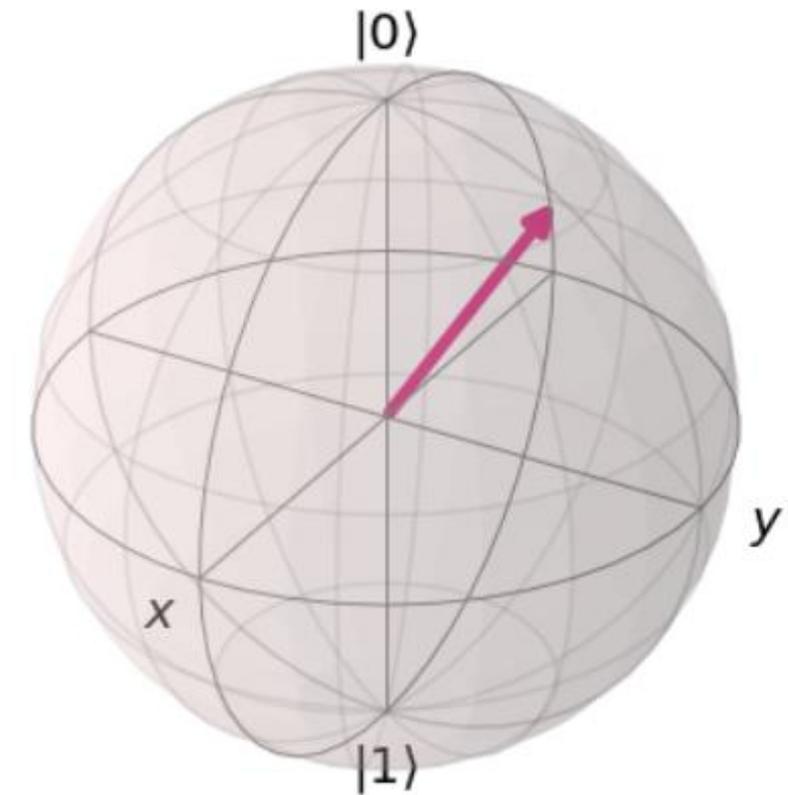


Exponential quantum advantage when electron wavefunction is stored directly in a quantum system

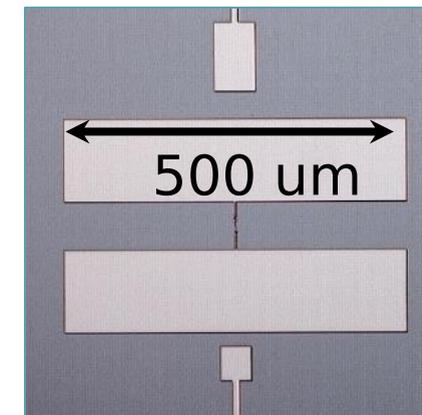
Quantum computing vision

- A) What is needed to make quantum computers useful is more **hardware** development?
- B) What is needed to make quantum computers useful is more **software/applications** development?
- C) Quantum computing won't work at all, but it will certainly lead to **new useful technology**.

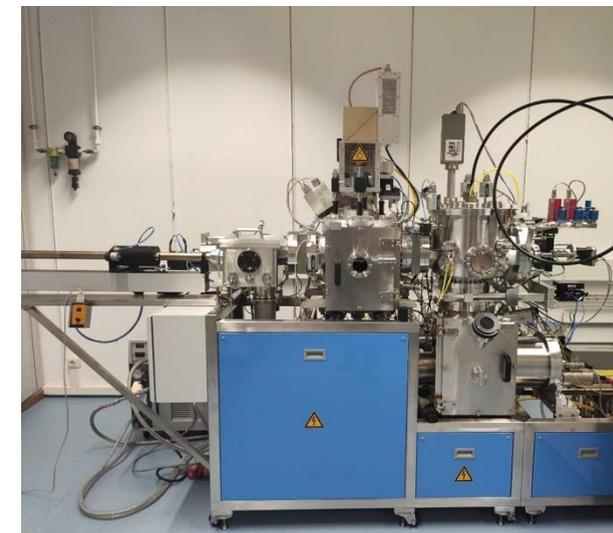
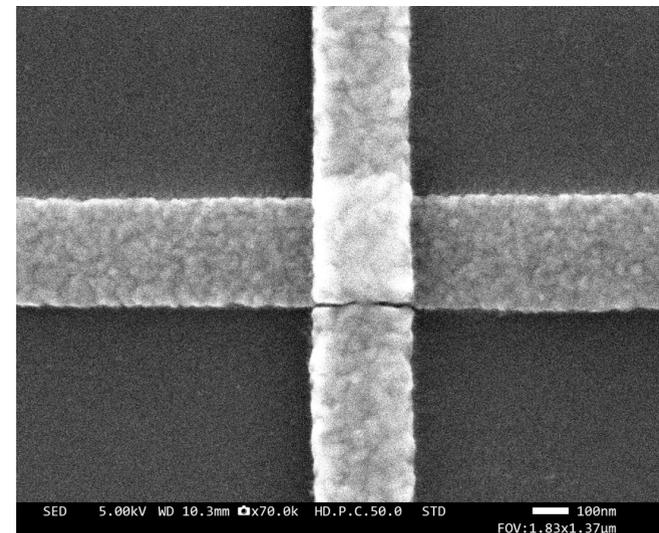
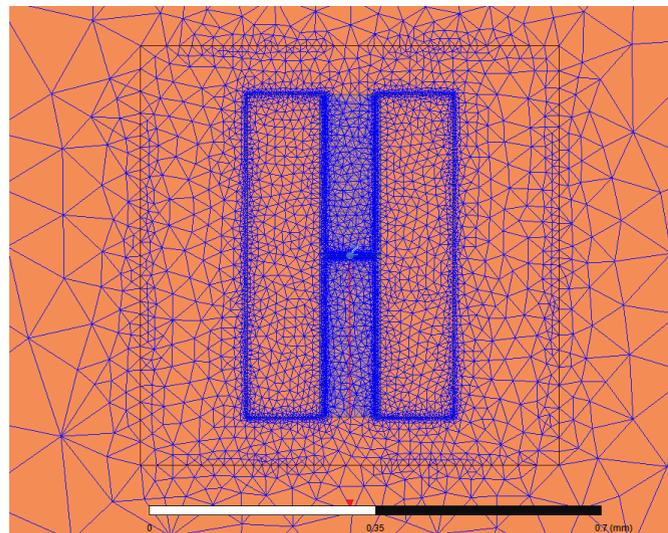
- What is quantum computing?
- What is a qubit?
- What is entanglement?
- How can entanglement be created (e.g., CNOT)?
- What is a projective measurement?
- What are the basic components of a quantum computer?



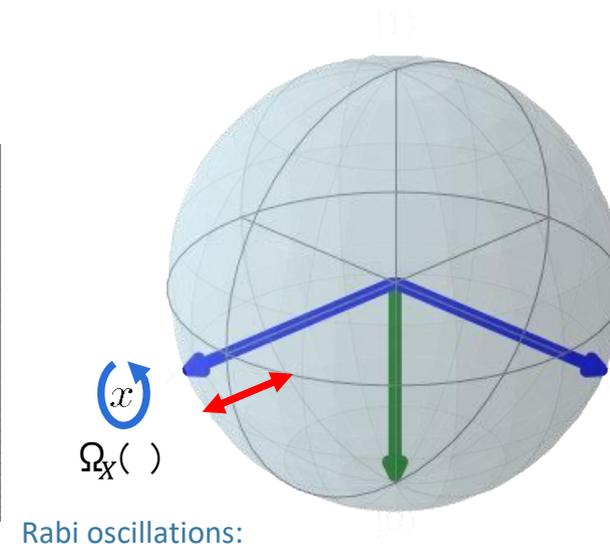
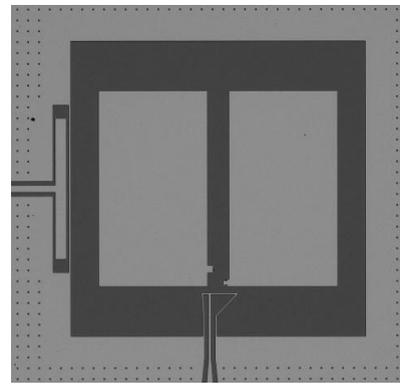
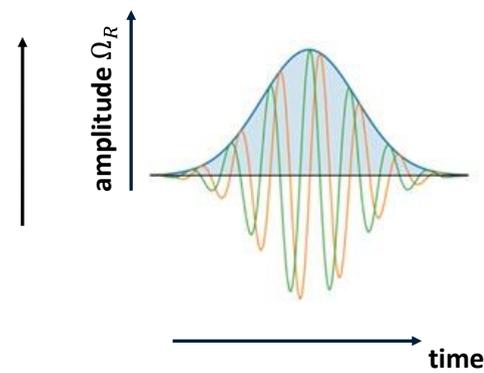
- What is a superconducting qubit?
- What is a Josephson junction?
- How to realize different types of superconducting qubits? (CPB, transmon)
- What properties do the different types of qubits have?



- How to fabricate superconducting circuits?
- Which materials and which processes are used?
- What kind of losses and decoherence channels are there?



- How to readout a qubit?
- How to control a qubit?
- How to correct errors?
- What are the open challenges?



Quantum Computing

N bit input 100110...

**Quantum
Computer**

**N qubits
 2^N paths**

$|100000 \dots\rangle + |010010 \dots\rangle +$
 $|101000 \dots\rangle + \dots$

N bit output 010101...

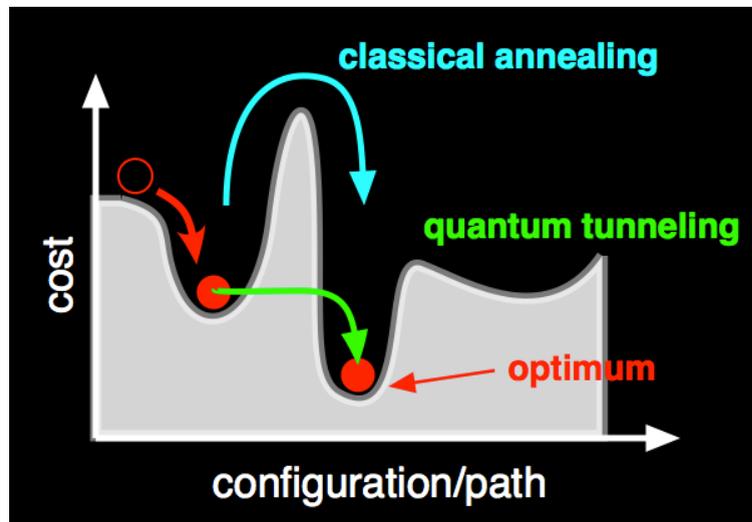
Quantum Annealing

Optimization Problems

- Machine learning
- Fault analysis
- Resource optimization
- etc...



$$H(t) = H_0 t + (1 - t)H_t$$

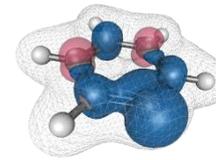


Many 'noisy' qubits can be built;
large problem class in optimization;
amount of quantum speedup unclear

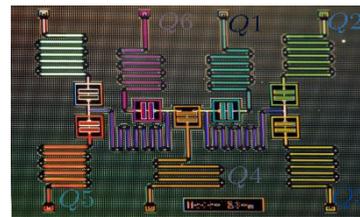
Approximate Q-Comp. (NISQ)

Simulation of Quantum Systems, Optimization

- Material discovery
- Quantum chemistry
- Optimization (logistics, time scheduling,...)
- Machine Learning



$$E_t = \langle \psi_t | H | \psi_t \rangle$$



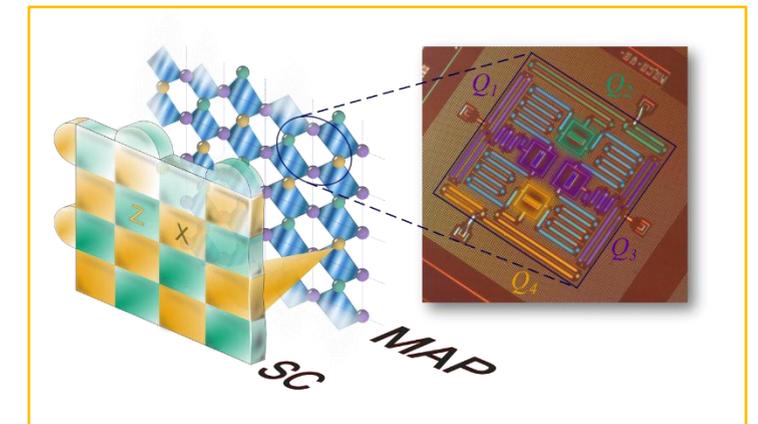
Hybrid quantum-classical approach;
already 50-100 "good" physical qubits
could provide quantum speedup.

Fault-tolerant Universal Q-Comp.

Execution of Arbitrary Quantum Algorithms

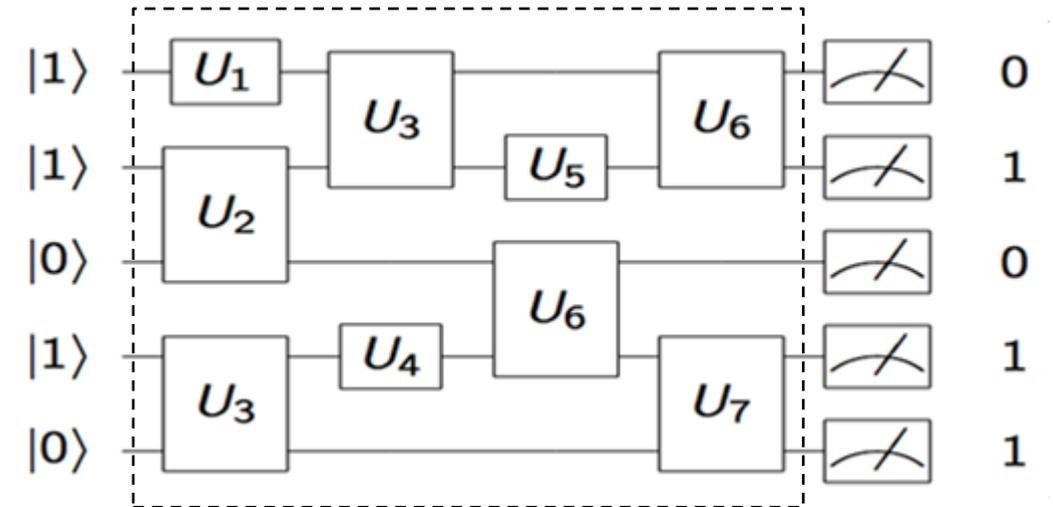
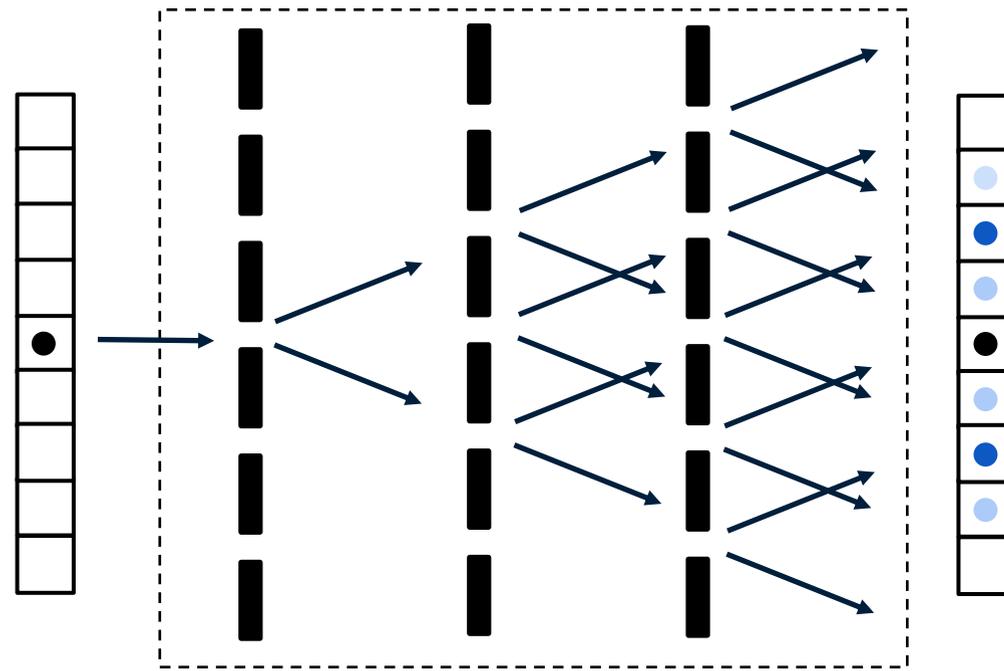
- Algebraic algorithms
(machine learning, cryptography,...)
- Combinatorial optimization
- Digital simulation of quantum systems

$$|\psi_t\rangle = U_n \dots U_1 |\psi_0\rangle$$

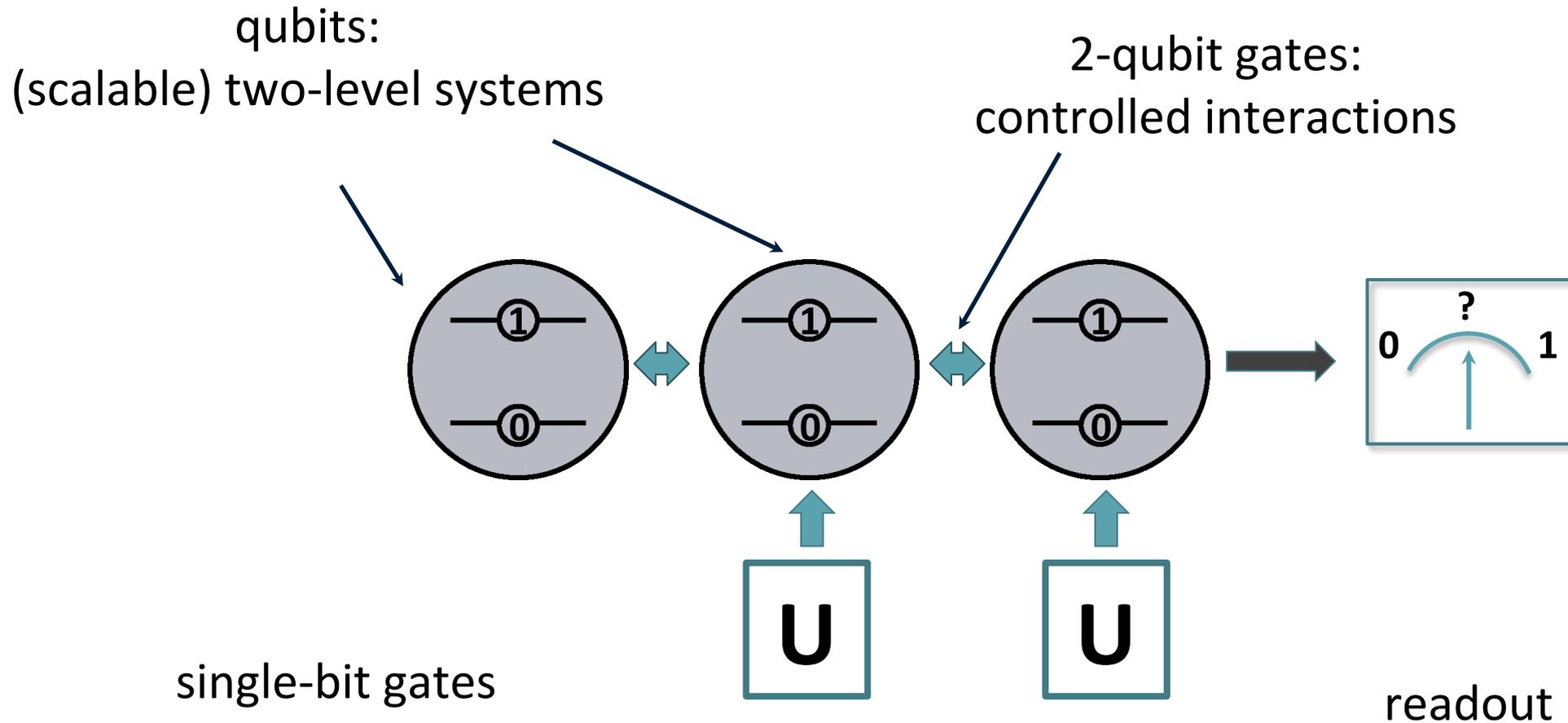


Surface Code: Error correction in a Quantum Computer

Proven quantum speedup;
error correction requires significant
qubit overhead.



- Many computational paths from initial state to each final state
- Each path accumulates a complex phase, e.g. $1, -1, i, e^{i\pi/4}, \dots$
- Output probability: concentrated at the final states where (almost) all paths arrive with (approximately) the same phase.



- Quantum information processing requires **excellent qubits, gates & readout**
- **Conflicting requirements:** good isolation from environment while maintaining good addressability

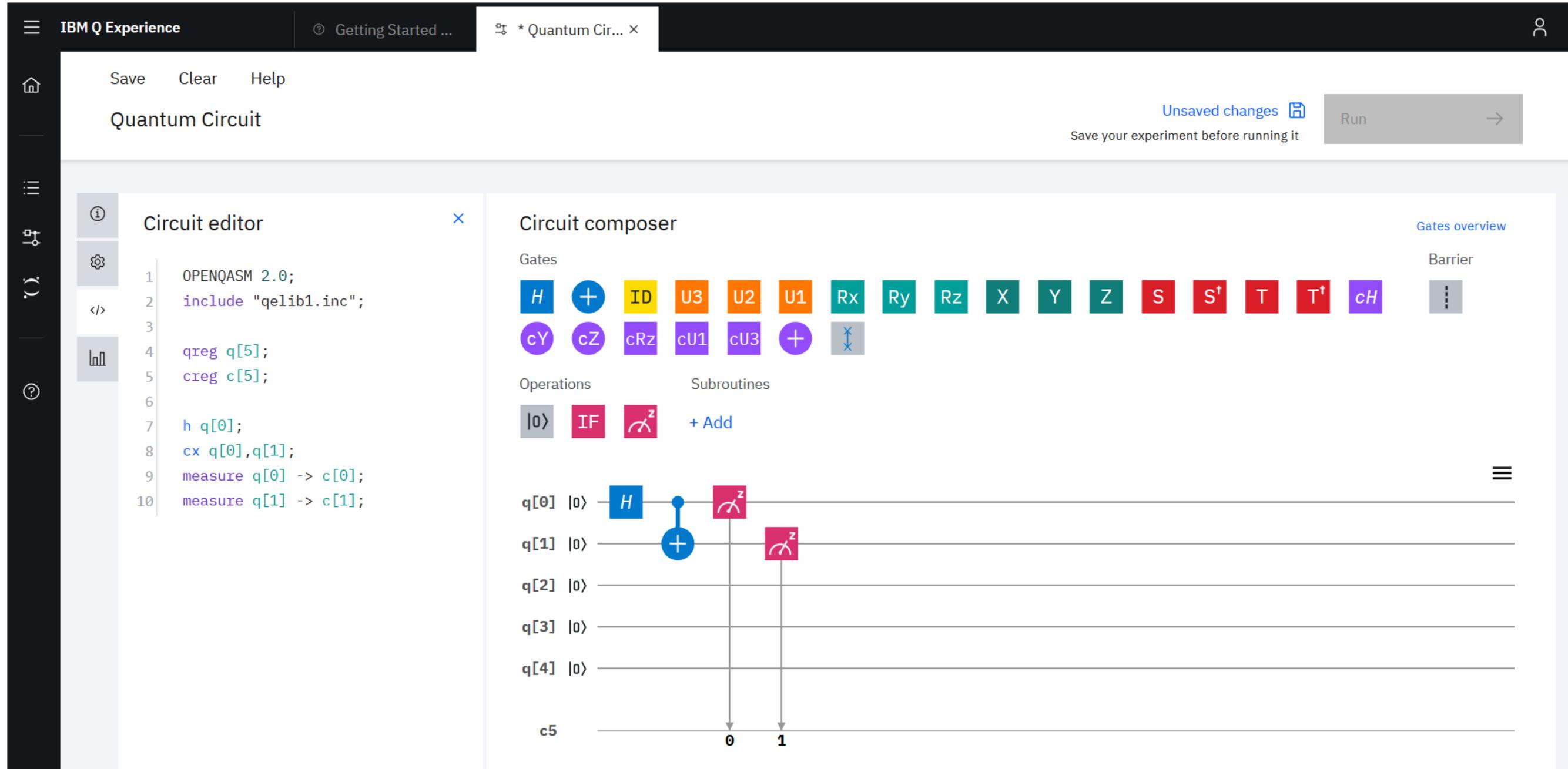
for Implementing a quantum computer in the standard (circuit approach) to quantum information processing (QIP):

- #1. A **scalable** physical system with well-characterized qubits.
- #2. The ability to **initialize** the state of the qubits.
- #3. **Long (relative) coherence** times, much longer than the gate-operation time.
- #4. A **universal set** of quantum gates.
- #5. A qubit-specific **measurement** capability.

plus two criteria requiring the possibility to transmit information:

- #6. The ability to **interconvert** stationary and mobile (or flying) qubits.
- #7. The ability to faithfully **transmit** flying qubits between specified locations.

'Circuit-approach' to quantum computing



The screenshot shows the IBM Q Experience Quantum Circuit editor. The interface is divided into several sections:

- Top Bar:** Includes "IBM Q Experience", "Getting Started ...", and a tab for "* Quantum Cir...".
- Header:** Contains "Save", "Clear", "Help", "Quantum Circuit", "Unsaved changes" (with a save icon), and a "Run" button.
- Circuit editor:** A code editor showing the following QASM code:

```
1 OPENQASM 2.0;
2 include "qelib1.inc";
3
4 qreg q[5];
5 creg c[5];
6
7 h q[0];
8 cx q[0],q[1];
9 measure q[0] -> c[0];
10 measure q[1] -> c[1];
```
- Circuit composer:** A panel for selecting gates and operations. It includes:
 - Gates:** H, CNOT (+), ID, U3, U2, U1, Rx, Ry, Rz, X, Y, Z, S, S†, T, T†, cH, Barrier.
 - Operations:** |0>, IF, Z, + Add.
- Circuit Diagram:** A quantum circuit diagram with 5 qubits (q[0] to q[4]) and 5 classical bits (c[0] to c[4]). The qubits start in the |0> state. The circuit consists of:
 - Qubit q[0]: H gate.
 - Qubit q[1]: CNOT gate controlled by q[0].
 - Qubit q[0]: Z gate.
 - Qubit q[1]: Z gate.
 - Measurements on q[0] and q[1] are performed, with results stored in c[0] and c[1] respectively.

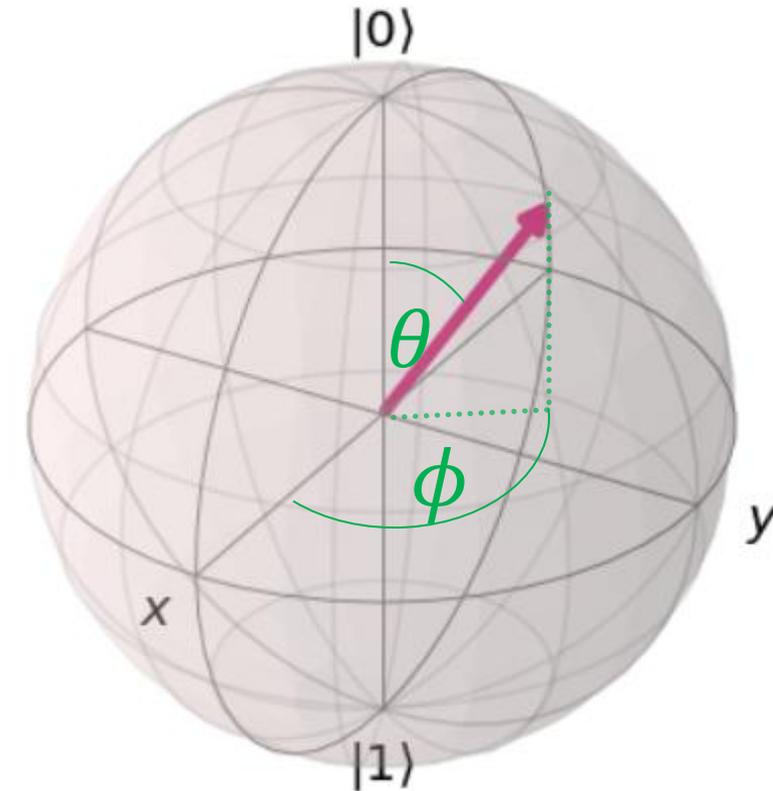
Qubits

Classical Bit



0 or 1

Quantum Bit (Qubit)



0 and 1, at the same time
represented by point on (Bloch-)Sphere

'superposition'

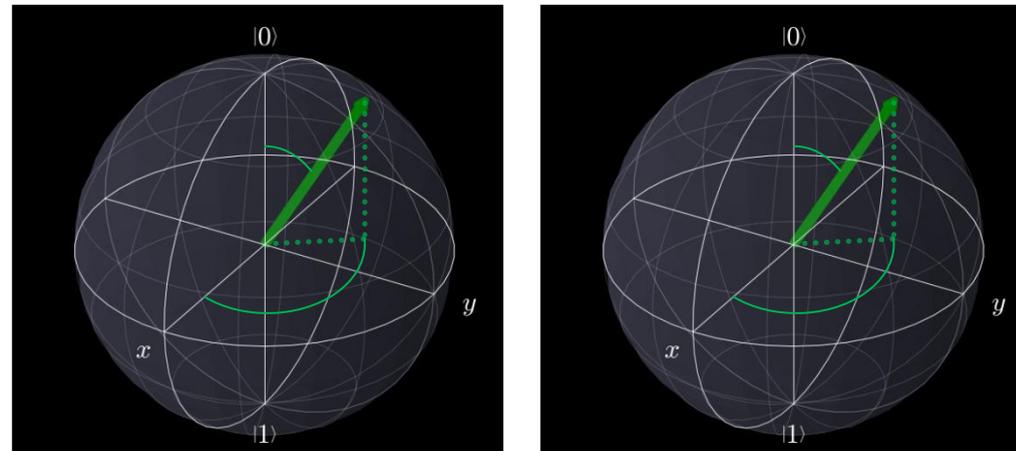
2 Classical Bits



00, 01, 10, or 11

2 Quantum Bits (Qubits)

$$\alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$$



00, 01, 10 and 11 at the same time
with probability $|\alpha|^2$, $|\beta|^2$, $|\gamma|^2$ and $|\delta|^2$

Superposition + Entanglement

1 qubit – 2 basis states

$$\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

where α and β are complex numbers



1 qubit – 2 basis states

$$\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

2 qubits – 4 basis states

$$\alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$$

where $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$ are complex numbers



1 qubit – 2 basis states

$$\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$

2 qubits – 4 basis states

$$\alpha|00\rangle + \beta|01\rangle + \gamma|10\rangle + \delta|11\rangle$$

3 qubits – 8 basis states

$$\alpha|000\rangle + \beta|001\rangle + \gamma|010\rangle + \delta|011\rangle + \epsilon|100\rangle + \zeta|101\rangle + \eta|110\rangle + \theta|111\rangle$$

where $\alpha, \beta, \dots, \theta$ are complex numbers



Exponential growth

2ⁿ

$2^{50} \sim 8\text{EB}$
(8 million GB)

Basis states
50 qubit system

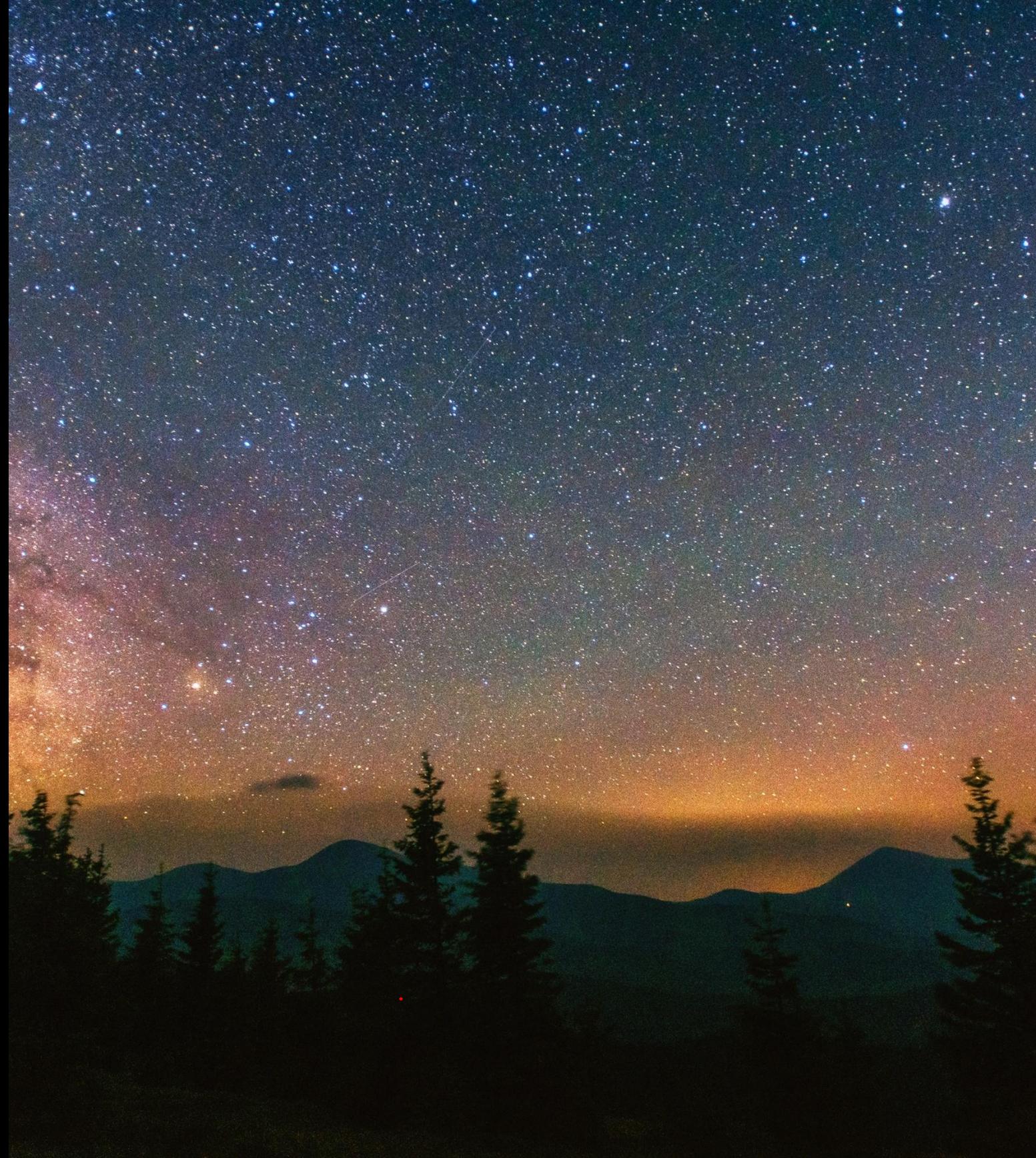
1125899906842624



2^{275}

More basis states than
there are atoms in the
observable universe

60708402882054033466233184588234965832
5752137203793600391191378043407589126627
65568



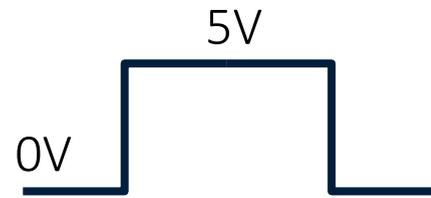
*How much **memory** is needed to store a quantum state?*

# qubits	quantum state	coefficients	# bytes
1	$a 0\rangle + b 1\rangle$	$2^1 = 2$	16 Bytes
2	$a 00\rangle + b 01\rangle + c 10\rangle + d 11\rangle$	$2^2 = 4$	32 Bytes
8		$2^8 = 256$	2kB
16	...	$2^{16} = 65'536$	512 kB
32	...	~4 billion	32 GB
64	...	~ information in internet	128 EB (134 million GB)
256	...	~ # of atoms in universe	...

Classical logical operations

Classical bit:

- possible values are 0 or 1
- physical realizations:



Voltage level in a circuit



Switch



Relais



VacuumTube

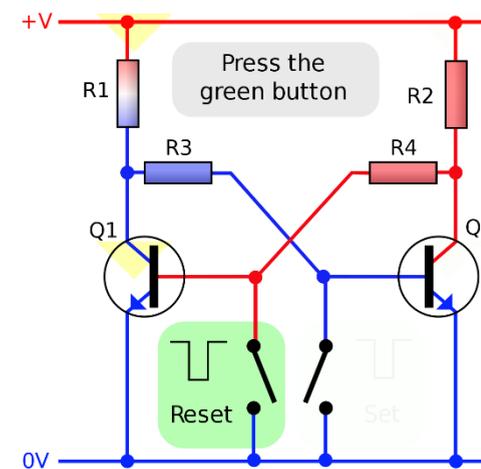


Transistor

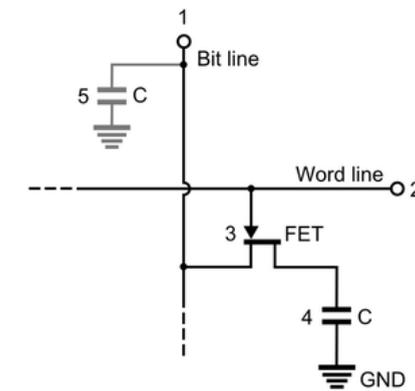
- manipulation of bits via a **physical** process:



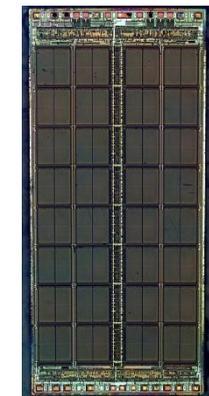
Harddisc write heat



Flip-flop circuit
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flip-flop_\(electronics\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flip-flop_(electronics))



DRAM – memory cell
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_cell_\(computing\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memory_cell_(computing))



Universal logic gates: NOR, NAND

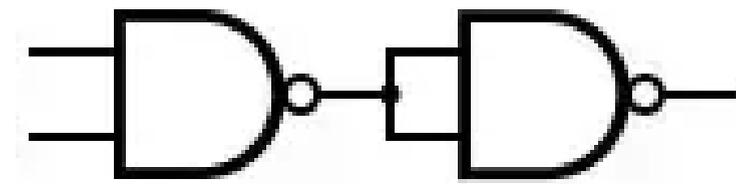
Any other gate can be built from using only NOR (or only NAND) gates:

Circuit Representation of 'a AND b' in terms of NAND gates

Truth table:

a	b	a AND b
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

a	b	a NAND b
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0



Properties of a classical computer

- Bits can be copied (FANOUT)
- Additional working bits are allowed (ANCILLAS)
- Values of bits can be interchanged (CROSSOVER / SWAP)
- Number of output bits may be smaller than # of input bits

Digital vs. Analog Computing

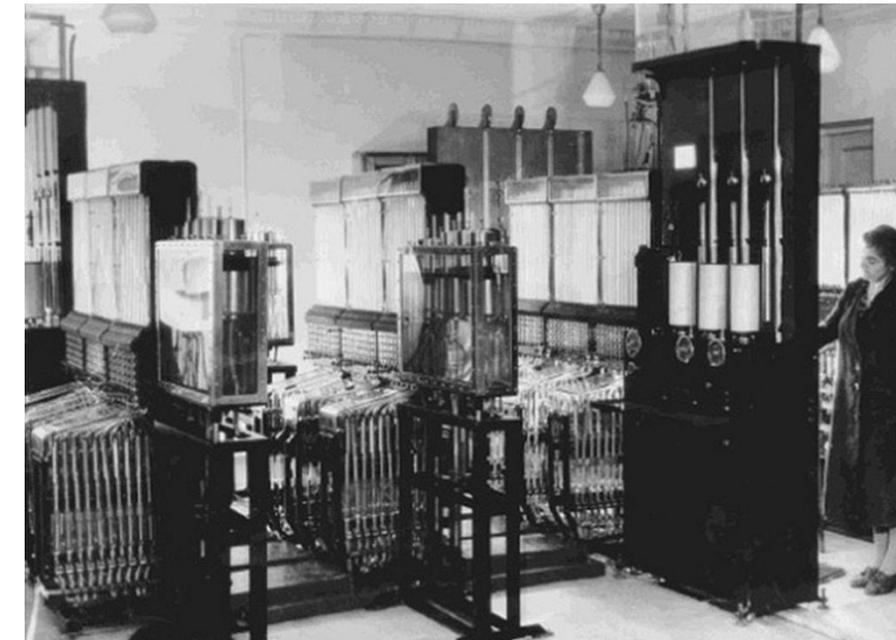
Why is digital computing so much better than analog computing?

- Resilience to errors
- Universality (applicable to many applications)

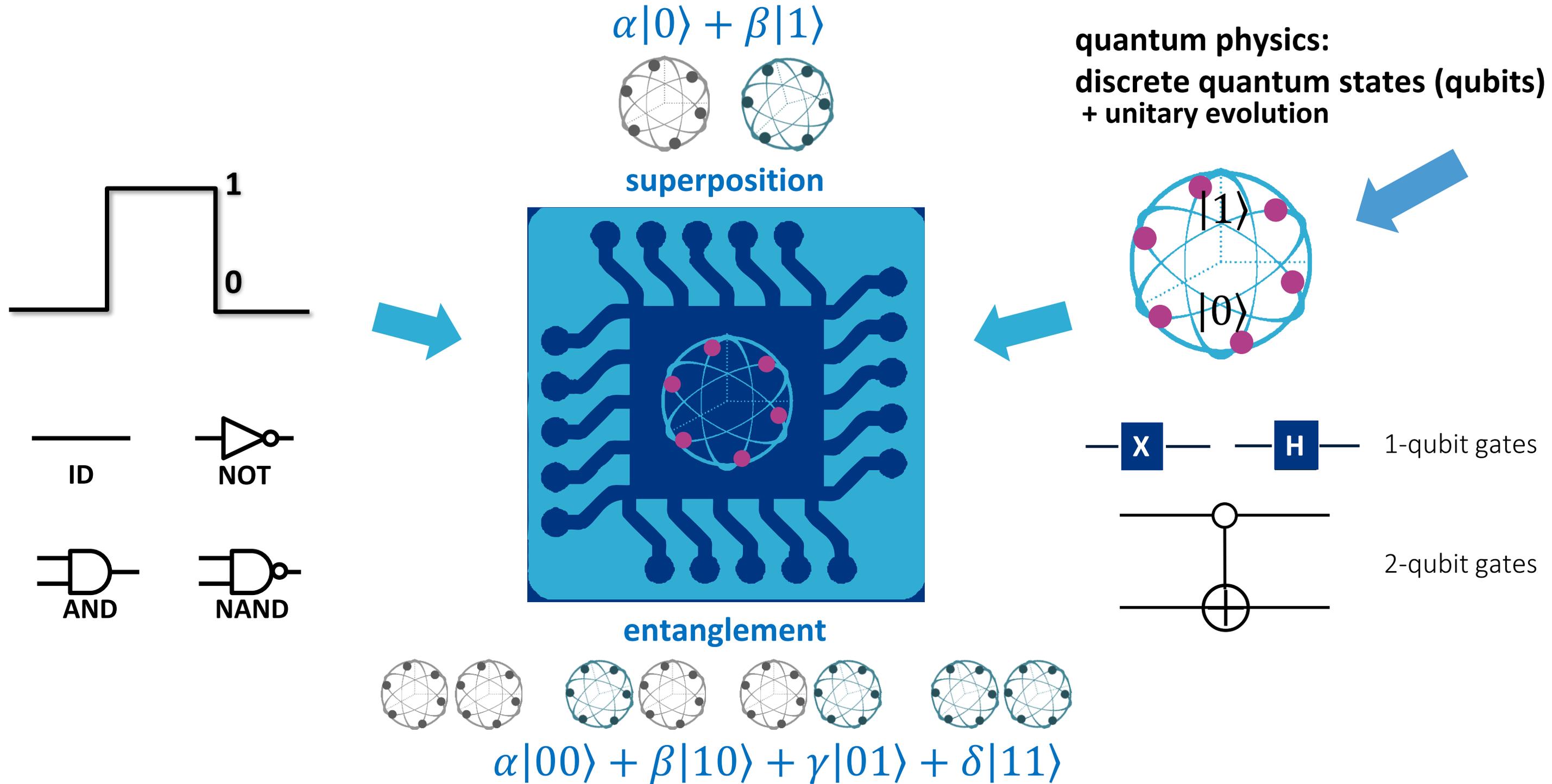
Example for specific use of analog computer:

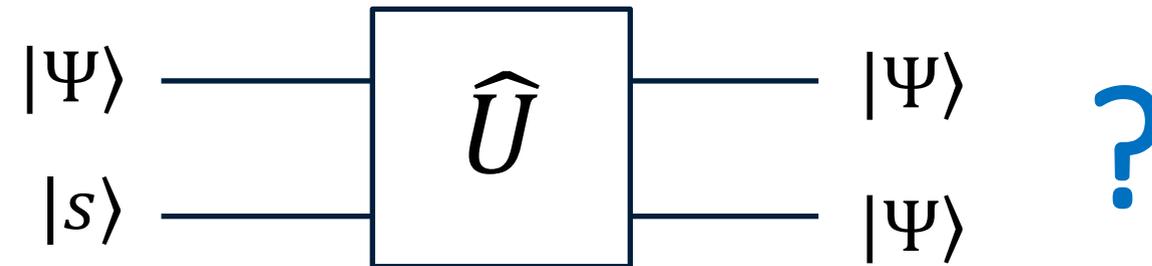
Water integrator (Lukyanov, 1936)

(<https://www.amusingplanet.com/2019/12/vladimir-lukyanovs-water-computer.html>)



© amusingplanet.com





Cloning = copying of a general state is not possible:

This would imply $|0\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle|1\rangle$ and by linearity

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle &\rightarrow \alpha|0\rangle|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle|1\rangle \\ &\neq \\ &(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle)(\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

Alternative proof:

$$\hat{U}|\Psi_1\rangle|s\rangle = |\Psi_1\rangle|\Psi_1\rangle$$

$$\hat{U}|\Psi_2\rangle|s\rangle = |\Psi_2\rangle|\Psi_2\rangle$$

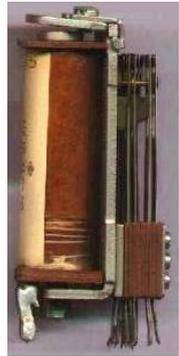
$$\langle\Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle = \langle\Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle\langle s|s\rangle = \langle\Psi_2|\langle s|\hat{U}^\dagger\hat{U}|\Psi_1\rangle|s\rangle = (\langle\Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle)(\langle\Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle) = (\langle\Psi_2|\Psi_1\rangle)^2$$

Name the (main) difference(s) between classical and quantum bits.

- States do not live indefinitely
- Phase matters
- Parallelism: operations act on many states at once
(for n qubits, up to 2^n states)

What is a quantum bit?

Classical Bits:



Relais



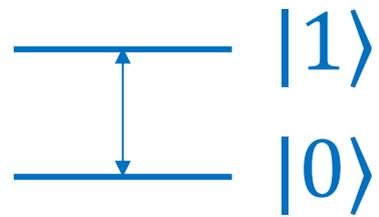
Vacuum Tube



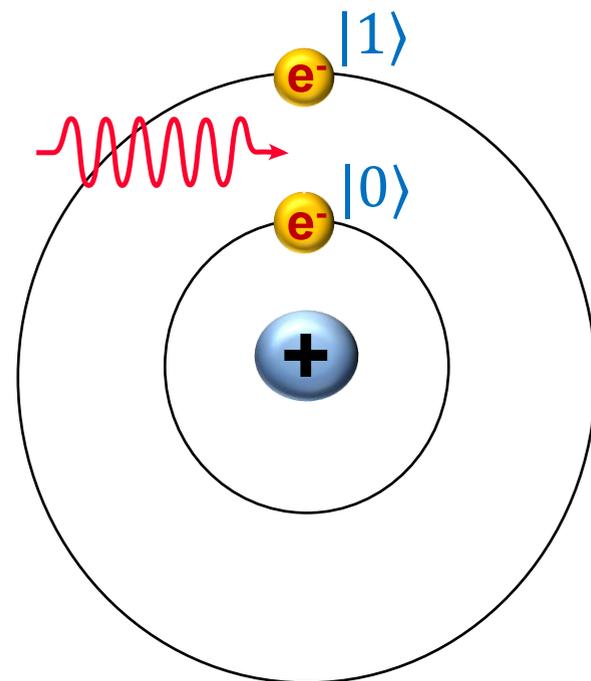
Transistor

Quantum Bits:

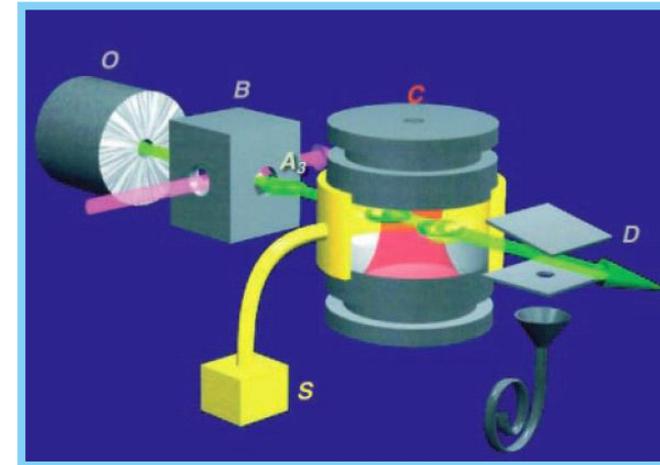
Two-Level Systems



Example:
Atom orbitals with different energetic levels

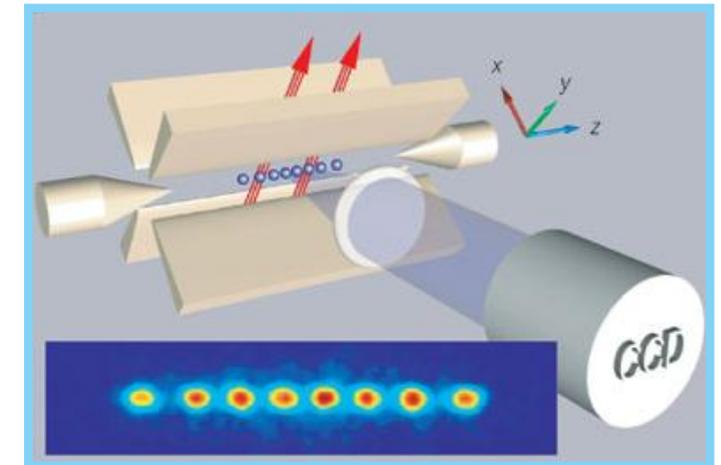


Neutral Atoms



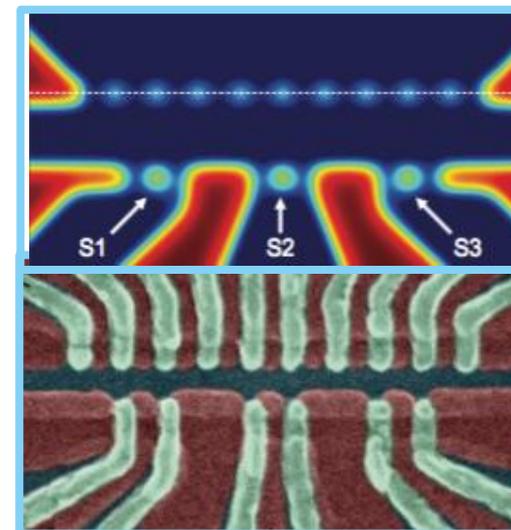
© Haroche

Ion Traps



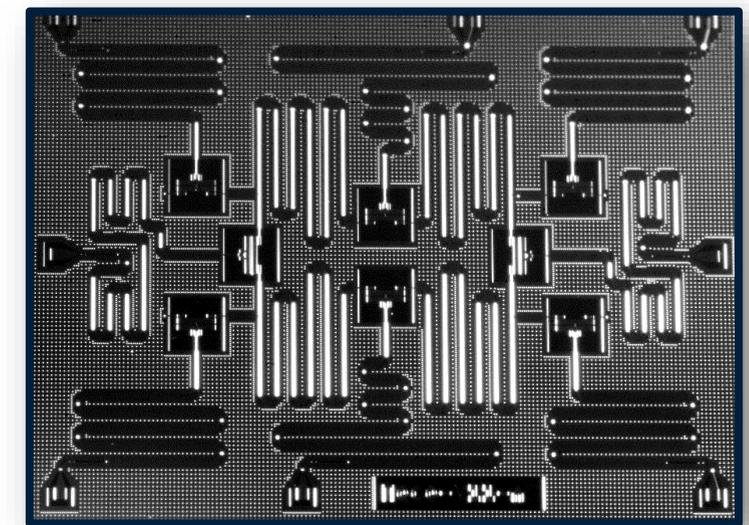
© Blatt & Wineland

Quantum Dots



© Petta

Superconducting Circuits



© IBM

Representation of qubit state: vectors in Hilbert space (2-dim, complex)

$$|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \hat{=} |\downarrow\rangle \hat{=} |H\rangle$$

$$|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \hat{=} |\uparrow\rangle \hat{=} |V\rangle$$

$|\cdot\rangle$... Dirac notation
 (\cdot) ... vector notation

Most general qubit state: $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ with $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$

- superposition state of $|0\rangle$ & $|1\rangle$
- probability to find system in 0 or 1:
$$P_0 = |\alpha|^2, \quad P_1 = |\beta|^2$$
- Laws of probabilities: $P_0 + P_1 = 1 \rightarrow$ Normalization: $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$

- **Representation of a state:** $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$ with $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$

- **3 parameters:**

$$\alpha = \cos\frac{\theta}{2} e^{i\phi_\alpha}, \quad \beta = \sin\frac{\theta}{2} e^{i\phi_\beta}$$

$$|\psi\rangle = \cos\frac{\theta}{2} e^{i\phi_\alpha} |0\rangle + \sin\frac{\theta}{2} e^{i\phi_\beta} |1\rangle$$

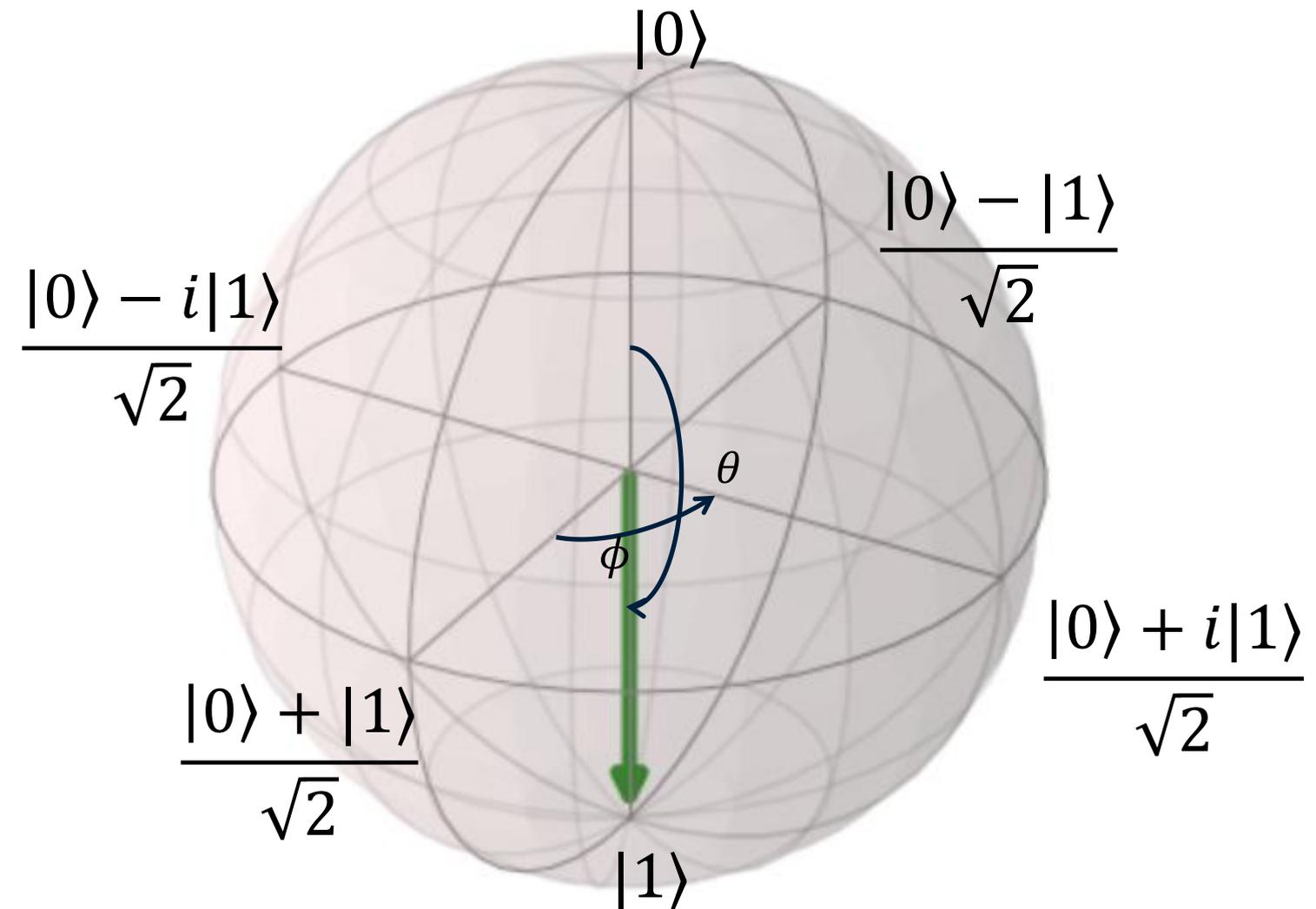
$$= e^{i\phi_\alpha} \left(\cos\frac{\theta}{2} |0\rangle + e^{i\phi} \sin\frac{\theta}{2} |1\rangle \right)$$

→ **Global phase** $e^{i\phi_\alpha}$ is immaterial
(at least for a single qubit)

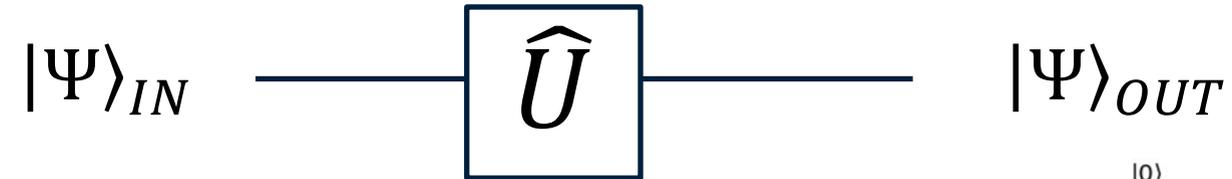
- **2 parameters:**

$\theta \in [0, \pi[$... polar angle

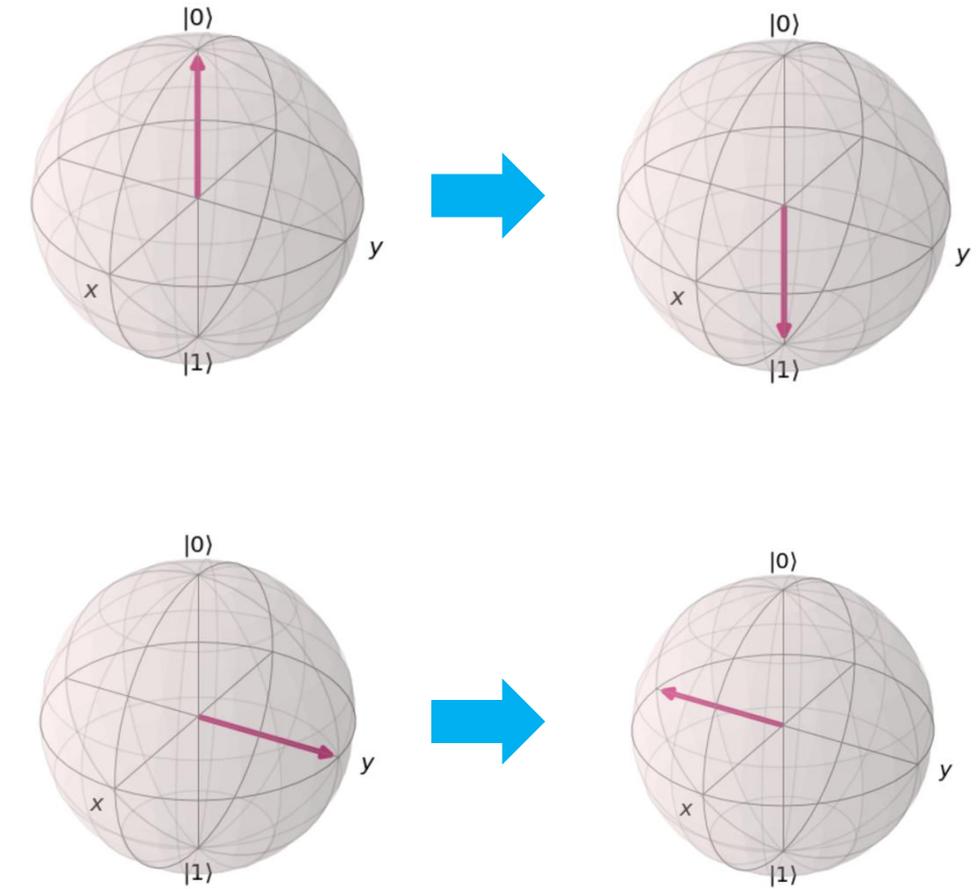
$\phi \in [0, 2\pi[$... azimuthal angle



Circuit representation:



- Identity operation: $\hat{U} = \hat{I} = 1_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Bit flip operation: $\hat{U} = \hat{X} = \sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ($\hat{=}$ NOT operation)
(rotation by π about x-axis)
- Phase flip operation: $\hat{U} = \hat{Z} = \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
(rotation by π about z-axis)
- Bit-phase flip operation: $\hat{U} = \hat{Y} = \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
(rotation by π about y-axis)



$\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z \dots$ Pauli matrices; $\{1, \sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z\} \dots$ basis set for operators on a single qubit

Time-evolution given by Schrödinger equation:

$$\hat{H}|\psi\rangle = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi\rangle$$

Simple(st) example: single spin-1/2 particle in a magnetic field ($\mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2m_e}$... Bohr magneton):

$$\hat{H} = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} = \mu_B \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_x \\ \hat{\sigma}_y \\ \hat{\sigma}_z \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} B_x \\ B_y \\ B_z \end{pmatrix} = \mu_B (\hat{\sigma}_x B_x + \hat{\sigma}_y B_y + \hat{\sigma}_z B_z)$$

Unitary evolution: $\hat{U} = e^{\frac{i\omega_L t}{2} \vec{n} \cdot \hat{\sigma}} = \hat{1} \cdot \cos \frac{\omega_L t}{2} + i \vec{n} \cdot \hat{\sigma} \sin \frac{\omega_L t}{2}$ (Larmor frequency $\omega_L = \frac{2\mu_B |B|}{\hbar}$)

$$\text{For } \vec{B} = B_z: \hat{U}_z = e^{\frac{i\omega_L t}{2} \hat{\sigma}_z} = \begin{pmatrix} e^{\frac{i\omega_L t}{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-\frac{i\omega_L t}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

[see e.g., Haken & Wolf, Atom- & Quantenphysik, ch. 14]

How do you realize a bit flip that brings

$$|0\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle?$$

- A) Apply a static B-field that is orthogonal to the quantization axis z.
- B) Apply a B-field that is oscillating at the Larmor frequency orthogonal to the z axis.
- C) Both.
- D) None of the above.

What is the evolution of the state $|0\rangle$ (on the Bloch sphere), when $\vec{B} = B_z$?

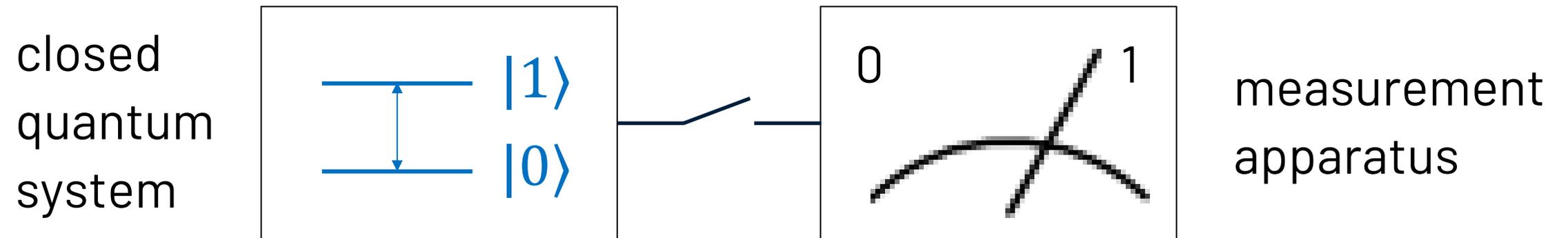
A) Remains constant.

B) Obtains a phase $e^{i\frac{\omega t}{2}}$.

C) Both.

D) None of the above.

Generic measurement setup:



Goal: faithful representation of quantum state

Properties of an ideal measurement apparatus:

- **high ON/OFF ratio:** no interaction in OFF, strong interaction in ON state
- **High fidelity** of mapping of quantum system to measurement apparatus
- **Fast measurement** with respect to dissipation
- **Repeatability** (quantum non-demolition)

- Described by an 'observable' (=Hermitian operator) \hat{M}

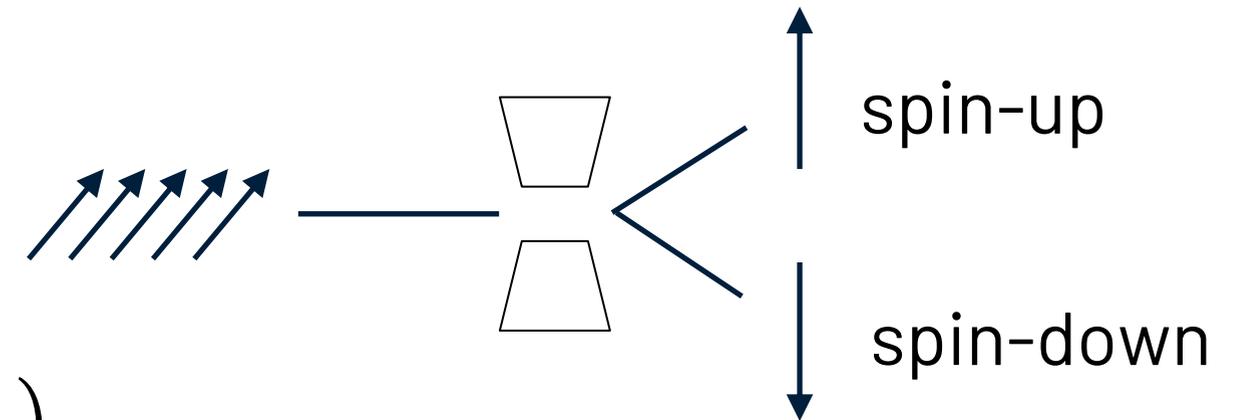
\hat{S}_z ... spin along z-axis

\hat{S}^2 ... absolut value squared of spin

Example: [Stern-Gerlach apparatus](#) to measure spins
(magnetic gradient field leads to deflection of particles with different spins)

Measurement operator (observable): $\hat{S}_z = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_z$

with Pauli-Matrix $\sigma_z = 1 \cdot |0\rangle\langle 0| - 1 \cdot |1\rangle\langle 1| = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$



“Bohr is right after all.” – Stern to Gerlach

Is the measurement of σ_z sufficient to determine the state completely?

e.g., one cannot learn the phase of a state $|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|0\rangle + e^{i\phi} |1\rangle)$,

Measure σ_x, σ_y in addition \rightarrow State tomography

Can one perform different measurements simultaneously on a single particle?

*If a measurement is done, the state is destroyed. We can only measure different observables on an **ensemble** of equally prepared states.*

Exponential growth of Hilbert space:

- **Classical bits:** only one state is realized at any given time
- **Quantum bits:** quantum register can be in any superposition of basis states

# qubits	quantum state	coefficients	# bytes
1	$a 0\rangle + b 1\rangle$	$2^1 = 2$	16 Bytes
2	$a 00\rangle + b 01\rangle + c 10\rangle + d 11\rangle$	$2^2 = 4$	32 Bytes
8		$2^8 = 256$	2kB
16	...	$2^{16} = 65'536$	512 kB
32	...	~4 billion	32 GB
64	...	~ information in internet	128 EB (134 million GB)
256	...	~ # of atoms in universe	...

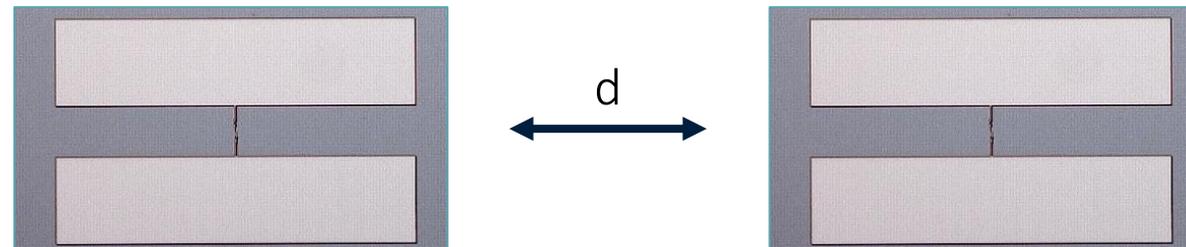
Tensor product: $|\psi\rangle = |A\rangle \otimes |B\rangle = |AB\rangle$

e.g. for two qubits $|A\rangle = \alpha_A|0\rangle + \beta_A|1\rangle$ & $B = \alpha_B|0\rangle + \beta_B|1\rangle$

$\rightarrow |\psi\rangle = \alpha_A\alpha_B|00\rangle + \alpha_A\beta_B|01\rangle + \beta_A\alpha_B|10\rangle + \beta_A\beta_B|11\rangle$

with $\sum_{ij} |\alpha_{ij}|^2 = 1$ (normalization)

Does it matter how close two quantum systems are in order to assign a tensor product state to the systems, $|A\rangle \otimes |B\rangle$?



Definition: An **entangled** state of a composite system is a state that **can not** be written as a tensor product state of the component systems.

Product state (separable state):

$$\begin{aligned} |\psi\rangle &= |A\rangle \otimes |B\rangle \\ &= \alpha_A \alpha_B |00\rangle + \alpha_A \beta_B |01\rangle + \beta_A \alpha_B |10\rangle + \beta_A \beta_B |11\rangle \\ &\text{with } |A\rangle = \alpha_A |0\rangle + \beta_A |1\rangle \text{ \& } |B\rangle = \alpha_B |0\rangle + \beta_B |1\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Entangled state:

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|00\rangle + |11\rangle)$$

Proof: It cannot be written in the form above!

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_A \alpha_B &= \beta_A \beta_B = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \rightarrow \alpha_A \beta_B &\neq 0 \text{ or } \beta_A \alpha_A \neq 0! \end{aligned}$$

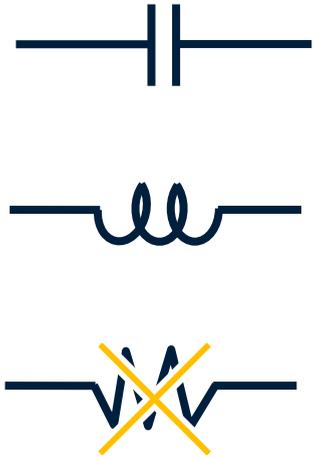
Multi-qubit state

How many coefficients are required to describe a separable (product) state of N qubits, $|\psi_{sep}\rangle = |A_1\rangle \otimes |A_2\rangle \otimes \cdots \otimes |A_N\rangle$?

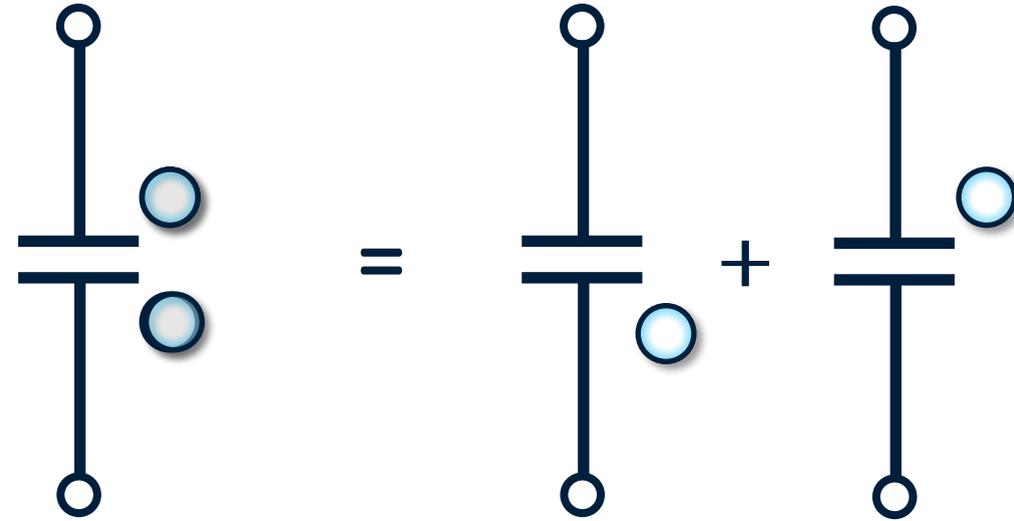
How many coefficients are required to describe a general entangled state of N qubits $|\psi_{ent}\rangle$?

Superconducting Circuits

basic circuit elements:



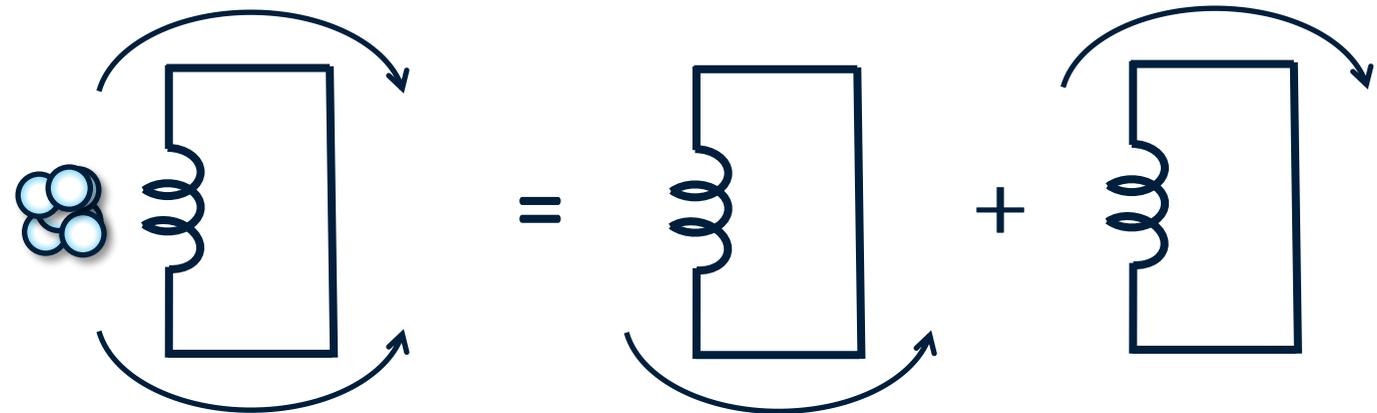
charge on a capacitor:



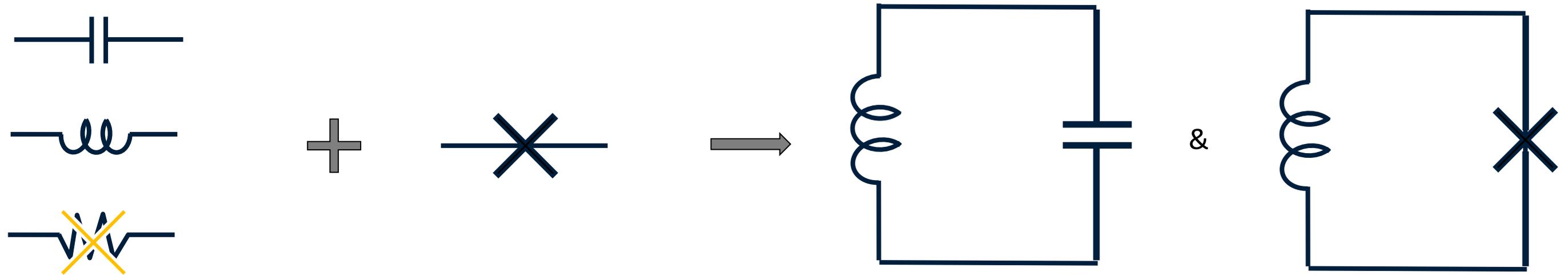
(Quantum) degrees of freedom:

- Charge Q
- Current / magnetic flux ϕ

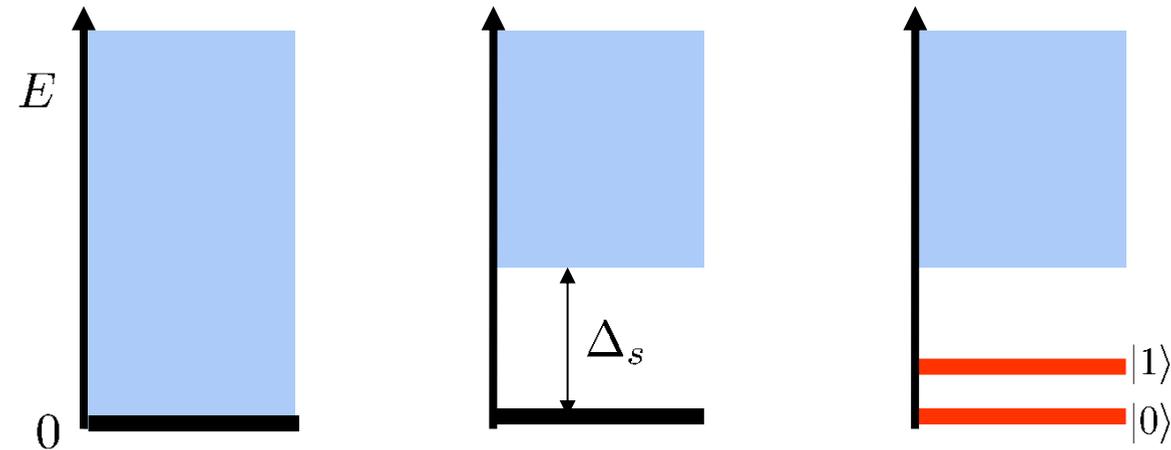
current or magnetic flux in an inductor:



- **Circuit elements:** capacitors, inductors, ~~resistors (which we want to avoid because of dissipation)~~, Josephson junction



- **Superconducting elements:** electrons form Cooper pairs and condense in ground state with excitation gap 2Δ
 - current flow without dissipation
 - dramatic reduction of degrees of freedom
 - objects which behave like single-electron 'artificial atoms' although comprising $10^9 - 10^{12}$ electrons
- **Uniform electron gas (Jellium model):** Coulomb interaction suppresses low-excitation modes (below plasma frequency ω_p)



normal metal superconductor **How to make a qubit?**

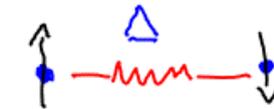
single non-degenerate macroscopic ground state, thanks to phonon-assisted attractive interactions between electrons with opposite spin (Cooper pairs)

Superconducting materials (for electronics):

Niobium (Nb): $2\Delta/h = 725 \text{ GHz}$, $T_c = 9.2 \text{ K}$

Aluminum (Al): $2\Delta/h = 100 \text{ GHz}$, $T_c = 1.2 \text{ K}$

Cooper pairs:
bound electron pairs



Bosons ($S=0, L=0$)

2 chunks of superconductors



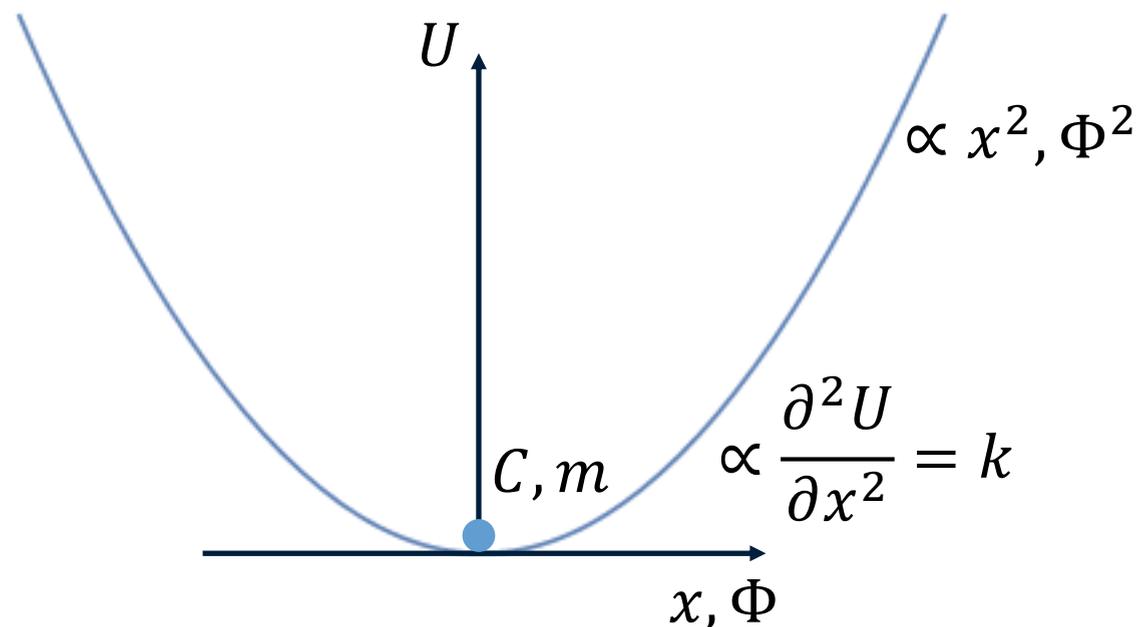
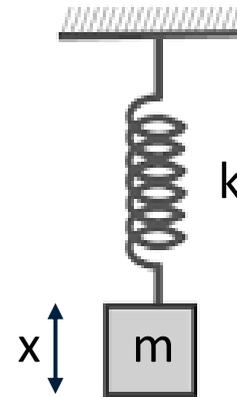
macroscopic wave function

$$\psi_i = \sqrt{n_i^{CP}} e^{i\delta_i}$$

Cooper pair density n_i
and global phase δ_i

Mechanical harmonic oscillator

Hamiltonian: $H = \underbrace{\frac{p^2}{2m}}_{\text{kin.}} + \underbrace{\frac{k}{2}x^2}_{\text{pot.energy}} = \frac{Q^2}{2C} + \frac{\Phi^2}{2L}$

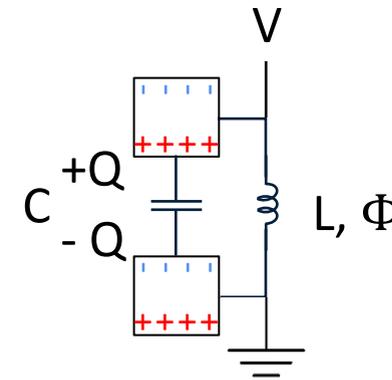


Characteristic variables:	
Mechanical	electronic
Position x	Flux Φ
Momentum p	Charge q
Mass m	Capacitance C
Spring Constant k	Inv. Inductance 1/L
Frequency $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$	$\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$

(*) conjugate momenta

(virtual) particle of mass m (C) moving in quadratic potential

Parallel LC oscillating circuit:



Voltage across oscillator: $V = \frac{Q}{C} = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -L \frac{dI}{dt}$

Energy stored in the circuit (Hamiltonian):

$$H = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} CV^2}_{\text{Capacitive}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} LI^2}_{\text{Inductive}} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Phi^2}{L}$$

Capacitive (electrostatic) energy ($\rightarrow T$) Inductive (magnetic) energy ($\rightarrow W$)

Φ ... magnetic flux stored in inductor ($\Phi = L I$)

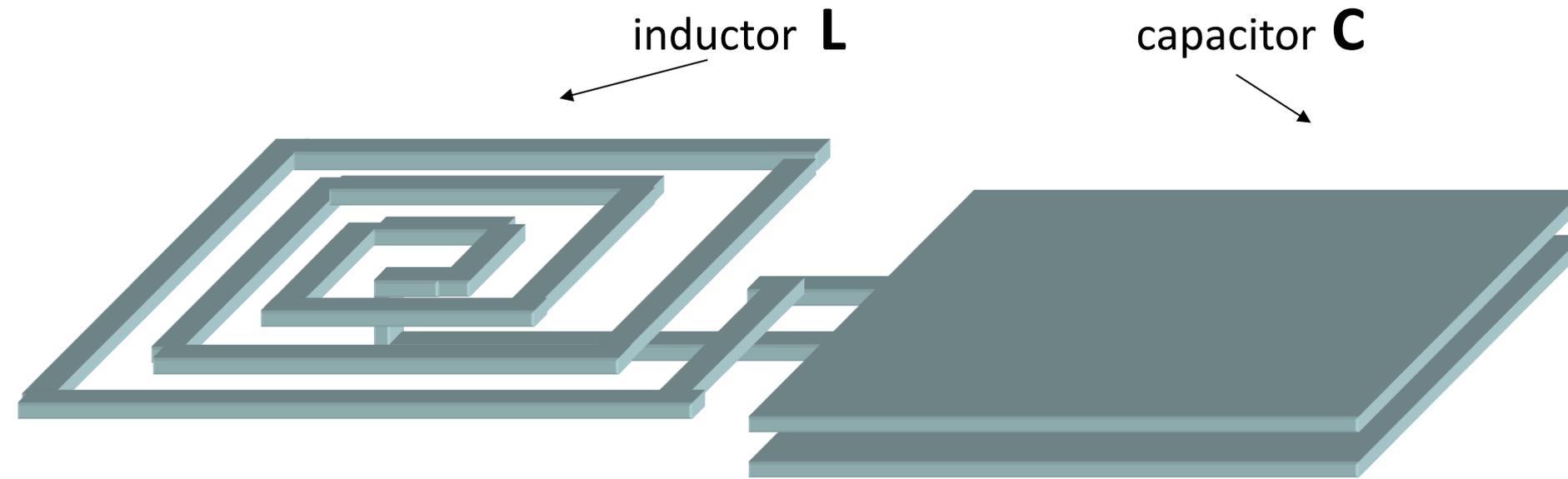
Q ... charge stored on the capacitor ($Q = CV$)

Φ, Q ... conjugate variables

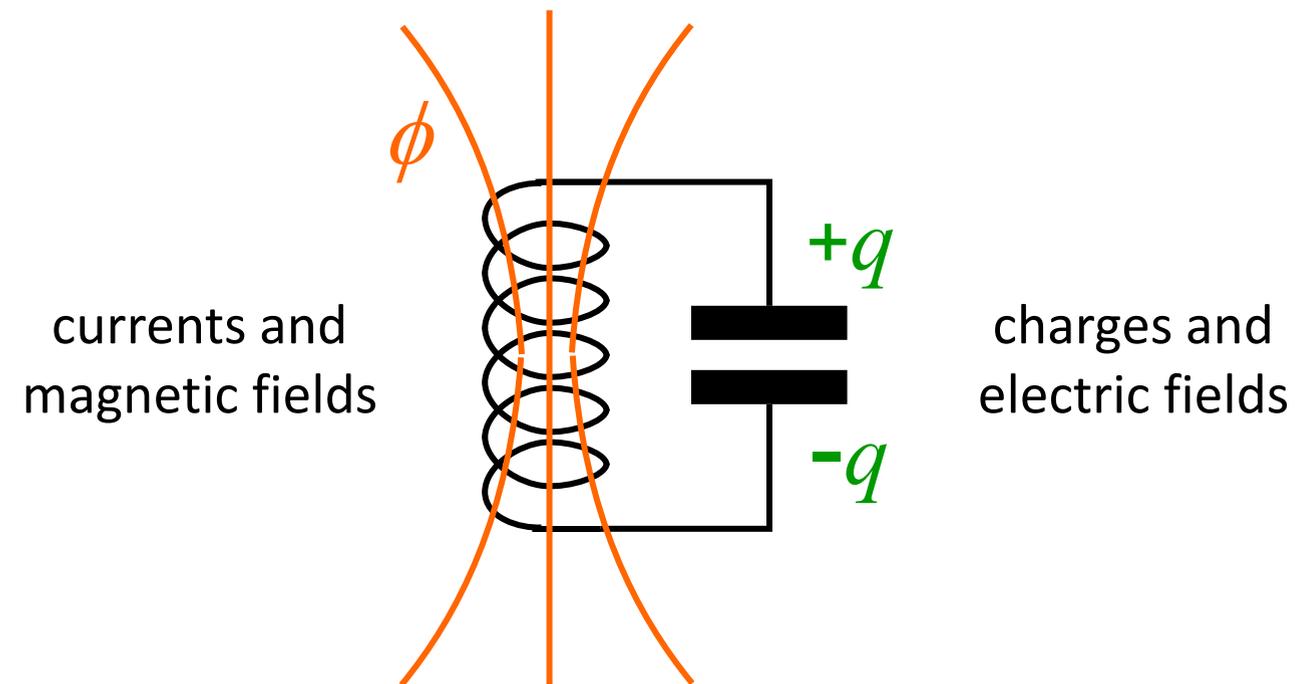
Equations of motion:

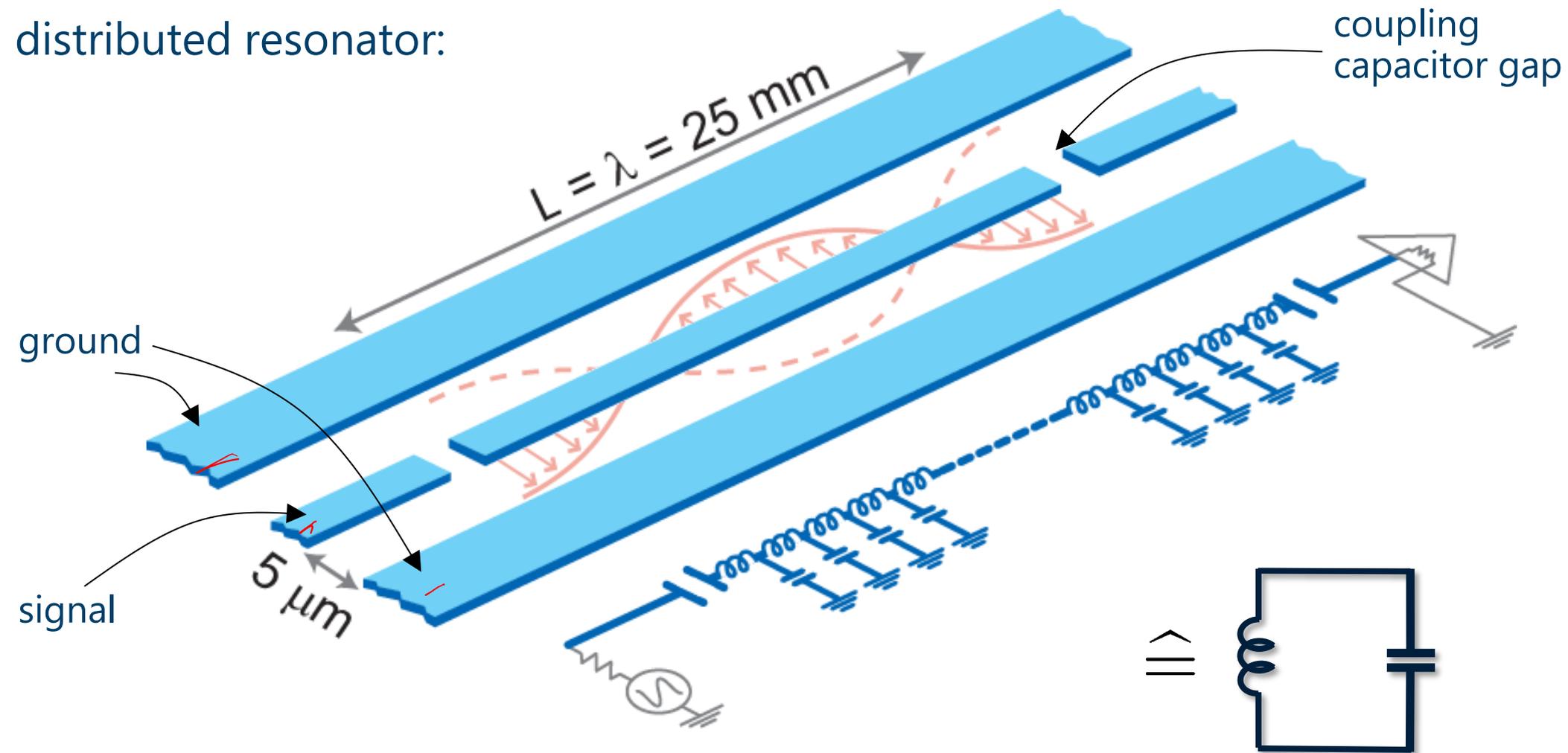
$$-\dot{\Phi} = V = -L \frac{\partial I}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial Q} = \frac{Q}{C} \text{ (Faraday's law)}$$

$$\dot{Q} = I = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \Phi} = \frac{\Phi}{L}$$



a harmonic oscillator

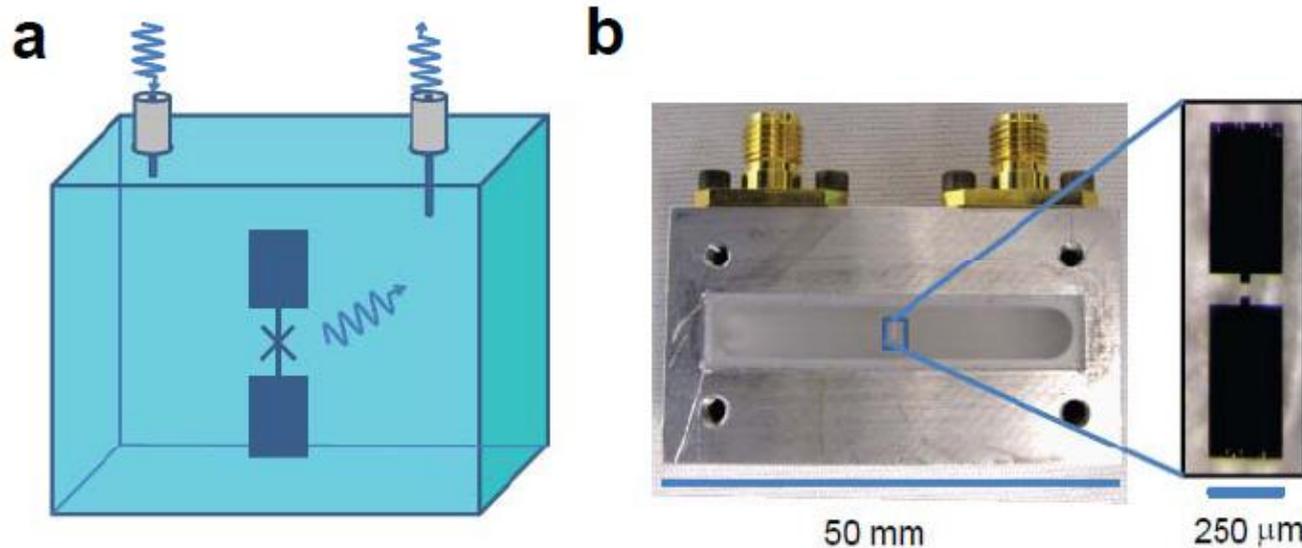




- coplanar waveguide resonator
- close to resonance: equivalent to lumped element LC resonator
- transmission line resonator = microwave cavity

[M. Goepl *et al.*, *Journal of Applied Physics* **104**, 113904 (2008)]

Transmon in a three-dimensional cavity:



H. Paik et al., PRL (2012)

[Pozar – Microwave Engineering]

314 Chapter 6: Microwave Resonators

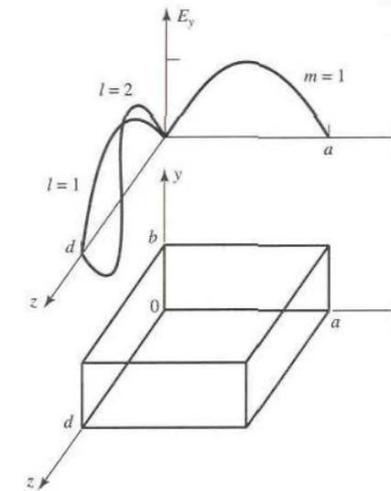
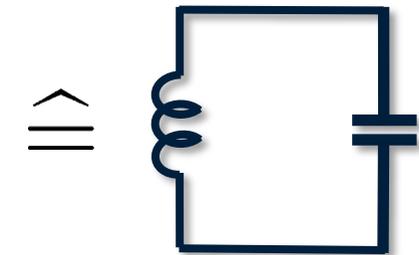


FIGURE 6.6 A rectangular resonant cavity, and the electric field distributions for the TE_{101} and TE_{102} resonant modes.

- mode structure and frequency determined by cavity dimensions
- close to resonance: equivalent to lumped element LC resonator
- long coherence times (lower field density at surfaces \rightarrow lower losses)



Realizations of Superconducting Qubits

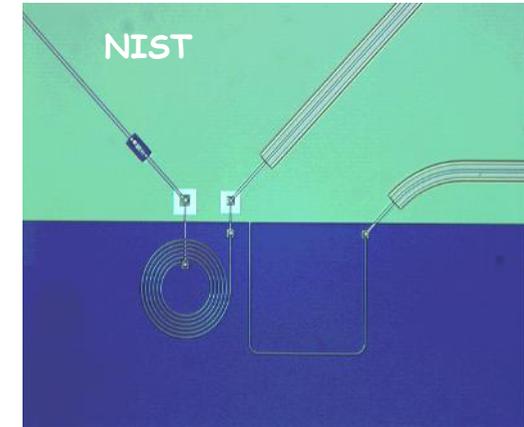
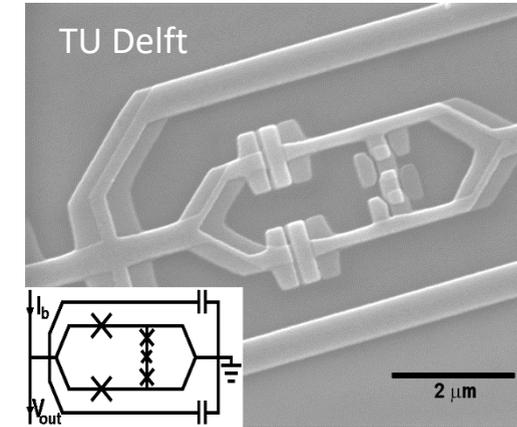
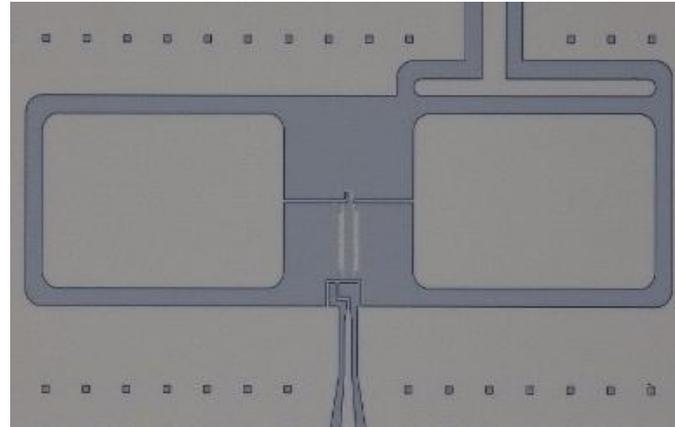
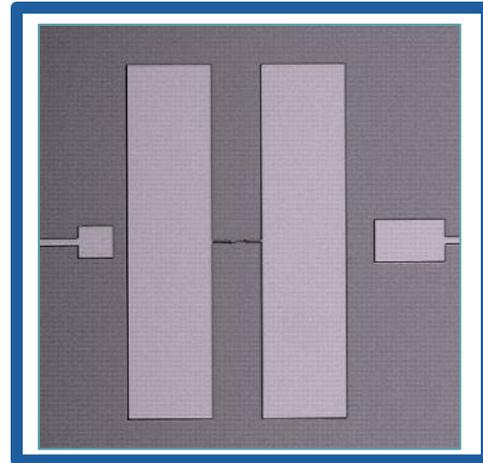
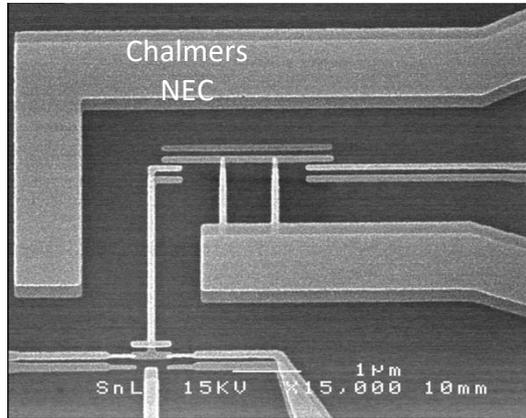
charge

charge/phase
(transmon)

fluxonium

(C-shunt) flux

phase



NEC, Chalmers,
Yale,...

Yale, ETHZ, Google,
IBM, Rigetti, WMI,...

Yale, KIT, WMI, EPFL,...

Delft, WMI, MIT, ...

NIST, Santa Barbara,
Maryland,...

[Nakamura, Pashkin, Tsai *et al.* *Nature* **398**, **421**, **425** (1999, 2003, 2003);

Chiorescu, van der Wal, Mooij, Orlando, S. Lloyd *et al.* *Science* **285**, **290**, **299** (1999, 2000, 2003);

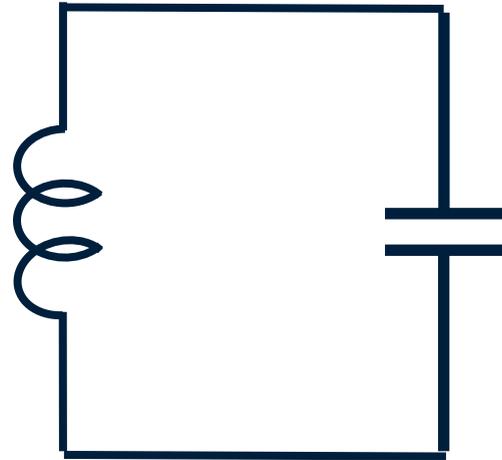
Vion, Esteve, Devoret *et al.* *Science* **296** (2002);

Martinis, Simmonds, Lang, Nam, Aumentado, Urbina *et al.* *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **89**, **93** (2002, 2004);

Manucharyan, *Science* **326** (2009)]

Clarke & Wilhelm, Superconducting quantum bits. *Nature* 453 (2008)]

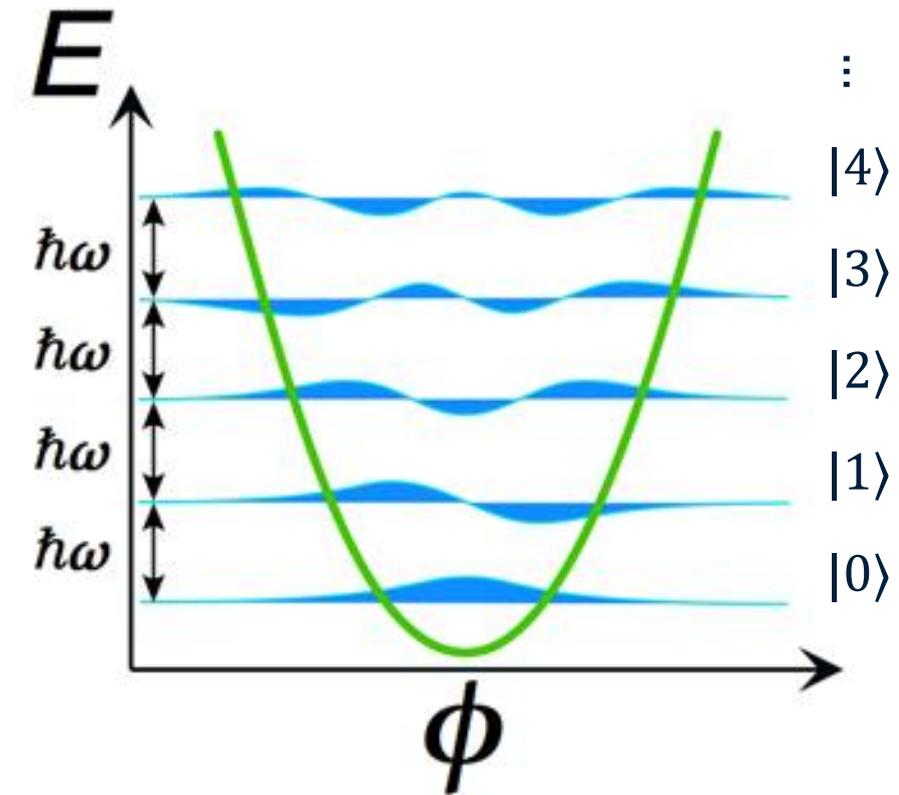
harmonic LC oscillator



quantum:

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{\phi}^2}{2L} + \frac{\hat{Q}^2}{2C} = \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$[\hat{\phi}, \hat{Q}] = -i\hbar$$

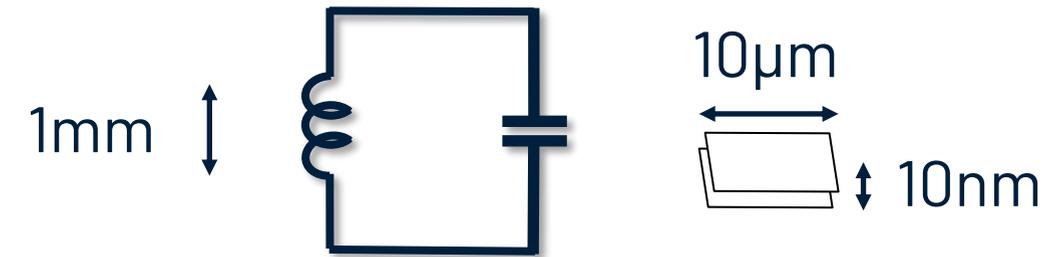


→ (loss-less) non-linearity required to form a qubit

Typical frequencies

What is the typical frequency of a microscopic LC circuit?

(assume thin wire approx. $1\text{nH}/\text{mm}$, Al-Oxide $\epsilon_r = 10$ and $\epsilon_0 = 8.8 \cdot 10^{-12}$)



typical inductor: $L = 1 \text{ nH}$

a wire in vacuum has inductance $\sim 1 \text{ nH}/\text{mm}$

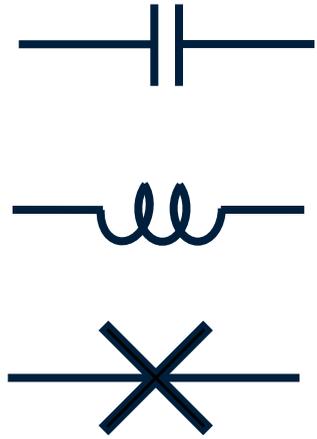
typical capacitor: $C = 1 \text{ pF}$

a capacitor with plate size $10 \mu\text{m} \times 10 \mu\text{m}$ and dielectric AlOx ($\epsilon = 10$) of thickness 10 nm has a capacitance $C \sim 1 \text{ pF}$

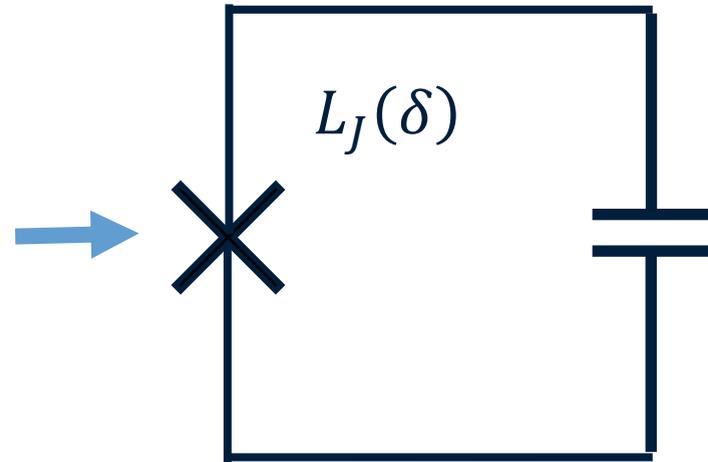
$$\rightarrow \omega \sim \sqrt{\frac{1}{10^{-21}}} \sim 10^{10} \rightarrow \nu \sim 5 \text{ GHz}$$

An-harmonic quantum oscillator (=qubit)

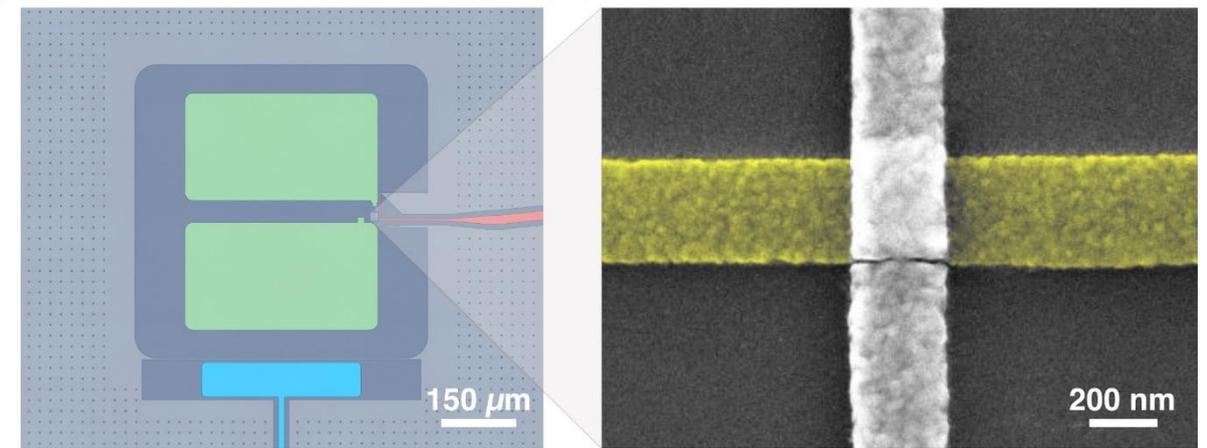
basic circuit elements:



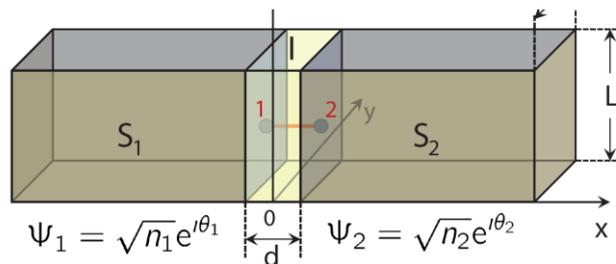
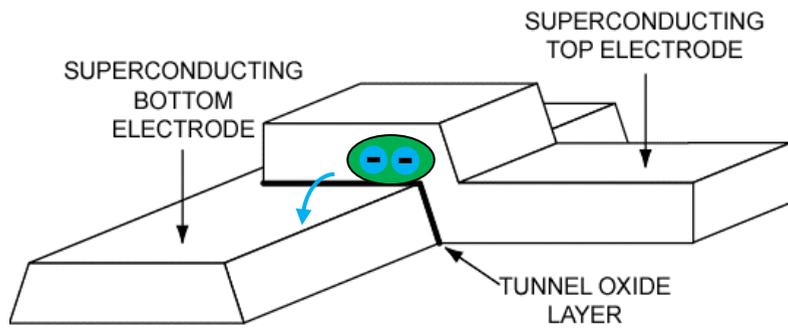
an-harmonic LC oscillator



Josephson junction circuit = (transmon) qubit

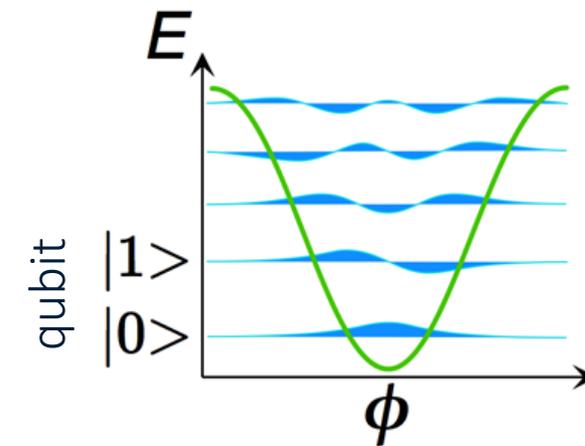


Josephson junction:



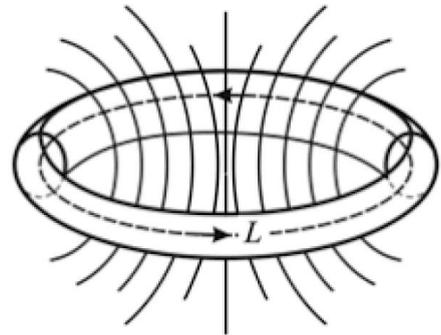
$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{q}^2}{2C} + \frac{\phi_0 I_c}{2\pi} \cos \frac{\hat{\phi}}{\phi_0}$$

$$= \hbar \left[\frac{\omega_q}{2} + (\omega_q + \alpha \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}) \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \right]$$



Flux quantization in a superconducting loop

$$\psi(r, \theta) = \psi(r, \theta + 2\pi)$$



© <http://www.supraconductivite.fr/en/index.php?p=applications-squid-quantification>

Aharonov-Bohm effect:

Electron ($2e^-$ charge) taken along a closed loop acquires phase proportional to enclosed magnetic flux

$$\delta = \frac{2e}{\hbar} \oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{2e}{\hbar} \Phi$$

→ single-valued wavefunction: $\delta = j 2\pi$

→ flux quantization

$$\delta = \frac{2e}{\hbar} \Phi = j 2\pi \rightarrow \Phi = j \frac{\hbar}{2e} \equiv j \phi_0; \quad \delta = \frac{2\pi\Phi}{\phi_0} \equiv \frac{\Phi}{\varphi_0} d$$

Phase-number commutator:

$$\left[\frac{2\pi\hat{\Phi}}{\hbar} 2e, \frac{\hat{Q}}{2e} \right] = \left[\frac{2\pi\hat{\Phi}}{\phi_0}, \frac{\hat{Q}}{2e} \right] =$$

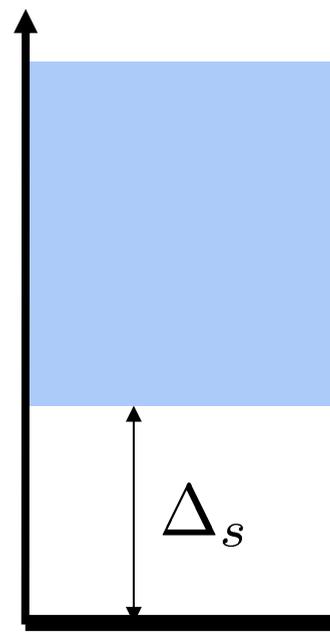
$$[\hat{\delta}, \hat{N}] = -i$$

(ϕ_0 ... magnetic flux quantum $\frac{h}{2e} = (2.067 \cdot 10^{-15} \text{ Wb})$)

(ϕ_0 ... magnetic flux quantum $\frac{h}{2e}$)



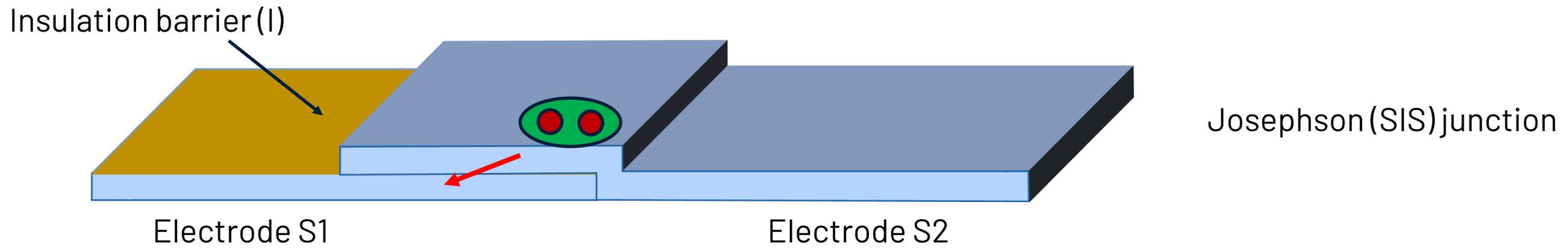
1 superconducting electrode



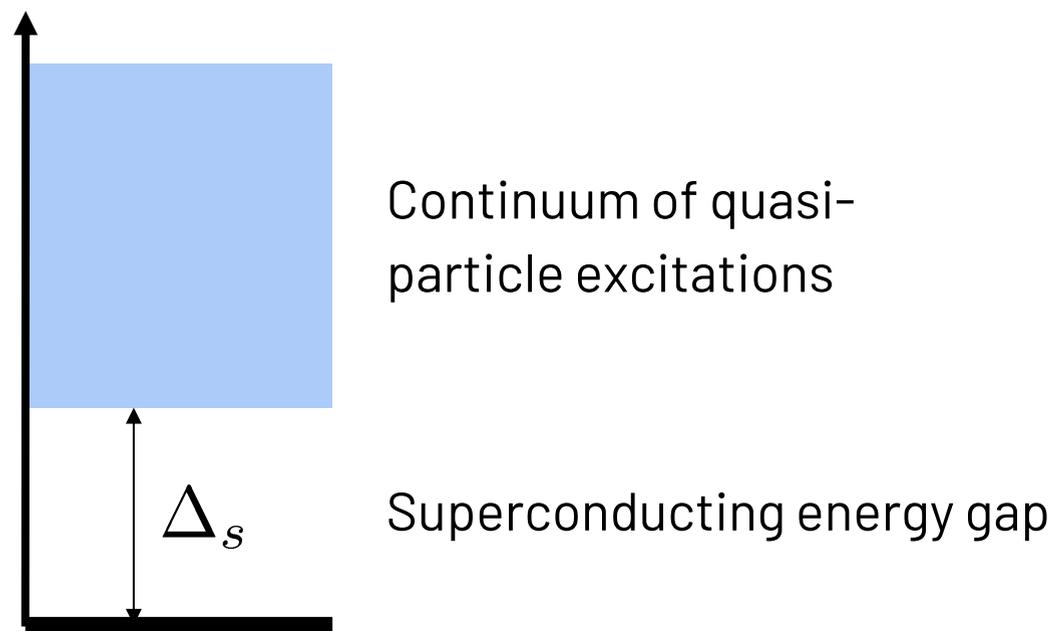
Continuum of quasi-particle excitations

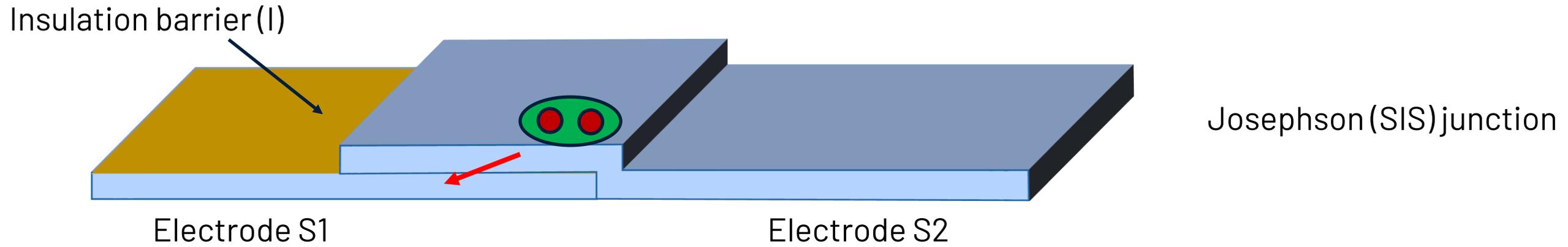
Superconducting energy gap

One unique ground state with a fixed number of cooper-pairs $|N\rangle$



Total number of Cooper pairs $N = N_1 + N_2$ is fixed, difference can vary.



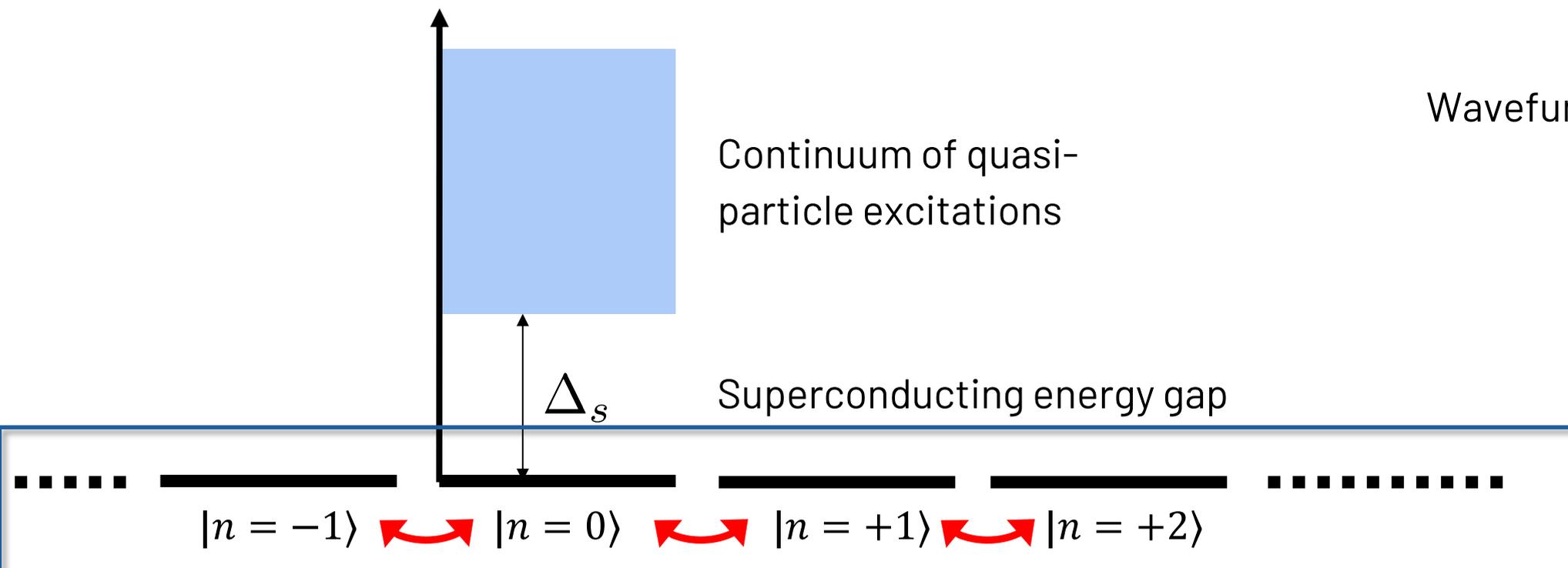


Total number of Cooper pairs $N = N_1 + N_2$ is fixed, difference can vary.

→ state defined as $|n\rangle = |N_1 - n, N_2 + n\rangle$ with the number of Cooper pairs n having passed through the barrier.

Wavefunction in the 'number representation':

$$|\Psi\rangle = \sum_n c_n |n\rangle$$

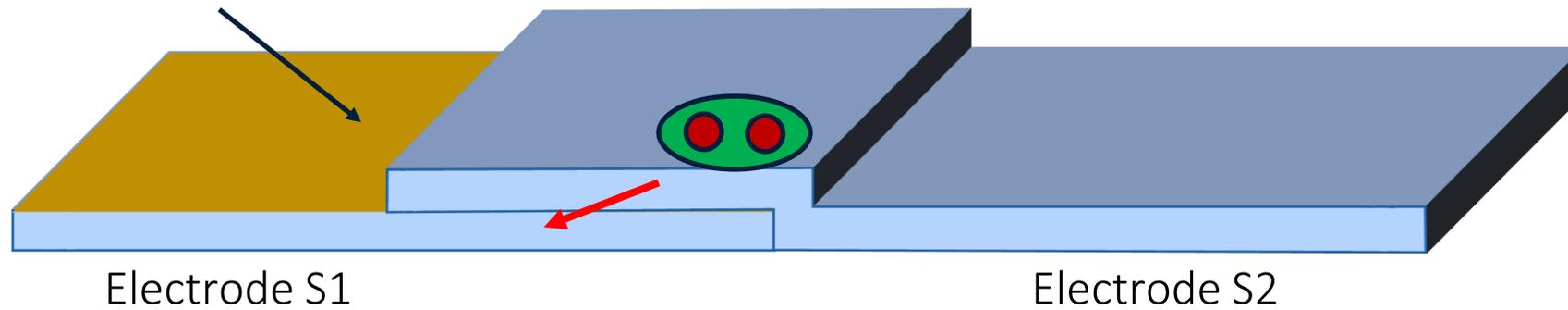


Hilbert space

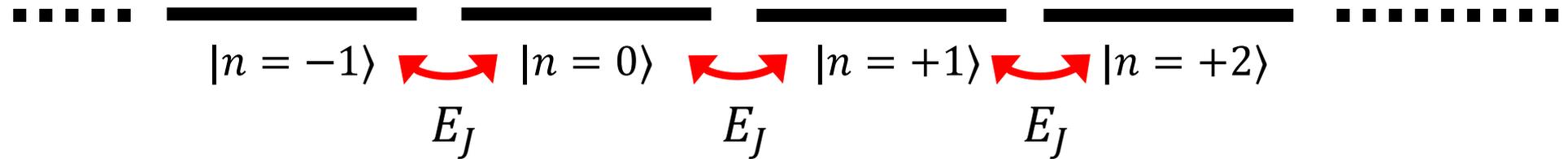
Ground state of Josephson junction

Which energy terms are important to describe the physics of a Josephson junction?

Insulation barrier (I)



Josephson (SIS) junction



Josephson Hamiltonian

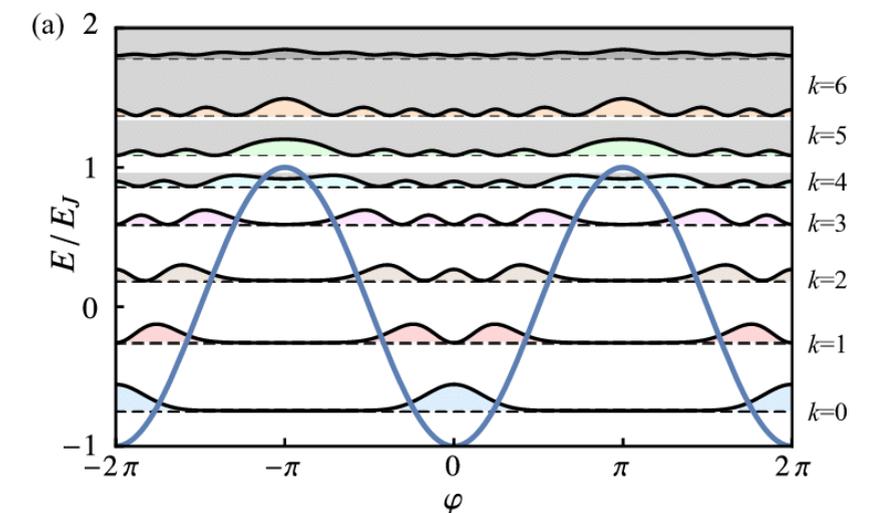
(can be derived from the tunneling of electrons and BCS theory of superconductivity)

$$H_J = -\frac{E_J}{2} \sum_n [|n\rangle\langle n+1| + |n+1\rangle\langle n|]$$

with tunneling rate/energy $E_J = \frac{1}{2} \frac{h}{(2e)^2} \frac{\Delta}{R_N}$ and normal state resistance R_N

(R_N depends on junction parameters (size, thickness))

→ leads to **periodic potential** $H_j \propto \cos \delta$ and Bloch bands



[Pietikäinen et al., PRA 99 (2019)]

$$\hat{H}_J = -\frac{E_J}{2} \sum_n [|n\rangle\langle n+1| + |n+1\rangle\langle n|]$$

(unnormalized) eigenstates: $|\delta\rangle = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{in\delta} |n\rangle$

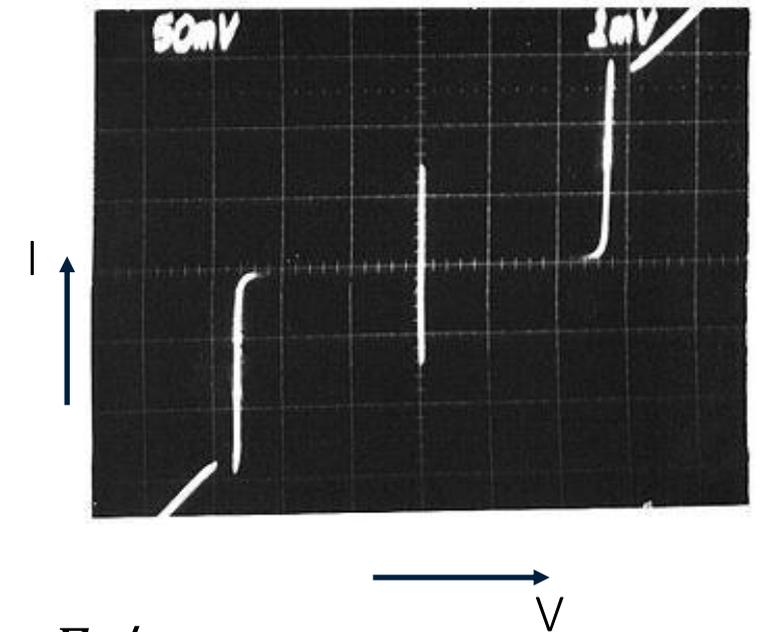
'phase states' (coherent state) with well defined amplitude and phase δ , but uncertain number

δ ... phase difference $\delta_2 - \delta_1$ across the junction (Note: $|\delta + 2\pi\rangle = |\delta\rangle$)

Eigenvalues: $\hat{H}_J |\delta\rangle = -E_J \cos \delta |\delta\rangle \rightarrow$ Hamiltonian $\hat{H}_J \equiv -E_J \cos \hat{\delta}$

Current operator: change of charge $(2e)\hat{n}$ per time step ($\hat{n} = \sum n |n\rangle\langle n|$)

$$\hat{I} = 2e \frac{d\hat{n}}{dt} = 2e \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{n}, \hat{H}] = -i \frac{e}{\hbar} E_J \sum_n [|n\rangle\langle n+1| - |n+1\rangle\langle n|]$$

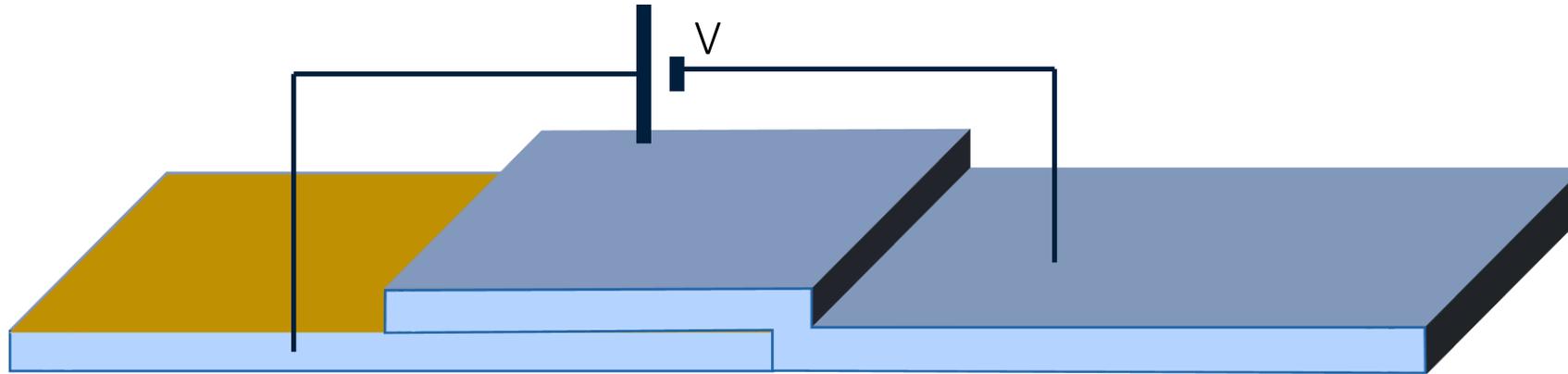


1st Josephson relation:

$$\hat{I} |\delta\rangle = I_c \sin \delta |\delta\rangle$$

with $I_c = \frac{2e}{\hbar} E_J = E_J / \varphi_0$

→ dissipationless supercurrent $I_0 \sin \delta$ across junction at zero applied voltage



Electrostatic energy for passing \hat{n} Cooper pairs across the barrier is $-(2e)V\hat{n}$ (semiclassical regime)

Total Hamiltonian of the junction is $\hat{H} = -E_J \cos \hat{\delta} - 2e V \hat{n}$

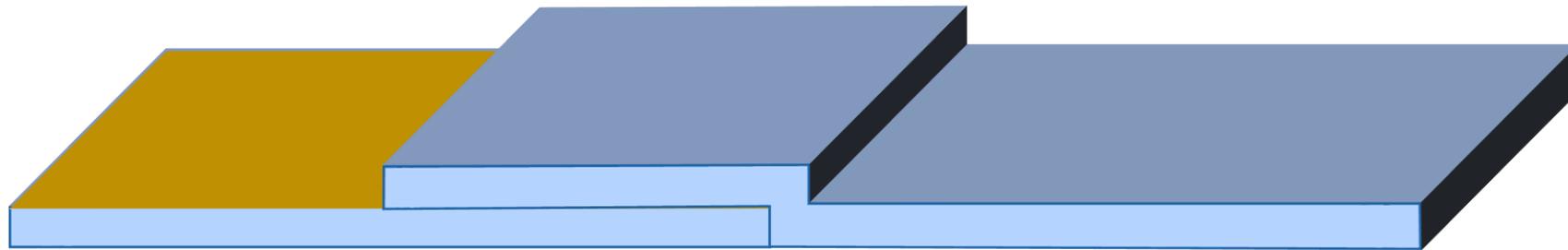
2nd Josephson relation: $\frac{d\hat{\delta}}{dt} = \frac{1}{i\hbar} [\hat{H}, \hat{\delta}] = -\frac{2eV}{i\hbar} [\hat{n}, \hat{\delta}] = \frac{1}{\varphi_0} V$

'reduced flux quantum': $\varphi_0 = \frac{\hbar}{2e}$ [$\varphi_0 = \frac{\phi_0}{2\pi}$];
flux quantum ϕ_0 with $1/\phi_0 = 483.597891 \text{ MHz}/\mu\text{V}$

(superconducting phase change proportional to applied voltage)

Relation between superconducting phase $\hat{\delta}$ and electrodynamic flux $\hat{\Phi} \equiv \int \hat{V}(t') dt' = \varphi_0 \hat{\delta}$

(remember Faraday's law of induction $V = -d\Phi/dt$ [up to a sign convention])



Josephson relations (in the classical limit):

$$I = I_c \sin \delta$$
$$V = \varphi_0 \dot{\delta}$$

recall:

$$V = -\frac{d\Phi}{dt} = L \frac{dI}{dt}$$

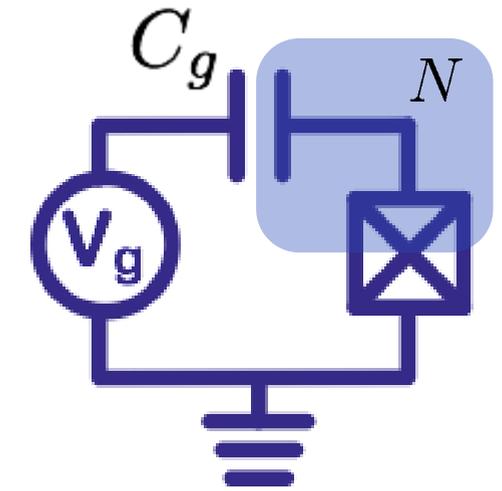
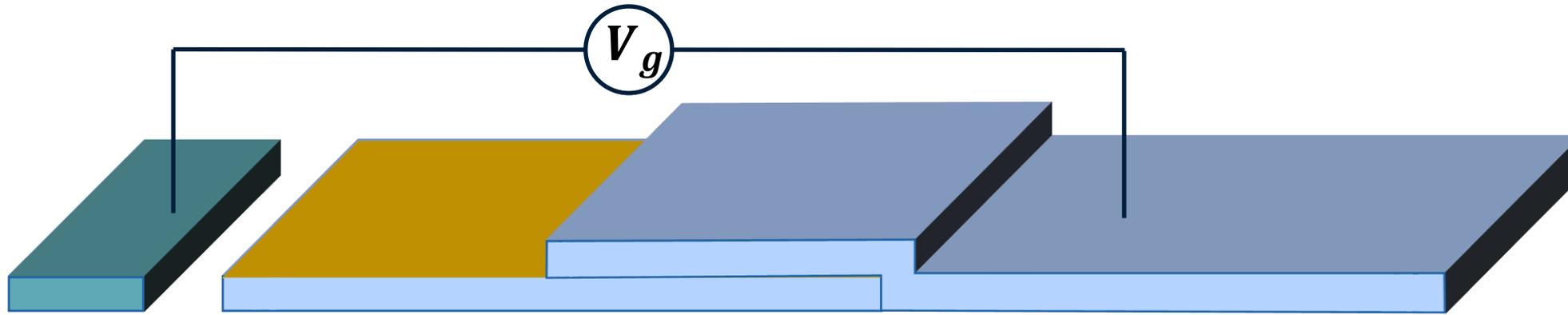
combined: $\frac{dI}{dt} = I_c \dot{\delta} \cos \delta \rightarrow V = \frac{\varphi_0}{I_c \delta} \frac{dI}{dt} = L_J(\delta) \frac{dI}{dt}$ (to leading order in δ)

Josephson inductance:

$$L_J = \frac{\varphi_0}{I_c \delta} = \frac{\varphi_0}{I_c \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{I}{I_c}\right)^2}}$$

→ A Josephson junction behaves as a non-linear inductance!

CPB & Transmon Qubit



$$H = 4E_C(\hat{n} - n_g)^2 - E_J \cos \hat{\varphi}$$

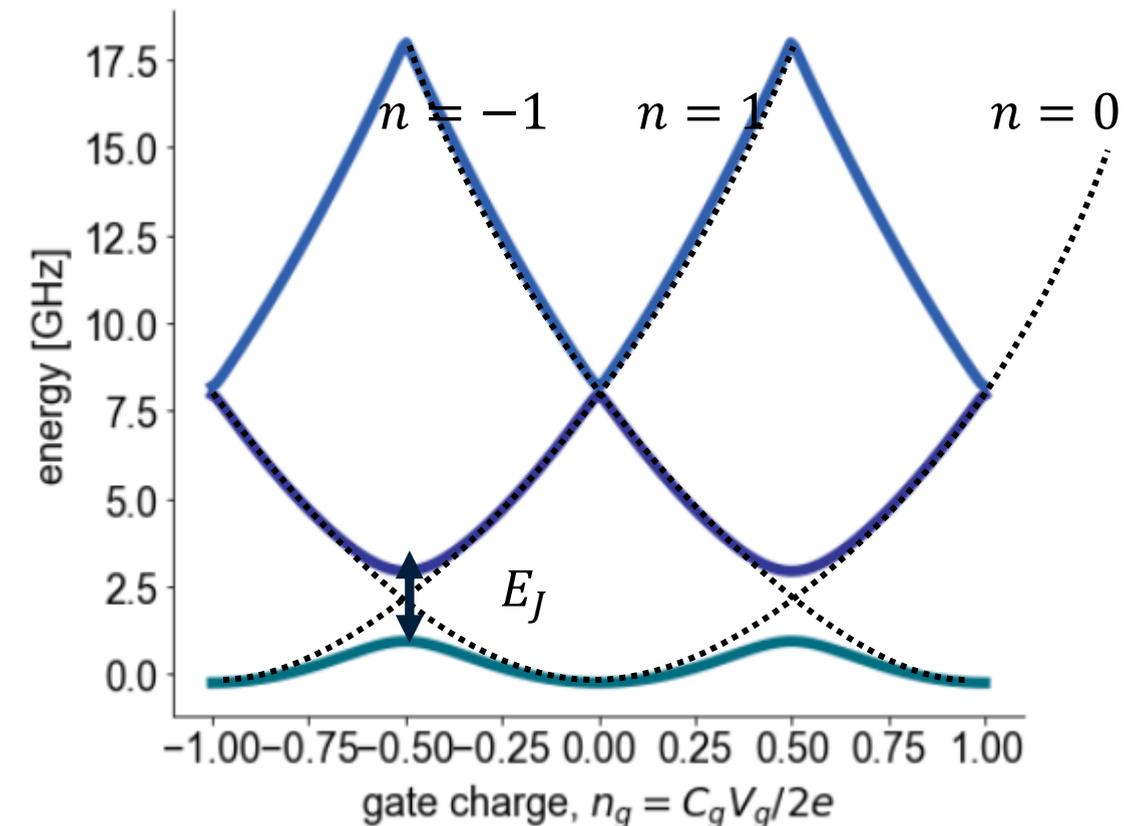
$$H = \sum_N \left[4E_C(n - n_g)^2 |n\rangle\langle n| - \frac{E_J}{2} |n\rangle\langle n+1| + |n+1\rangle\langle n| \right]$$

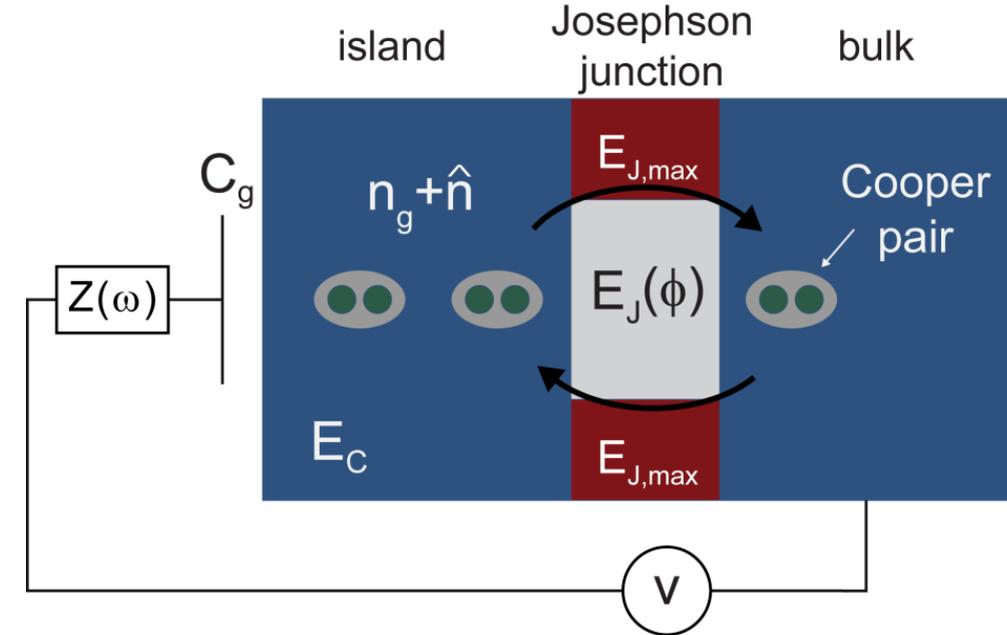
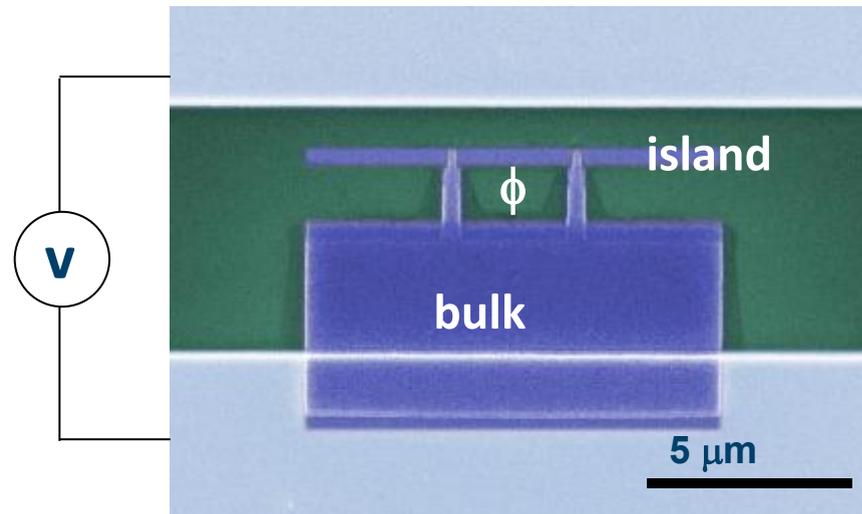
Charging energy: $E_C = \frac{e^2}{2C_\Sigma}$ Gate charge: $n_g = \frac{C_g V_g}{2e}$

Josephson energy: $E_J = \frac{I_0 \phi_0}{2\pi} = \frac{\hbar \Delta}{8e^2 R_J}$

2-state (qubit) approximation: at $n_g = 0.5$,

$$\tilde{H}_2 = -\frac{E_J}{2} \sigma_z \dots \text{spin-1/2 / effective 2-level system}$$





- superconducting island connected via Josephson junctions to grounded reservoir (bulk)
- Cooper pairs can tunnel onto island
- relevant degree of freedom: number of excess Cooper pairs on island (n)
- polarization charge n_g adjustable via voltage bias
- energy scales:
 - charging/electrostatic energy E_C (energy to add another Cooper pair)
 - Josephson energy E_J (coupling energy)

[Bouchiat, Vion, Joyez, Esteve, Devoret, *Physica Scripta* T76, 165 (1998).]

$$H = 4E_C(\hat{n} - n_g)^2 - E_J \cos \hat{\delta}$$

$$\cong \sum_N \left[4E_C(n - n_g)^2 |n\rangle\langle n| - \frac{E_J}{2} (|n\rangle\langle n+1| + |n+1\rangle\langle n|) \right]$$

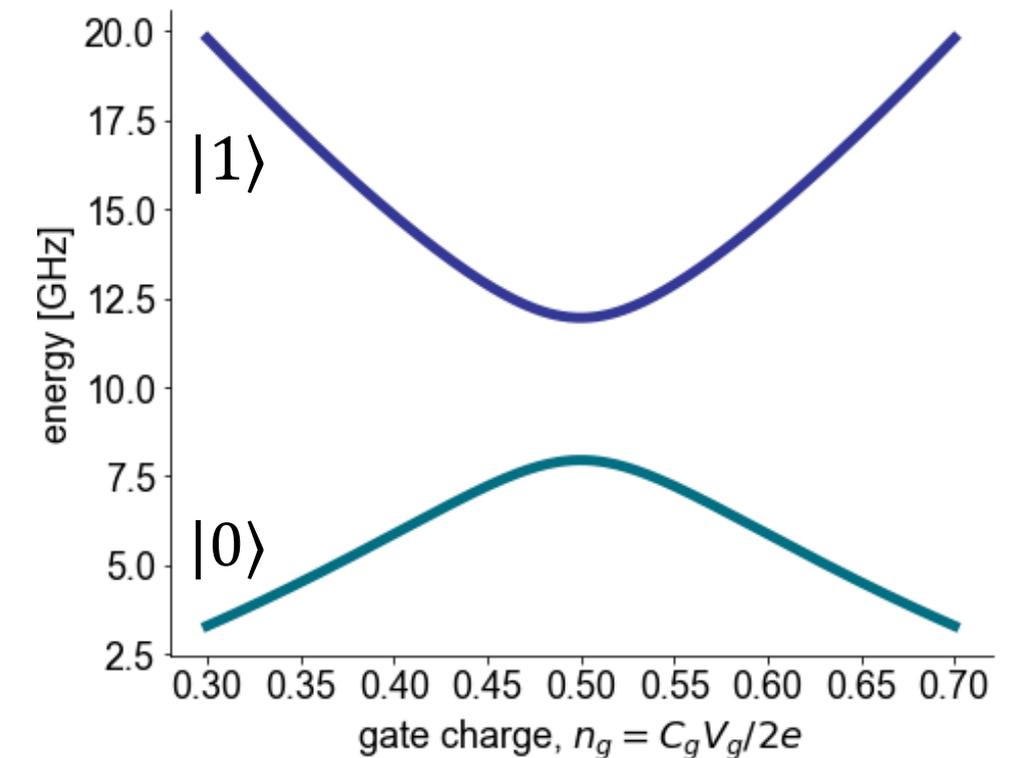
2-dim Hilbert space: $\hat{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\hat{1} - \hat{\sigma}_z}{2}$

$$\rightarrow \hat{\sigma}_z = -2\hat{n} + \hat{1}; \quad \cos \hat{\delta} = \frac{\sigma_x}{2}$$

$$\rightarrow H_2 = -E_C(1 - 2n_g)\sigma_z - \frac{E_J}{2}\sigma_x$$

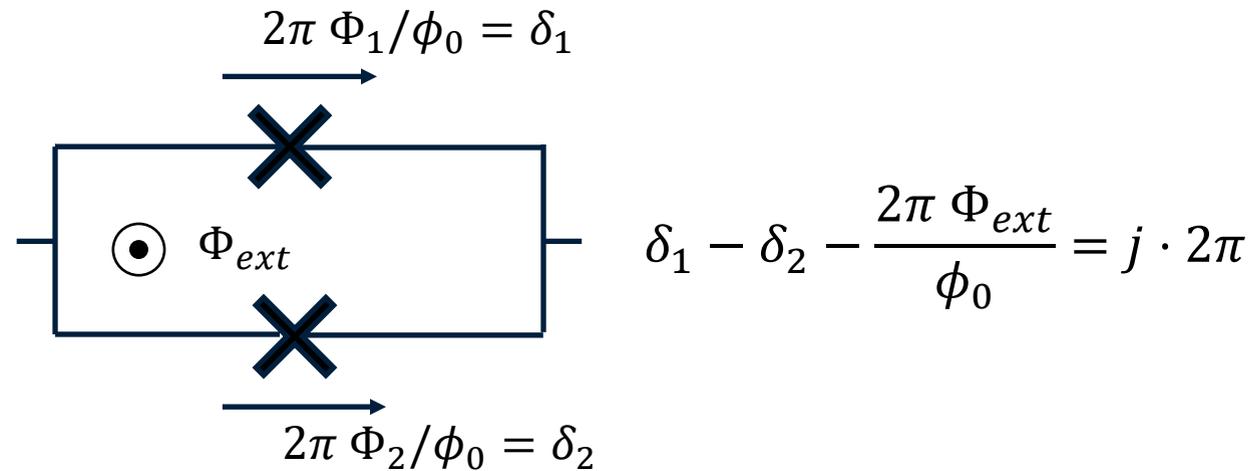
Bias point: $n_g = \frac{1}{2}$; basis transformation $\sigma_x \rightarrow \sigma_z$

$$\rightarrow \tilde{H}_2 = -\frac{E_J}{2}\sigma_z \dots \text{spin-1/2 / effective 2-level system}$$



[Shnirman *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **79**, 2371 (1997)]

SQUID: flux-tunable Josephson junction



Recall:

Aharonov-Bohm effect $\delta = \frac{2e}{\hbar} \oint \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{2e}{\hbar} \Phi_{ext}$
 & single-valuedness of wavefunction $\delta = j \cdot 2\pi$

Critical current tunable via external magnetic field:

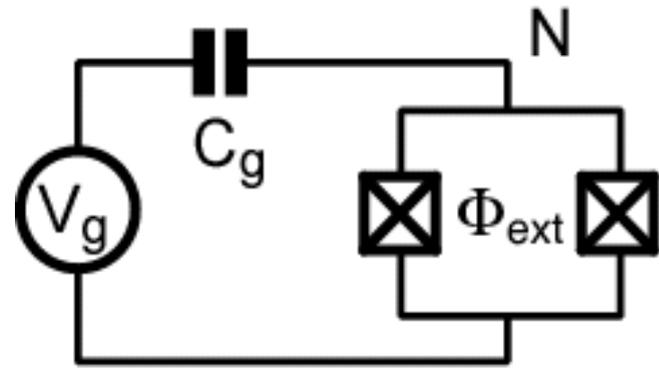
$$I_{tot} = I_1 + I_2 = I_{c1} \sin \delta_1 + I_{c2} \sin \delta_2$$

$$I_c(\Phi_{ext}) = 2I_c \left| \cos \left(\frac{\pi \Phi_{ext}}{\phi_0} \right) \right| \sin \tilde{\delta}$$

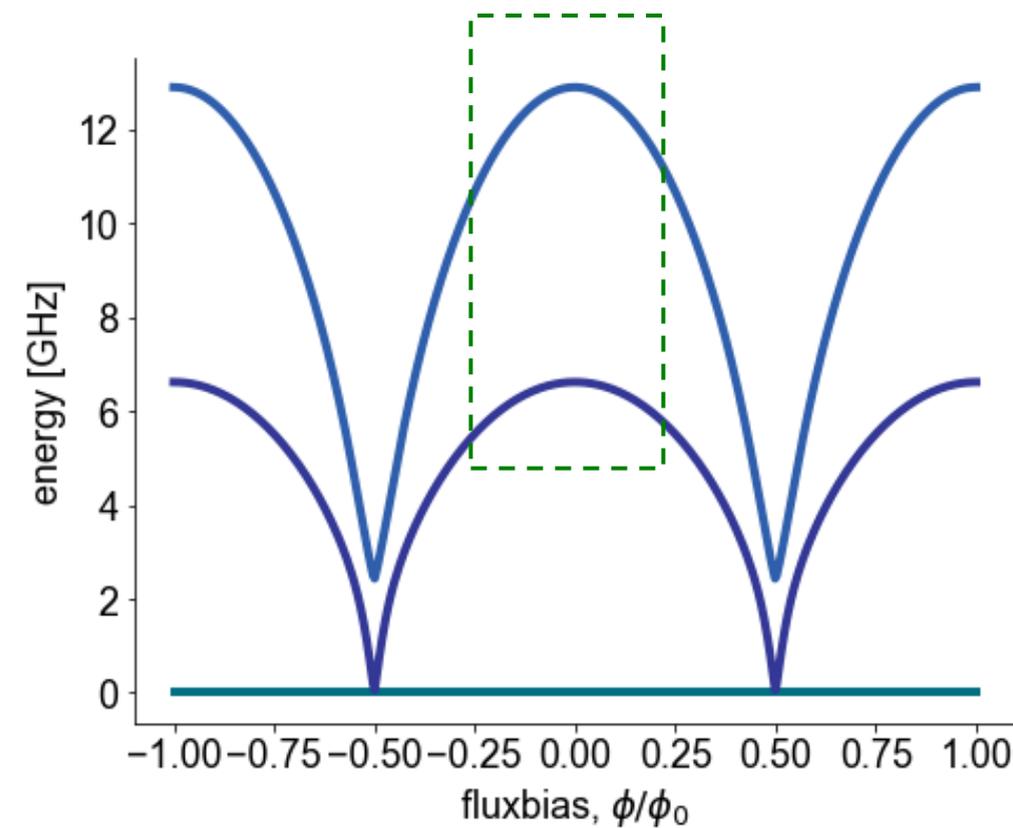
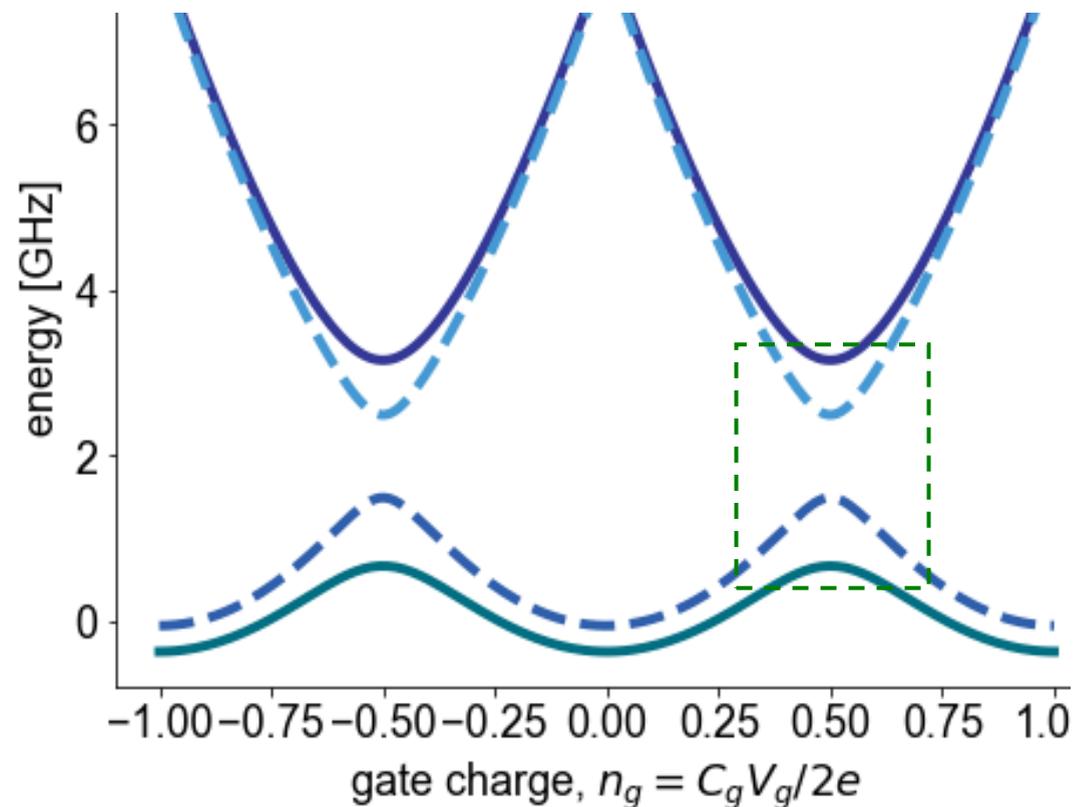
$$(\text{for } I_{c1} = I_{c2} = I_c)$$

Tuning the Josephson Energy

split Cooper pair box in perpendicular field: SQUID modulation of Josephson energy



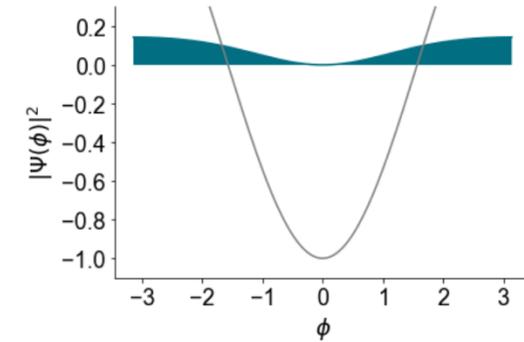
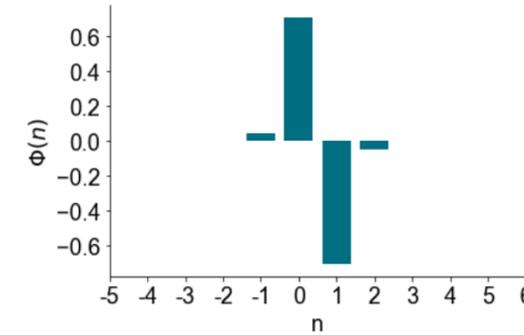
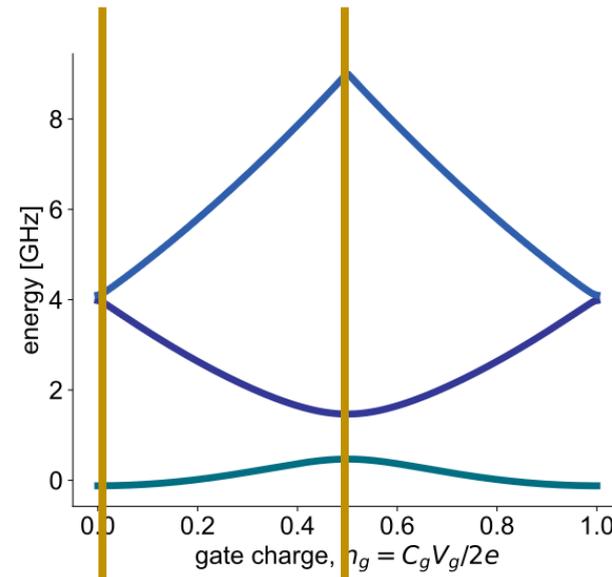
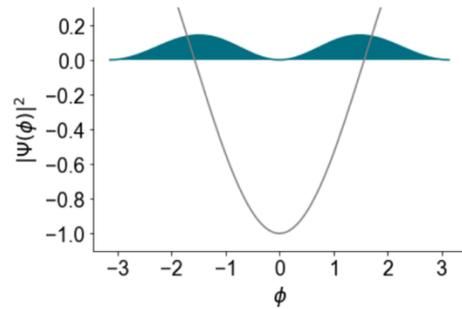
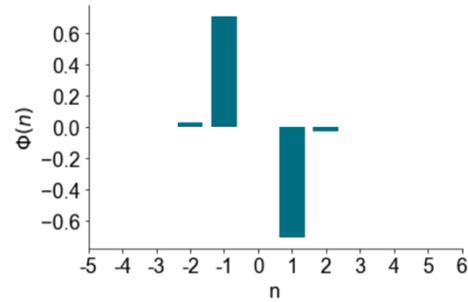
$$H = 4E_C(\hat{n} - n_g)^2 - \overbrace{E_{J,max}}^{E_J} \left| \cos\left(\frac{\pi\Phi_{ext}}{\Phi_0}\right) \right| \cos\hat{\varphi}$$



[J. Clarke, *Proc. IEEE* **77**, 1208 (1989)]

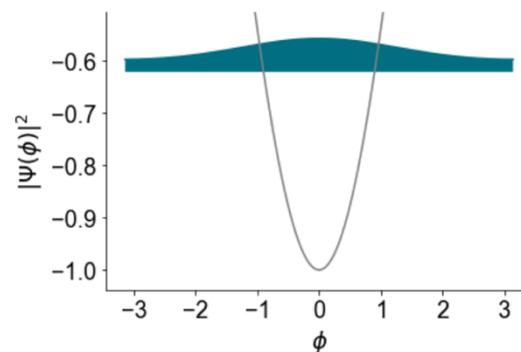
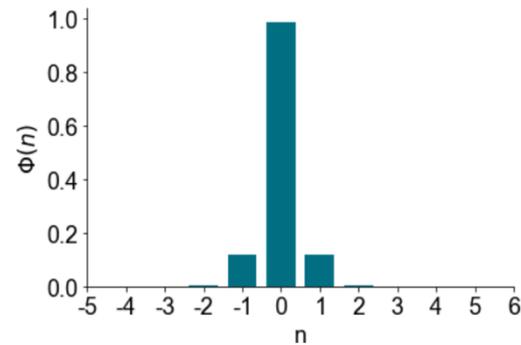
Charge and Phase Wave Functions ($E_J \sim E_C$)

$|\psi_1\rangle$



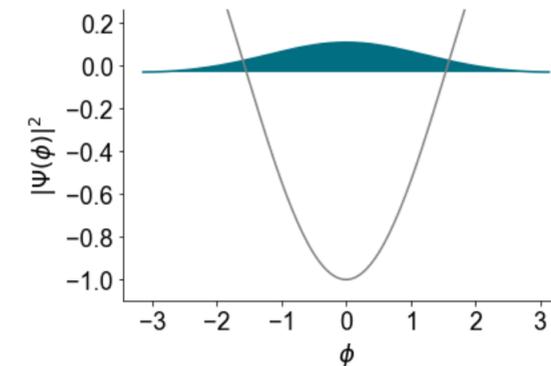
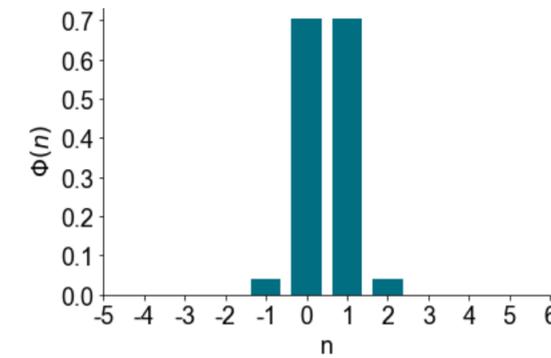
$|\psi_1\rangle$

$|\psi_0\rangle$



$n_g = 0$

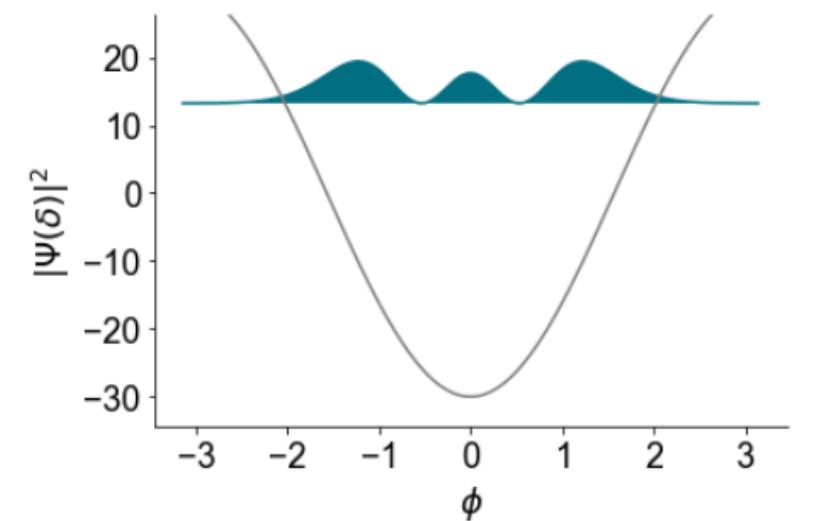
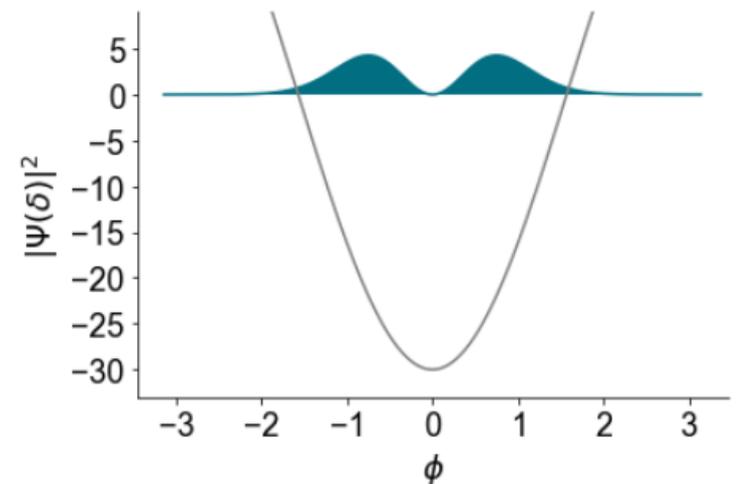
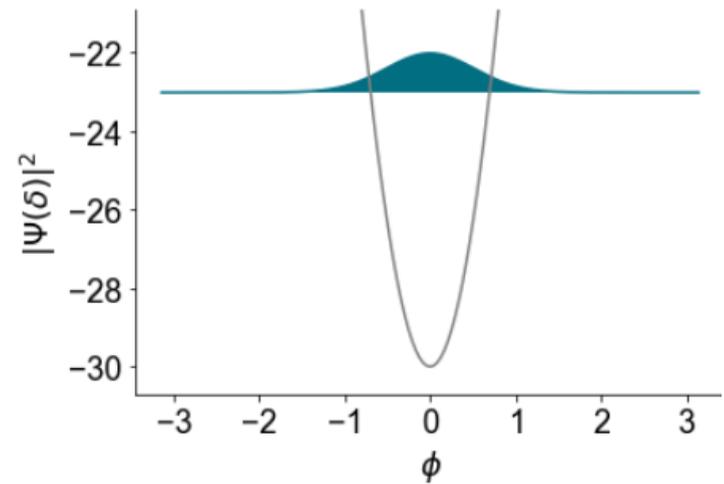
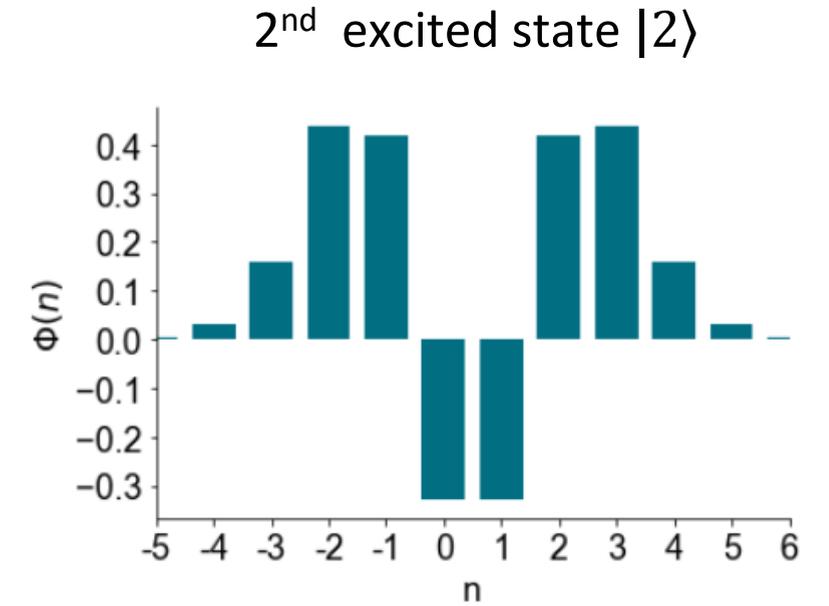
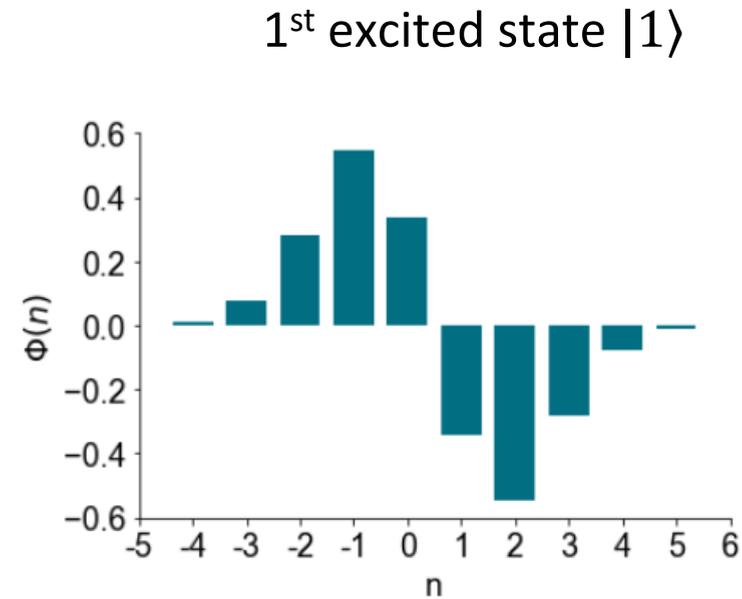
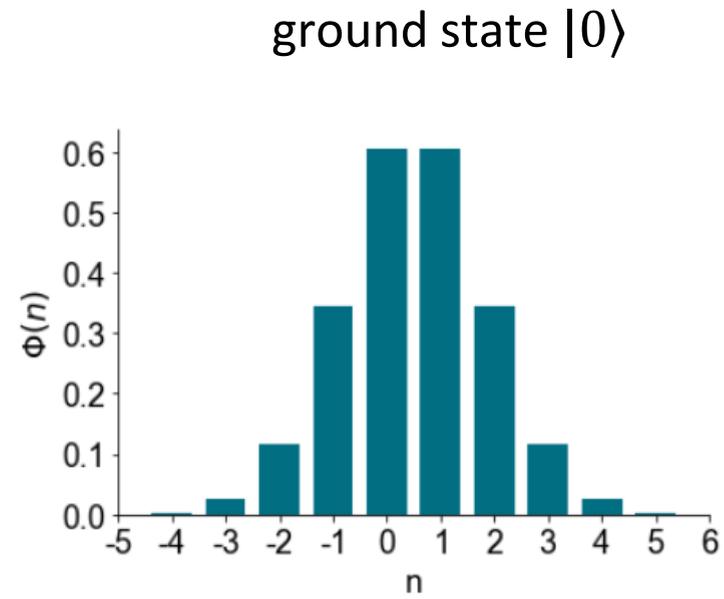
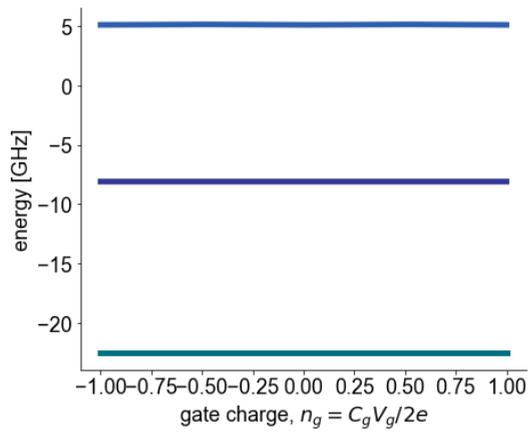
$n_g = 0.5$



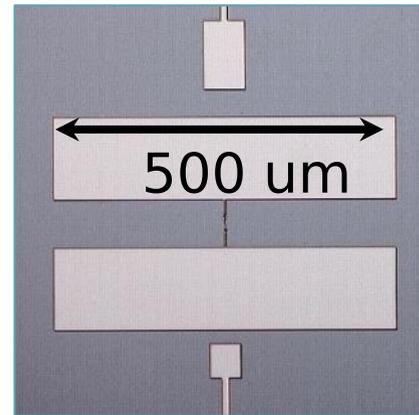
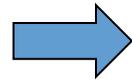
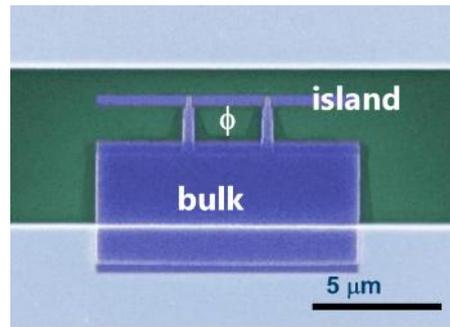
$|\psi_0\rangle$

Charge and Phase Wave Functions ($E_J \gg E_C$)

Transmon regime:

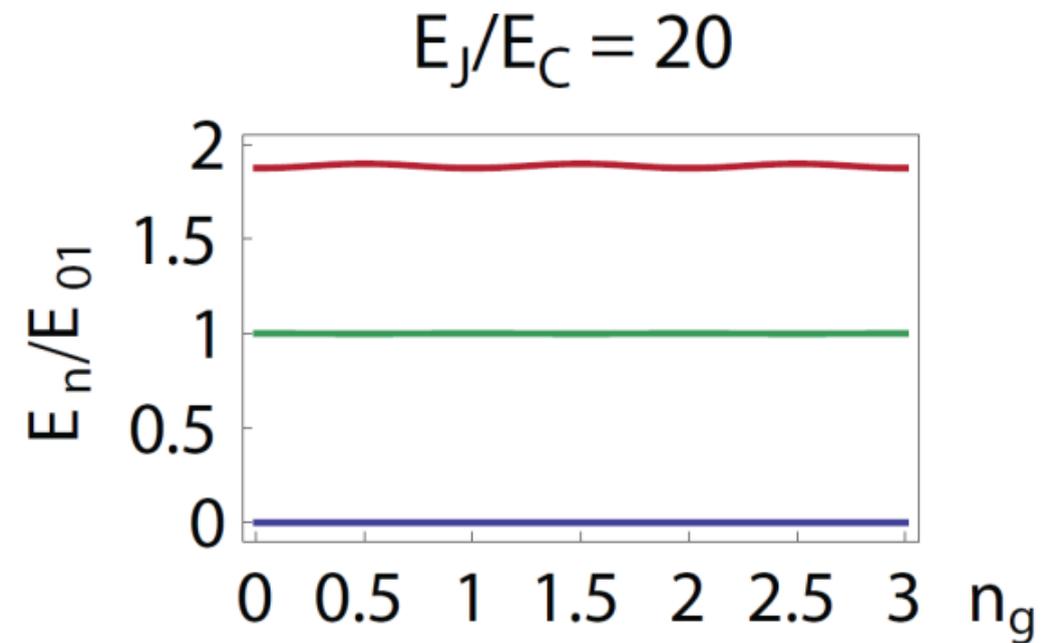
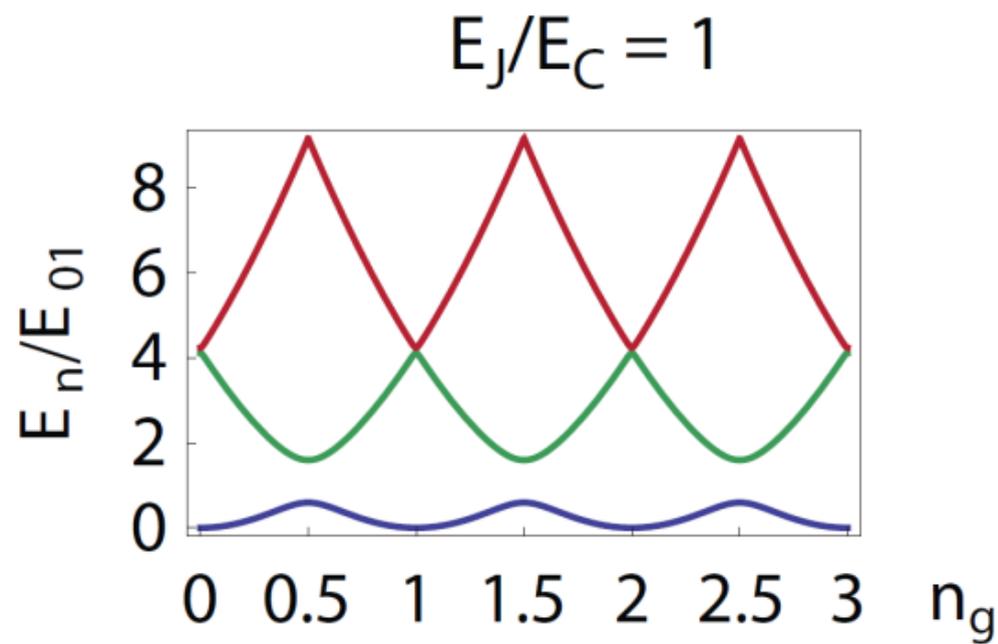


Transmon qubit – a charge noise resilient qubit



- shunting capacitor reduces E_c
- Increased E_J/E_c ratio flattens energy bands
- Less sensitivity to charge noise

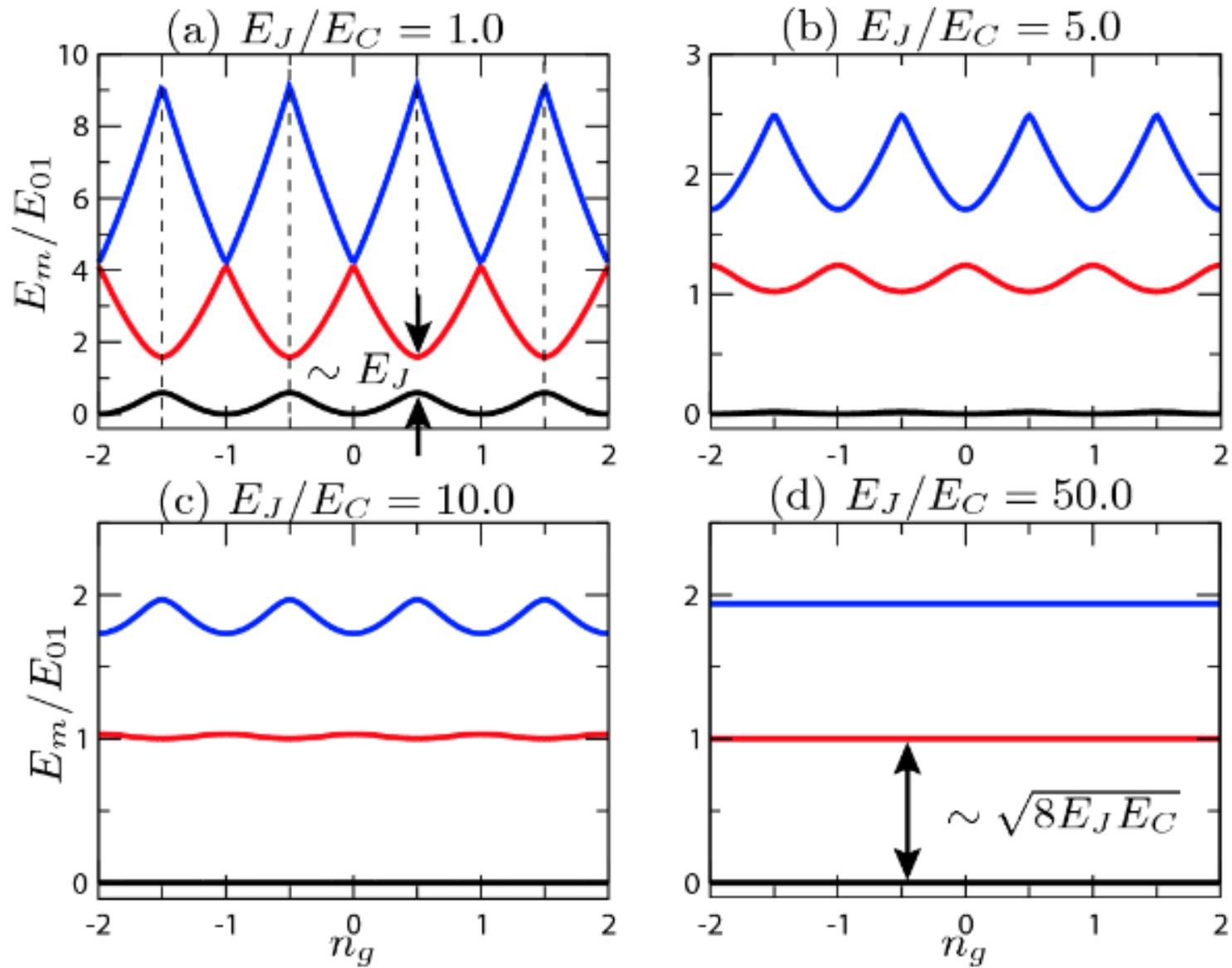
$$E_c = \frac{e^2}{2 C_\Sigma}$$



$$H = E_c (\hat{n} - n_g)^2 - E_j \cos \hat{\delta}$$

BUT: anharmonicity $\alpha \equiv \omega_{12} - \omega_{01}$ decreases (polynomially) with increasing E_J/E_c !!

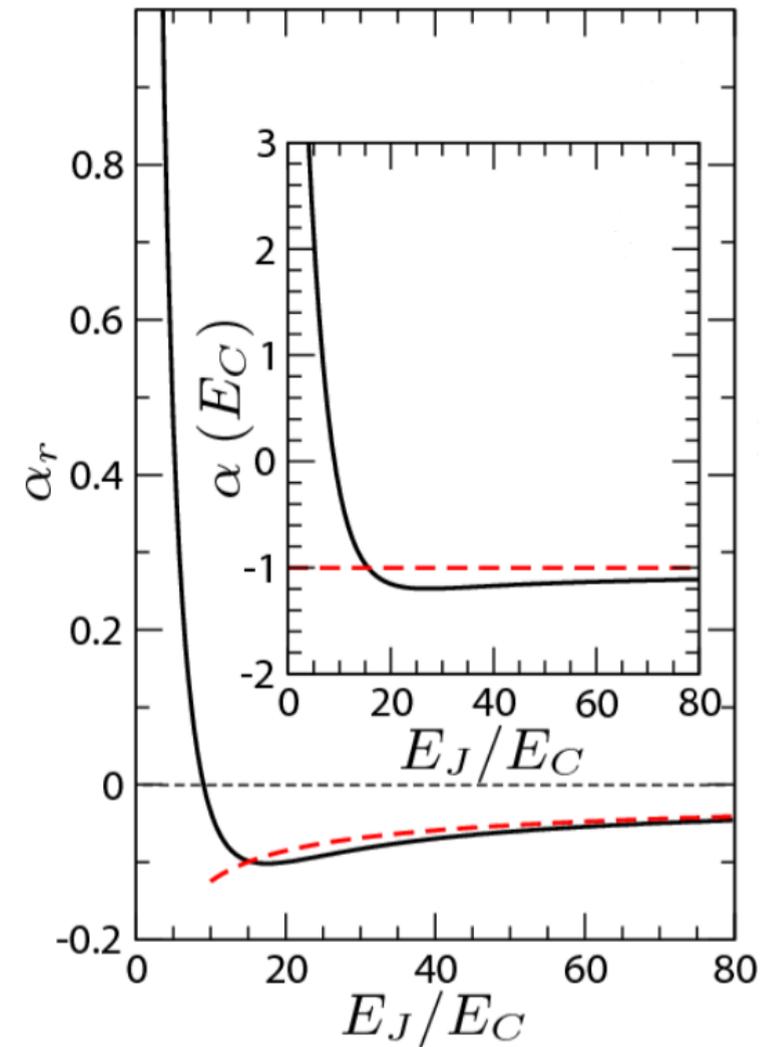
Transmon qubit – Anharmonicity



$$E_{01} = \sqrt{[4E_C(2n_g - 1)]^2 + E_J^2}$$

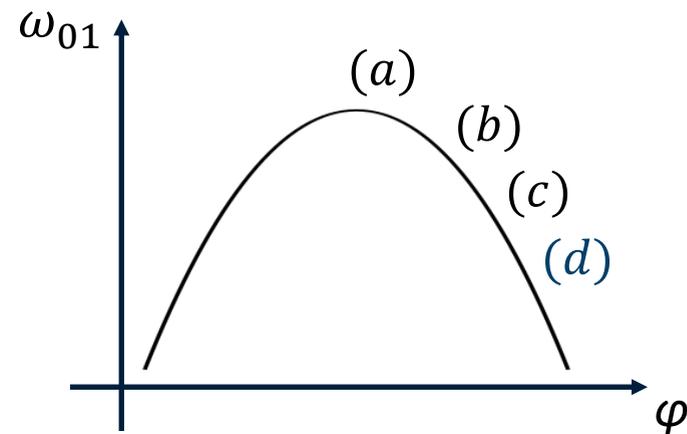
$$\alpha \equiv E_{12} - E_{01}$$

$$\alpha_r \equiv \alpha/E_{01}$$

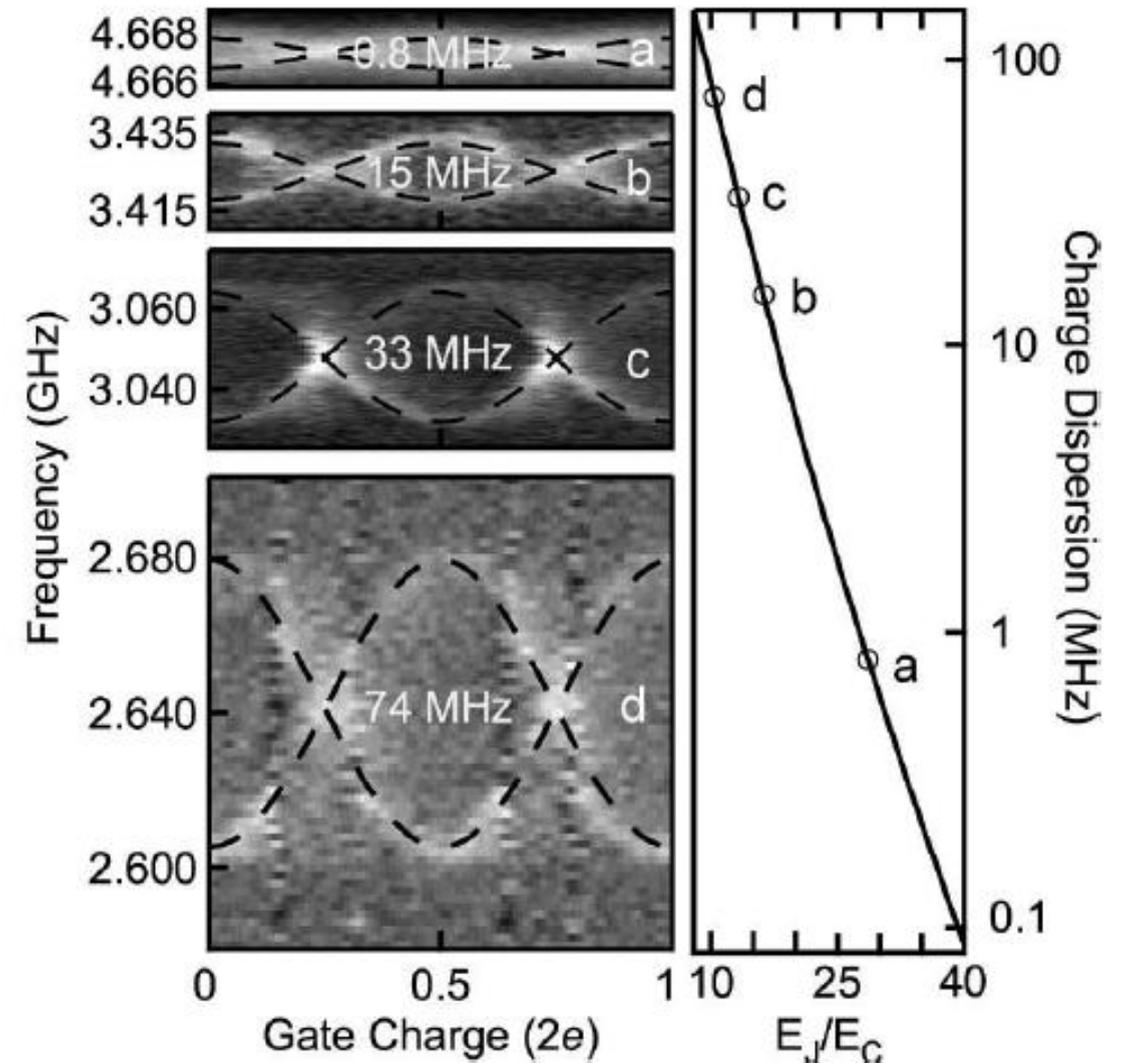
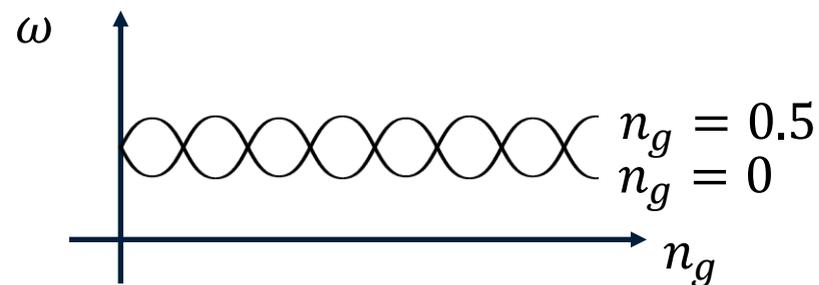


[Koch et al. PRA 76, 042319 (2007); Schreier et al. PRB (2008)]

- Transmon qubit with tunable $E_J(\Phi_x)$
- record qubit frequency as a function of gate charge n_g for different $\frac{E_J}{E_C} = (a)28.6, (b)16.3, (c)13.3, (d)10.4$



- Two possible frequencies $\omega_{01} \pm \delta_c$ (extra electron= quasi-particle on island)

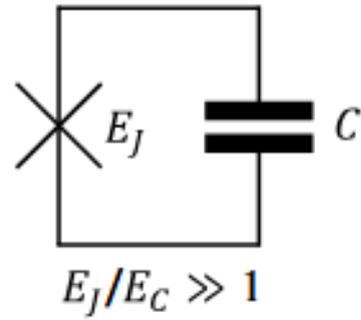


[Schreier *et al.* PRB (2008)]

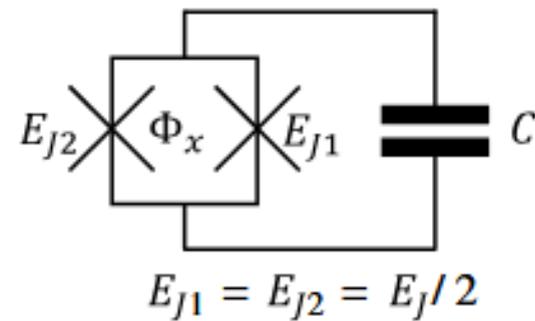
Why does one observe two distinct lines and not a broad transition?

- a) Because the time scale of quasi-particle tunnelling is **slower** than each experiment but **faster** than the whole experiment (with n repetitions).
- b) Because the time scale of quasi-particle tunnelling is **faster** than each experiment but **slower** than the whole experiment (with n repetitions).

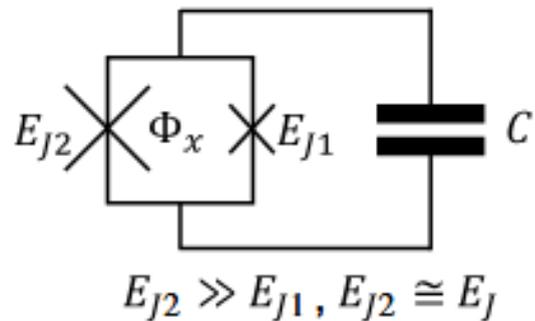
Single JJ transmon



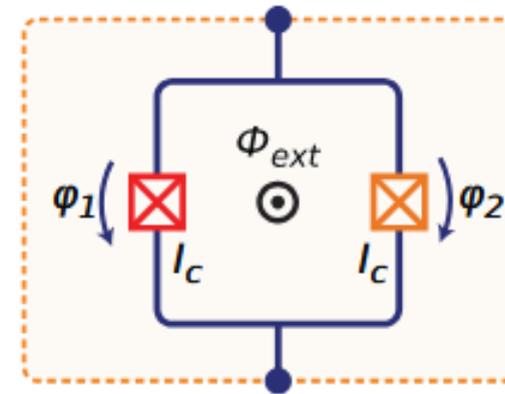
Symmetric SQUID transmon



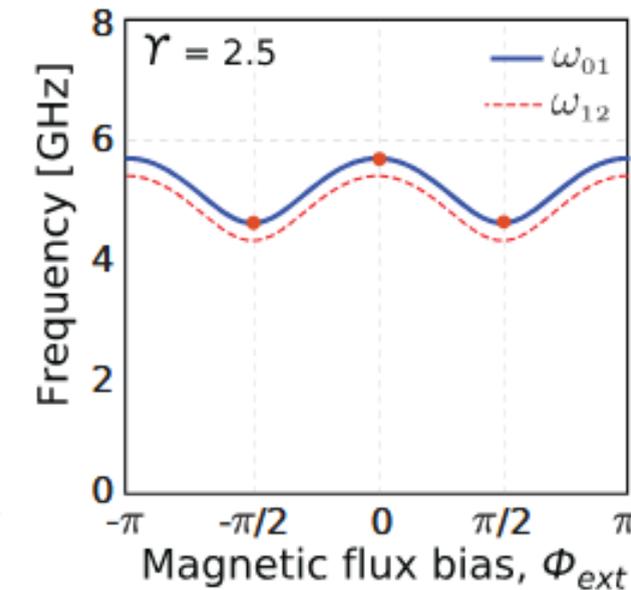
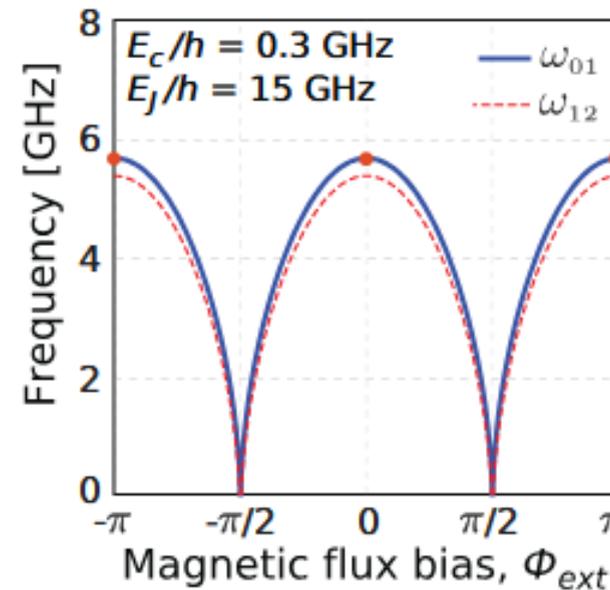
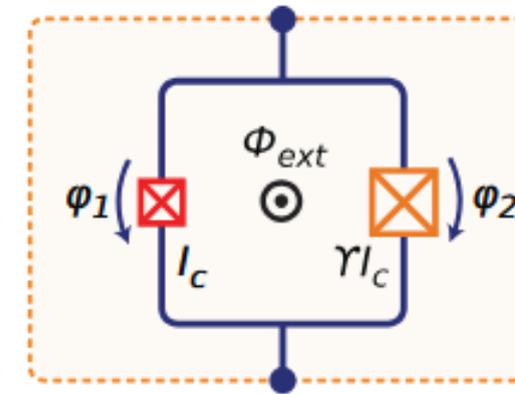
Asymmetric SQUID transmon



Symmetric transmon

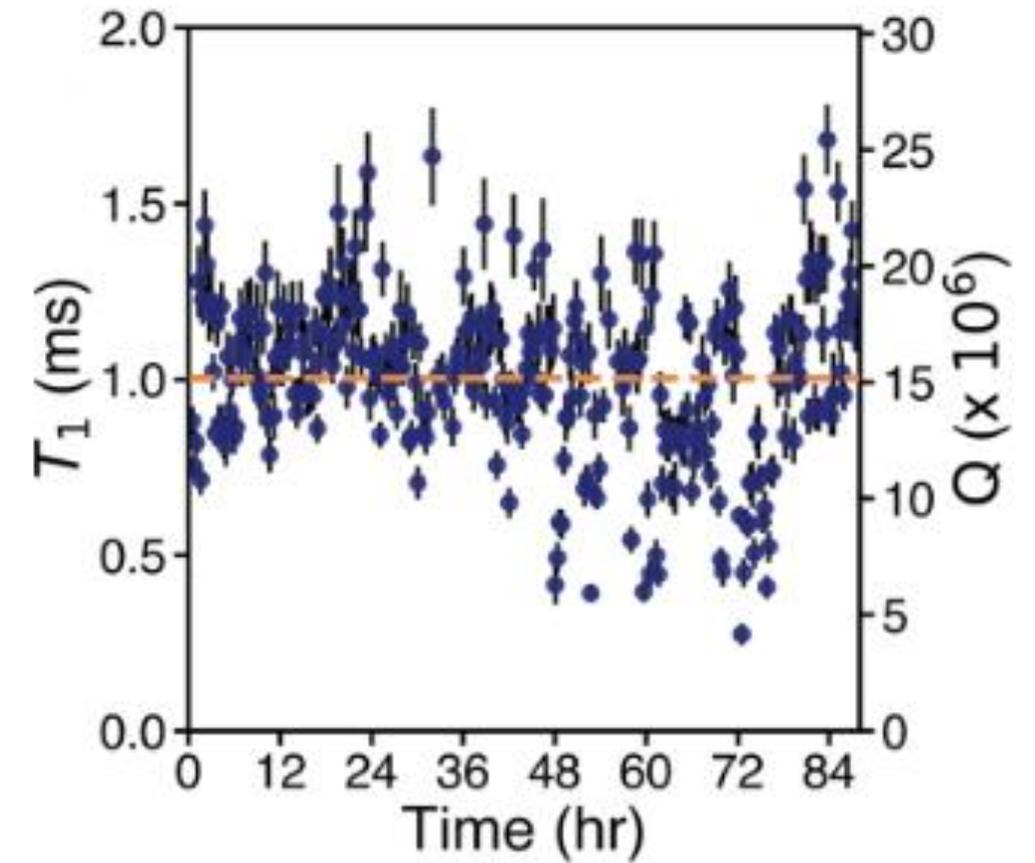
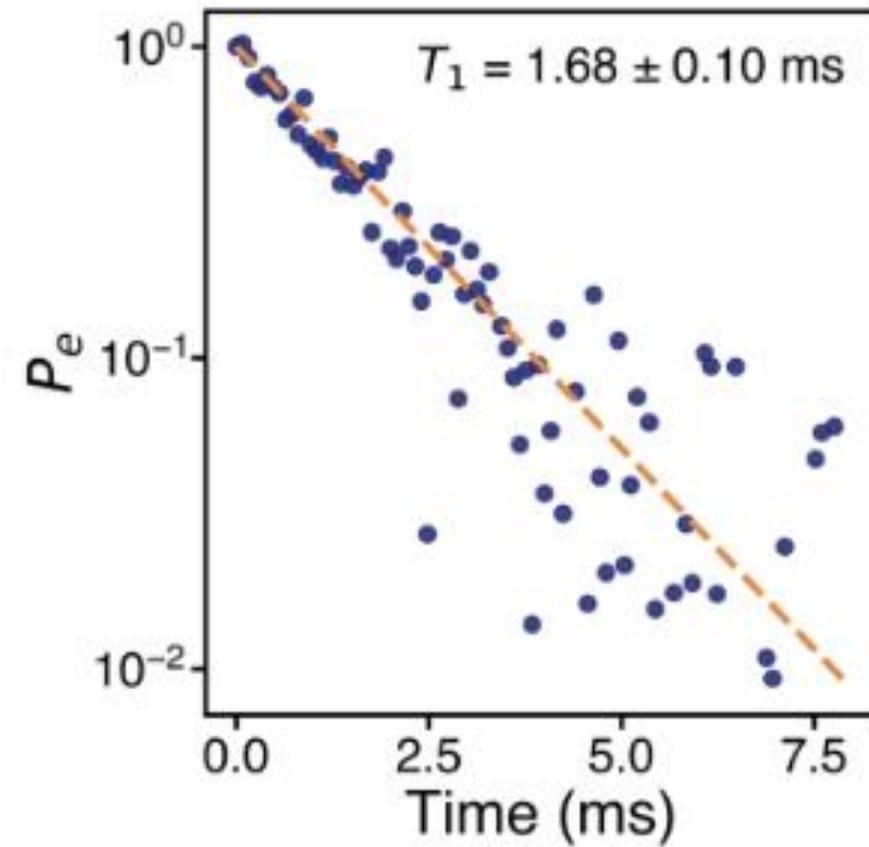
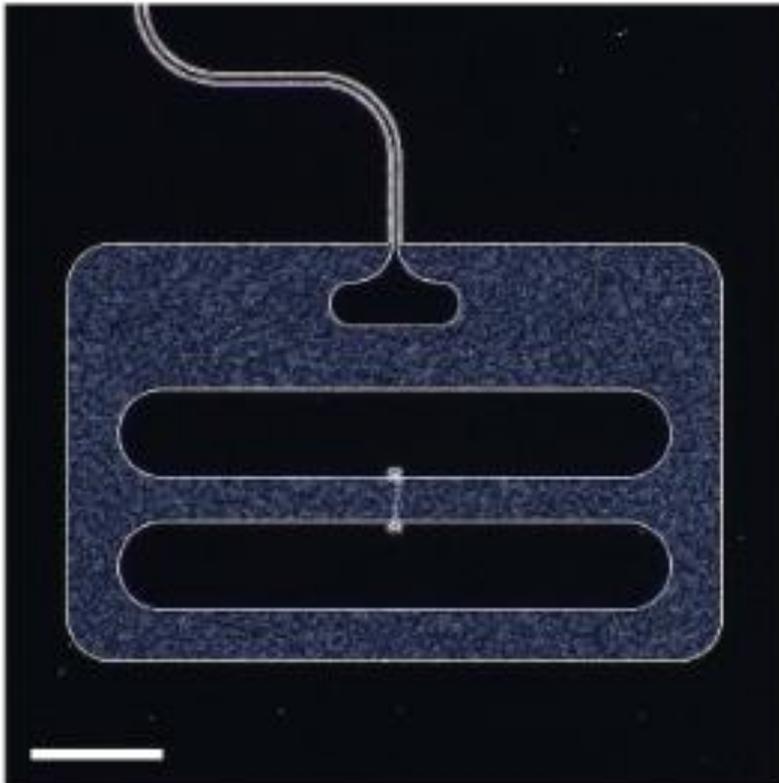


Asymmetric transmon



[Chavez-Garcia *et al. PRAppl* (2022)]

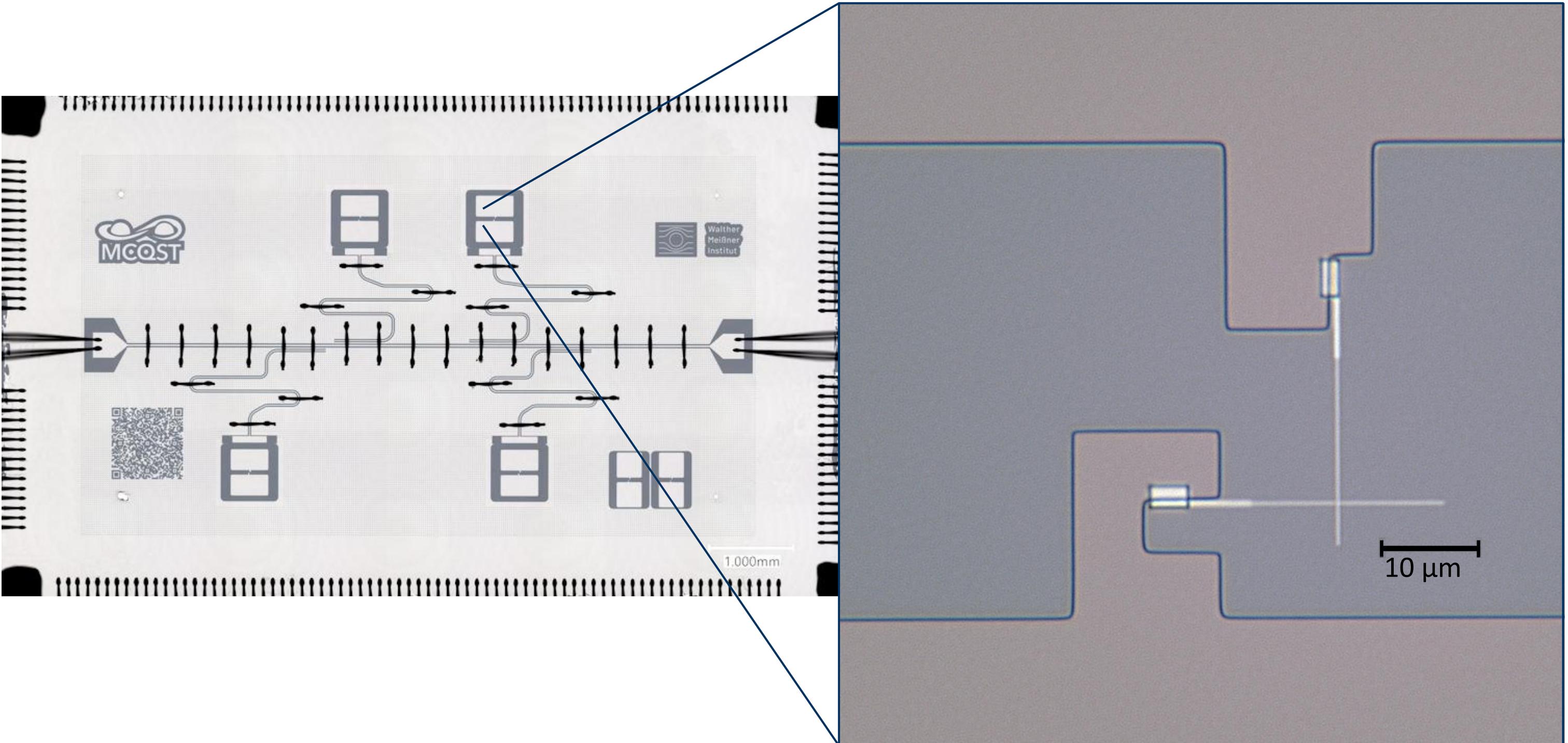
[Krantz *et al. Appl. Phys. Rev.* (2019)]



[Bland *et al.* *arXiv2503.14798* (2025)]

Fabrication

Microscope image of transmon qubit



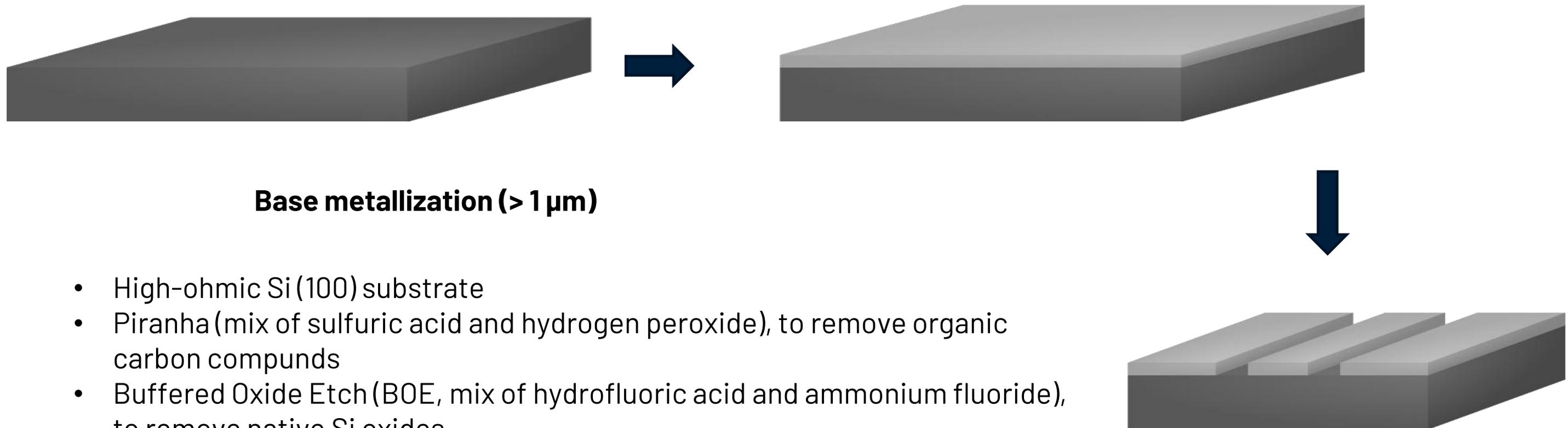
Controlled environment with strict specifications on

- temperature stability
- humidity
- particles per m³



ISO 14644-1 Cleanroom Standards

	Class	Maximum Particles/m ³					FED STD 209E equivalent	
		$\geq 0.1 \mu\text{m}$	$\geq 0.2 \mu\text{m}$	$\geq 0.3 \mu\text{m}$	$\geq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$	$\geq 1 \mu\text{m}$		$\geq 5 \mu\text{m}$
LEAST STRINGENT	ISO 1	10	2					
	ISO 2	100	24	10	4			
	ISO 3	1,000	237	102	35	8	Class 1	
	ISO 4	10,000	2,370	1,020	352	83	Class 10	
MOST STRINGENT	ISO 5	100,000	23,700	10,200	3,520	832	29	Class 100
	ISO 6	1,000,000	237,000	102,000	35,200	8,320	293	Class 1,000
	ISO 7				352,000	83,200	2,930	Class 10,000
	ISO 8				3,520,000	832,000	29,300	Class 100,000
	ISO 9				35,200,000	8,320,000	293,000	Room Air

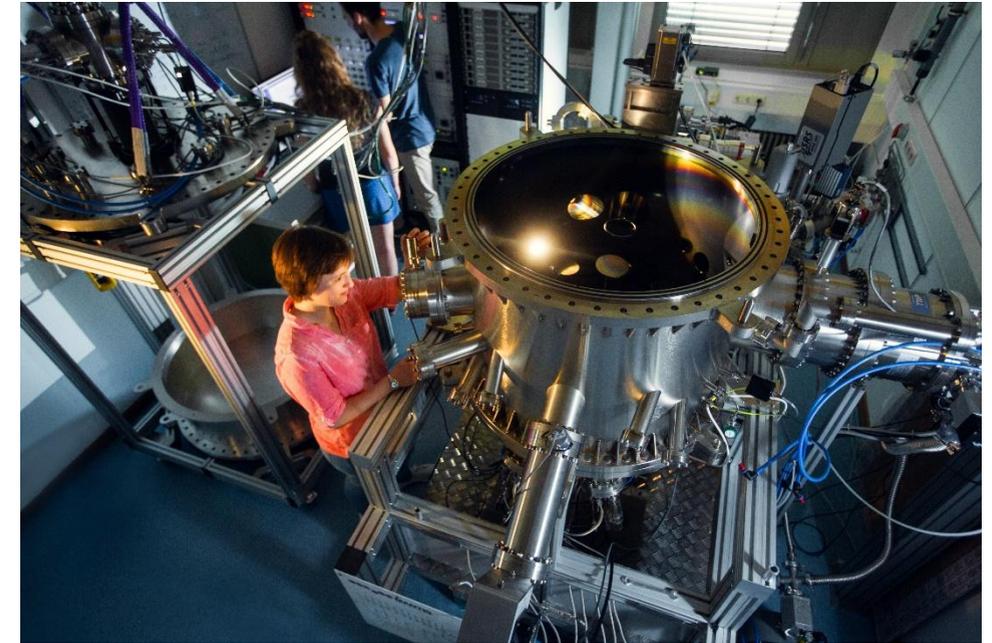


Base metallization ($> 1 \mu\text{m}$)

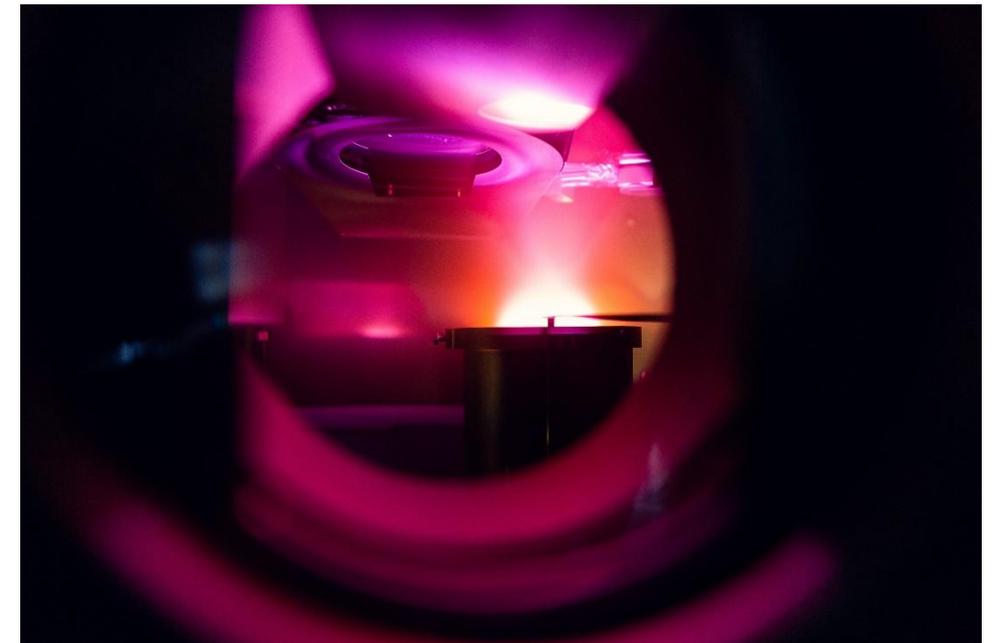
- High-ohmic Si (100) substrate
- Piranha (mix of sulfuric acid and hydrogen peroxide), to remove organic carbon compounds
- Buffered Oxide Etch (BOE, mix of hydrofluoric acid and ammonium fluoride), to remove native Si oxides
- DC magnetron sputtering 150 nm niobium
- Resist writing via optical lithography
- pattern transfer via RIE
- Resist removal and 30 s BOE cleaning

Ultra-high vacuum system

1. load clean silicon substrate into deposition tool, via load lock
2. deposit 150 nm metallization layer
(e.g. Niobium, Tantalum or other superconducting materials)



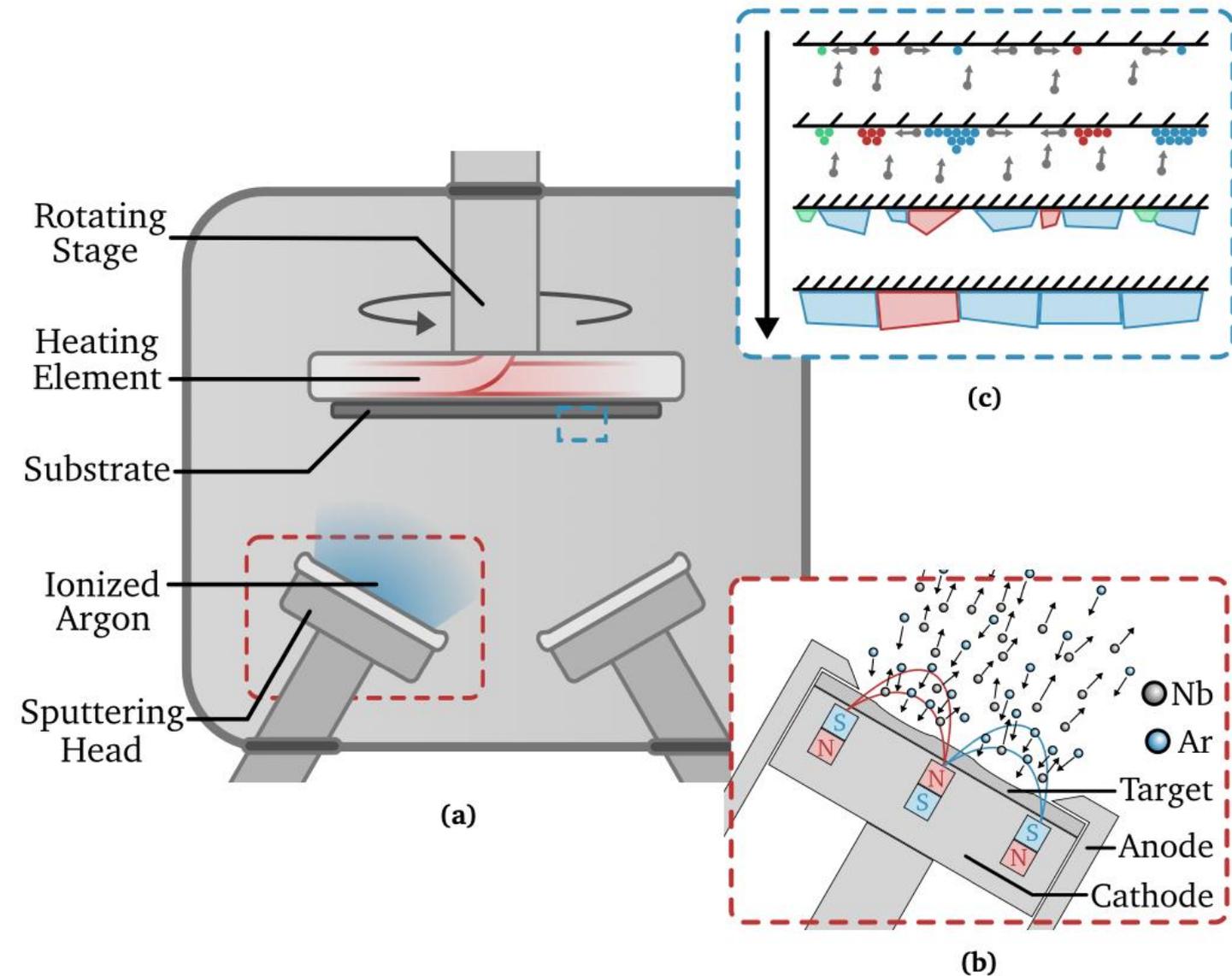
DC magnetron sputtering tool



Ignited plasma during deposition

Sputter deposition

- apply high voltage between a target material (the superconducting material) and substrate (silicon)
- introduce argon into process chamber
- high voltage ignites plasma of Ar^+ ions that are accelerated onto target material
- atoms sputtered off the target due to kinetic energy of ions
- atoms condense on the substrate and form a thin film
- film quality determined by temperature and pressure



(a) sputtering chamber.
(b) magnetron sputtering head.
(c) illustration of the thin film growth process (colours represent various crystal orientations)

Either via [direct laser writer](#) or via [mask-aligner process](#)

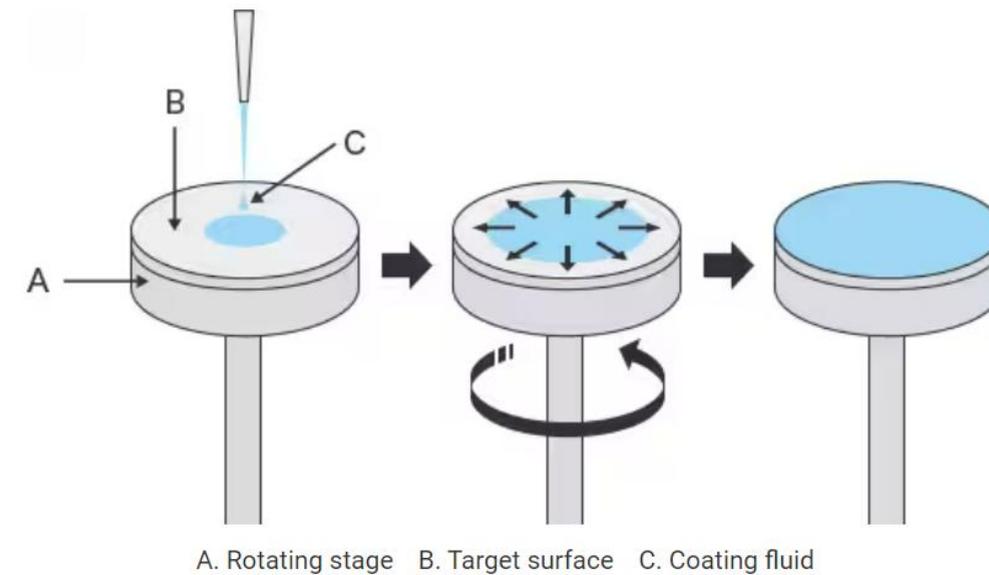
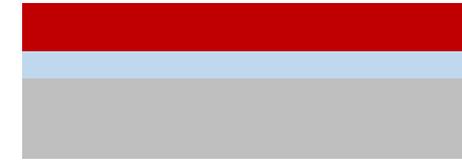
Structure sizes [limited by \(optical\) wavelength](#)

1. spin coat photoresist onto metallized substrate
 - Thickness set by rotation speed and resist properties
 - Sensitive to temperature and humidity

Photoresist

- light sensitive organic material (typically consist of resin, sensitizer and solvent)
- Exists in two polarities: positive and negative
 - Positive: exposed area is soluble in developer
 - Negative: exposed area is insoluble in developer

Spincoating resist



Optical lithography – patterning first layer

Either via mask-aligner process, direct laser writer or maskless aligner (using a DMD)

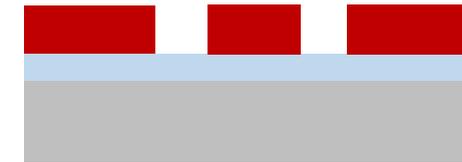
Structure sizes limited by (optical) wavelength

1. spin coat positive optical resist onto metallized substrate
 - Sensitive to temperature and humidity
2. expose the resist with laser light in areas defined by a layout
→ exposure leads to chemical changes in exposed resist
3. dip the sample into developer
→ removes resist in exposed areas (positive resist)
4. etch sample via reactive ion etching or wet chemical etching
→ unexposed areas are protected by the remaining resist
→ micro structure from mask is transferred into metal layer

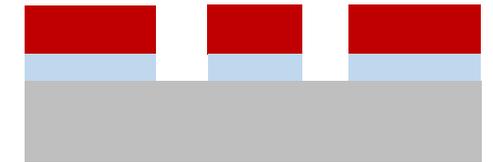
Spincoating resist



Optical lithography



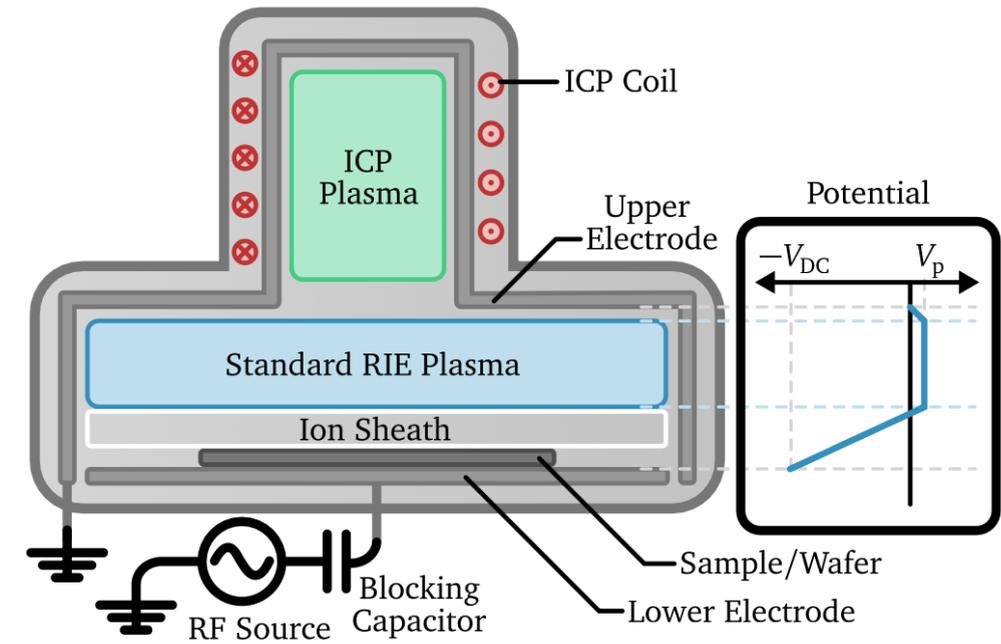
Etching



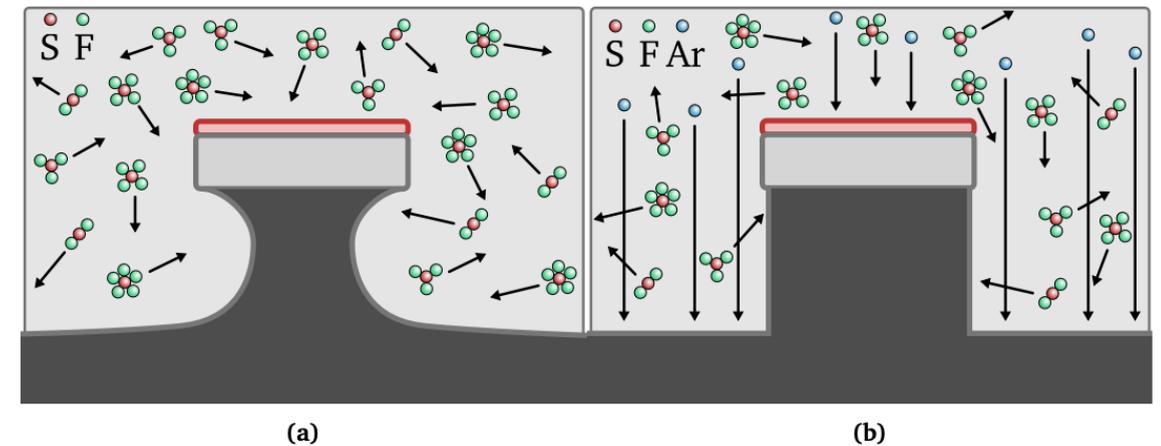
Reactive Ion Etching

Combination of **physical sputtering** (similar to thin film deposition) and **chemical etching** ('dry etching')

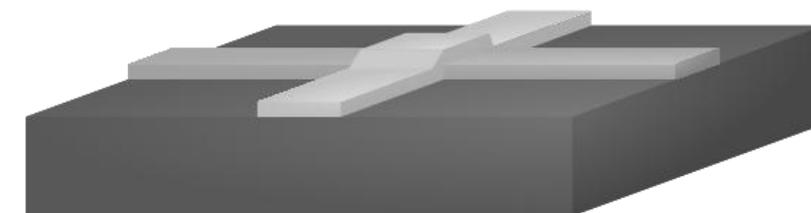
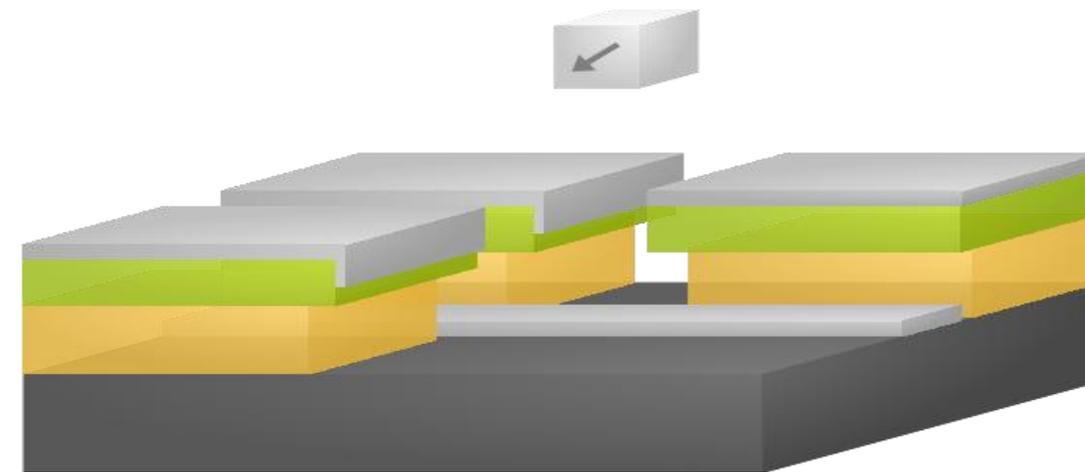
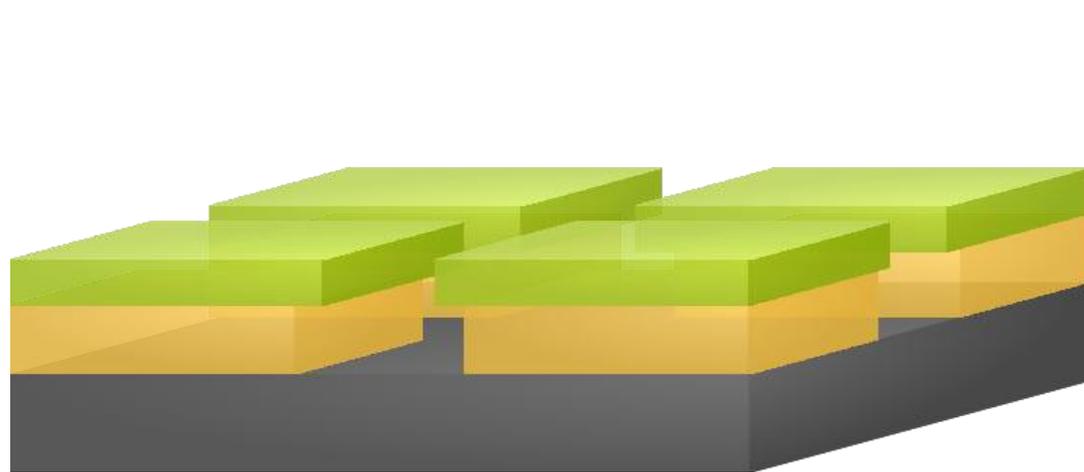
- oscillating RF electric field between upper and lower electrode → **ignites plasma** (e.g. sulfur hexafluoride SF_6)
- oscillating electromagnetic field initiates the plasma
- electrons create a large potential difference (low mass) (discharge to ground on upper electrode, charges are collected on lower electrode/blocking capacitor; ions are mostly stationary)
- voltage difference → positive ions (ion sheath) move towards sample → **chemical reactions and sputtering at the same time**
- Optional: Inductively coupled plasma source for higher plasma densities



RIE chamber including ICP (inductively coupled plasma) unit. Negative potential accelerates plasma towards the sample.



(a) Isotropic etch profile vs (b) an-isotropic etch profile due to momentum of argon ions.



Junction fabrication ($< 1 \mu\text{m}$)

- Bilayer resist system (e.g. CSAR and PMMA)
- Evaporation and dynamic oxidation
- Evaporation of second aluminum layer
- Resist stripping and metal lift-off

E-beam lithography – defining Josephson Junctions

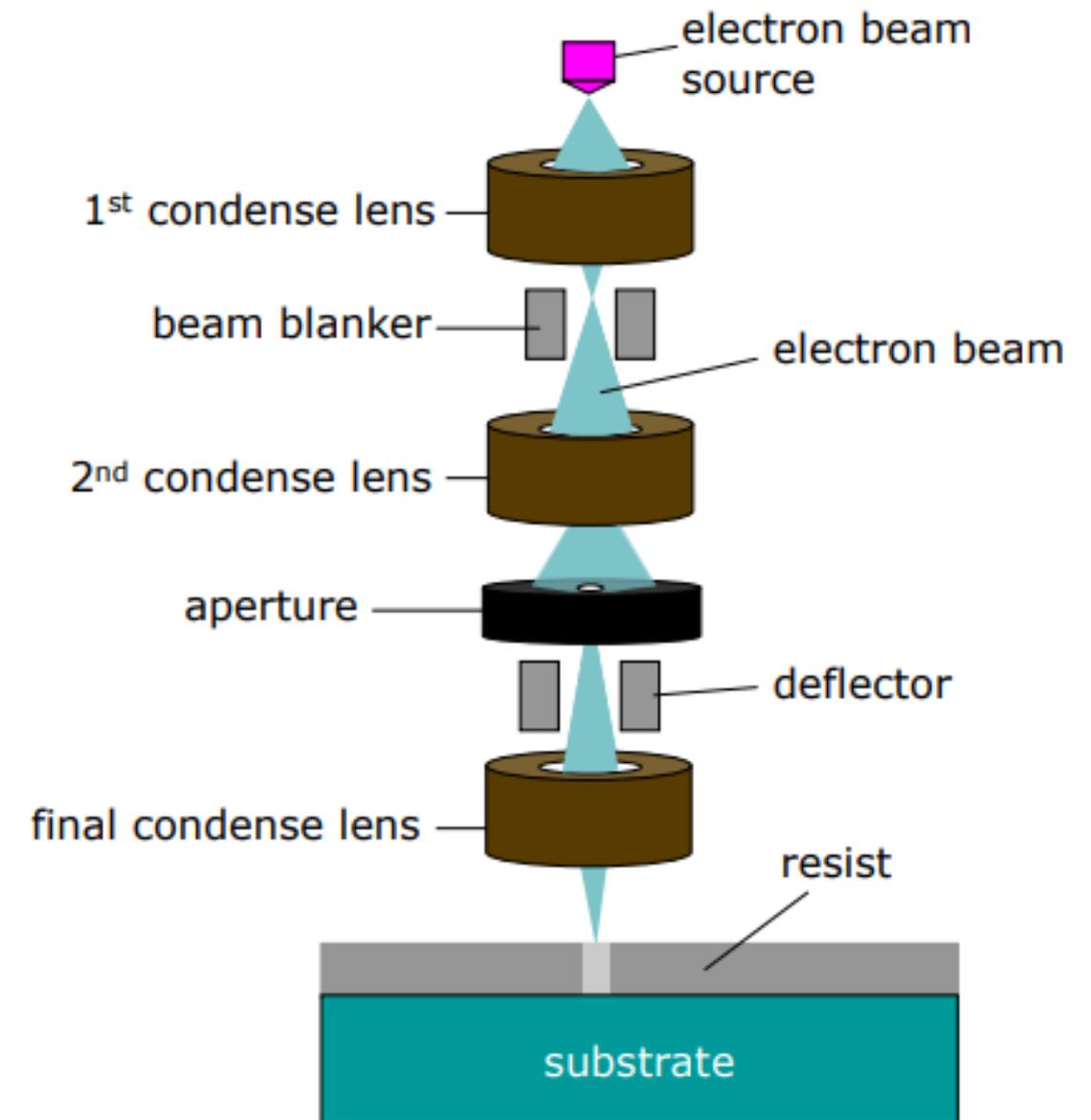
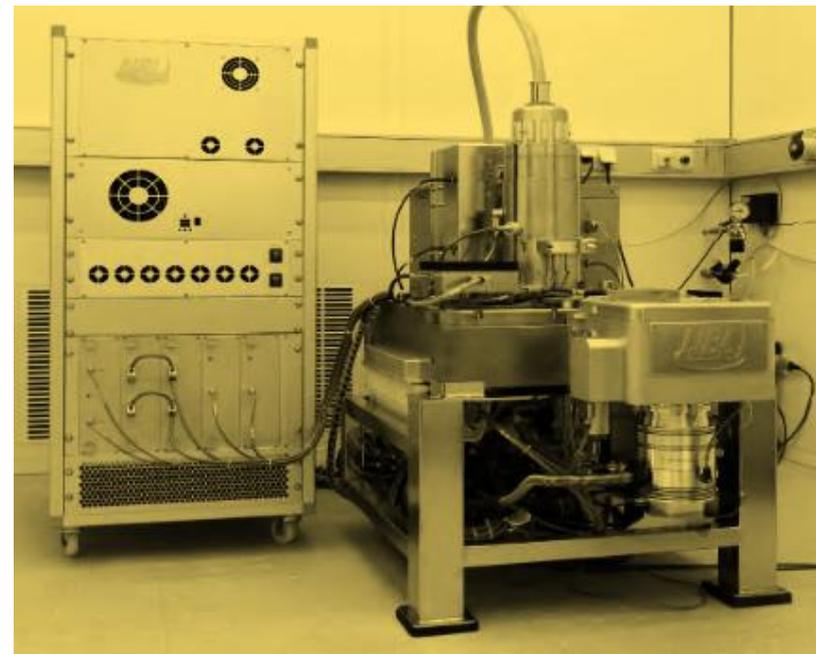
Similar to optical lithography but for **nm – sized structures**

→ suitable to define Josephson junctions

(typical dimensions $50 \times 50 \text{ nm}^2$ to $300 \times 300 \text{ nm}^2$)

- Sensitive to temperature, vibrations, electric/magnetic fields

1. spin coat two resist layers onto the sample
2. load the sample into a UHV e-beam writing tool
3. expose resist in predefined areas by electron irradiation
4. develop the resist structure

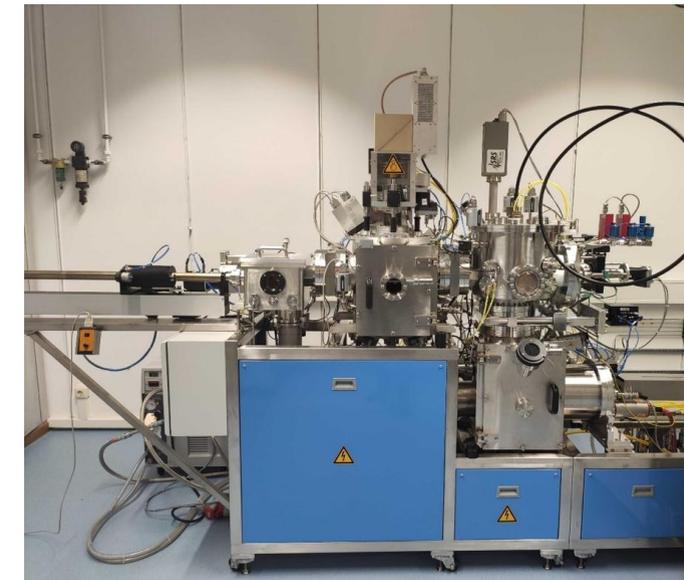
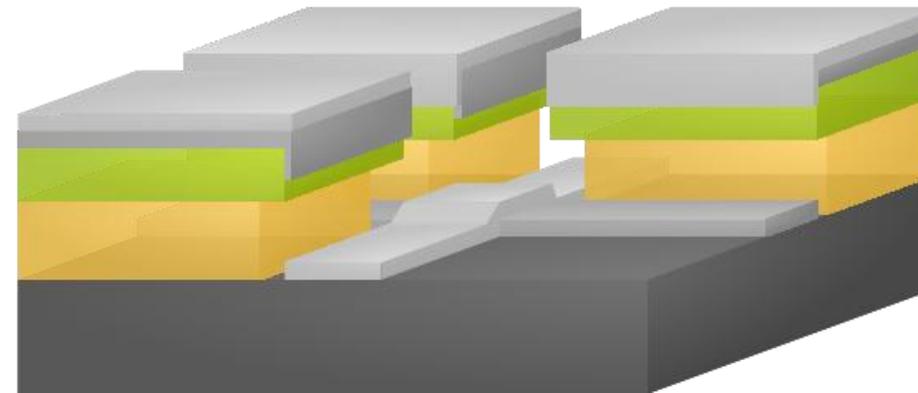


Deposition of Al-AlO_x-Al trilayer

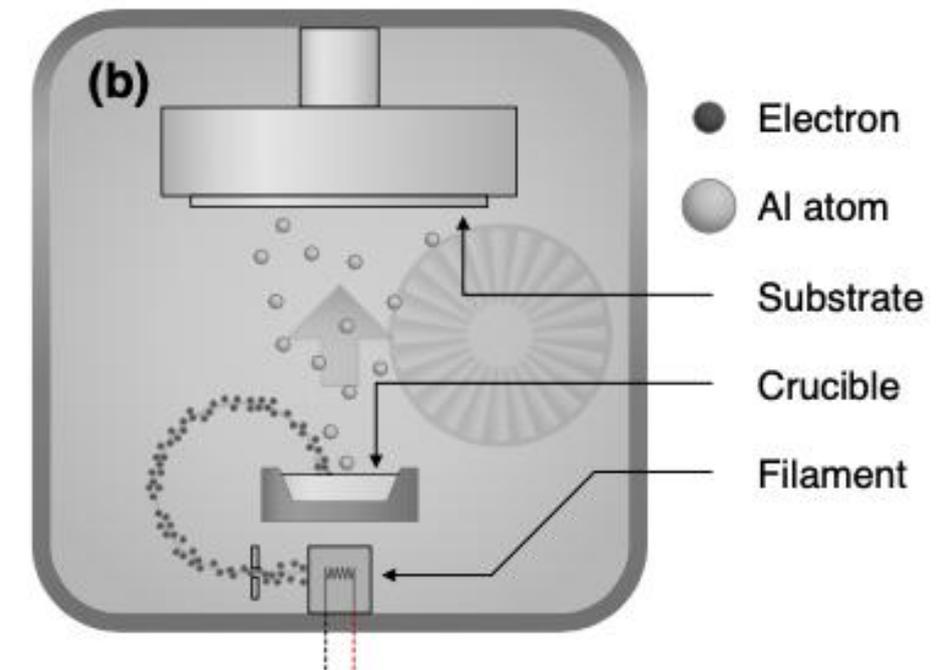
Aluminium is deposited via electron beam evaporation

- high kinetic energy electron focused onto aluminium target
→ sublimation of aluminium
- aluminium is directed to substrate
→ condenses as thin film

Oxidation through controlled inlet of oxygen into chamber

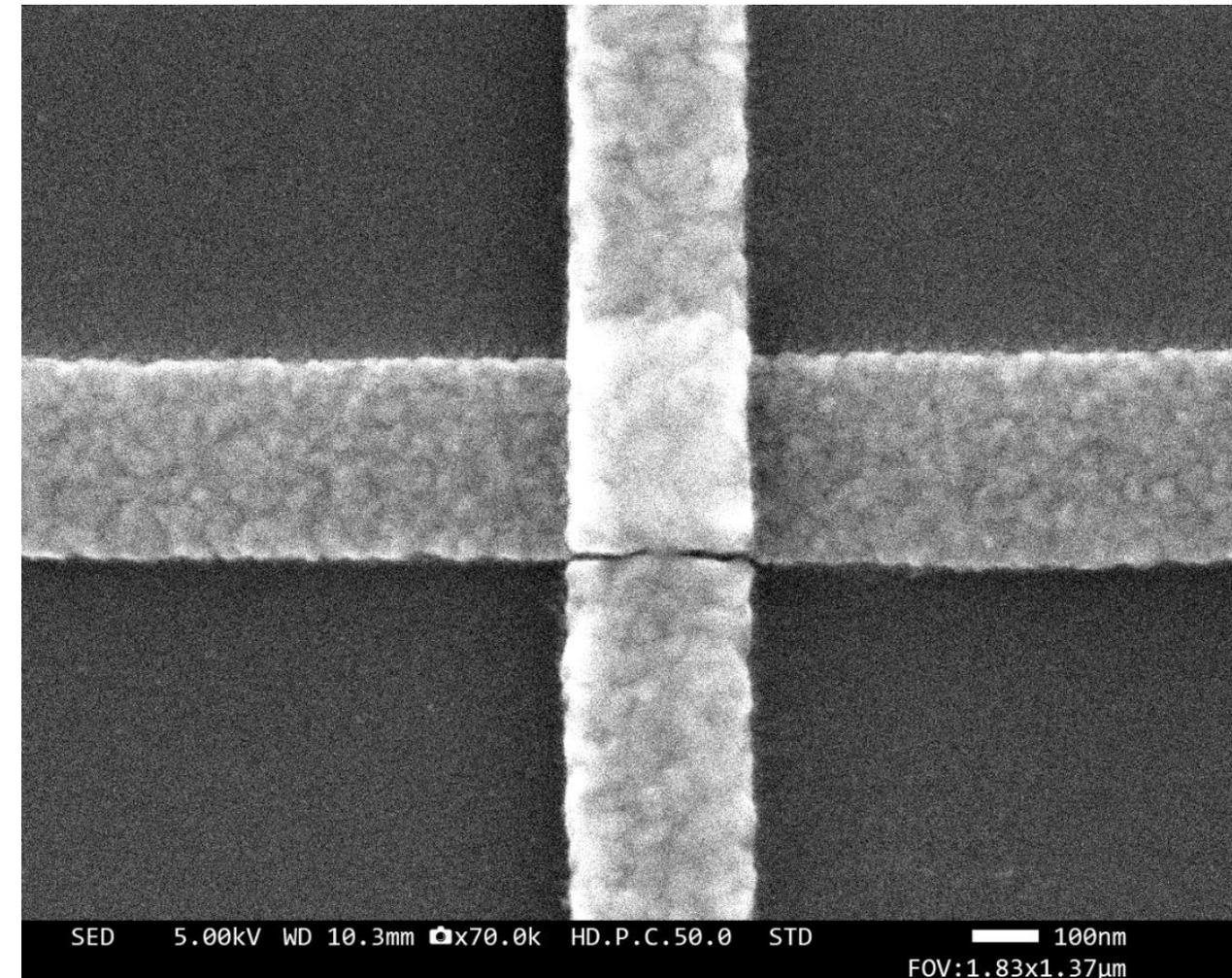
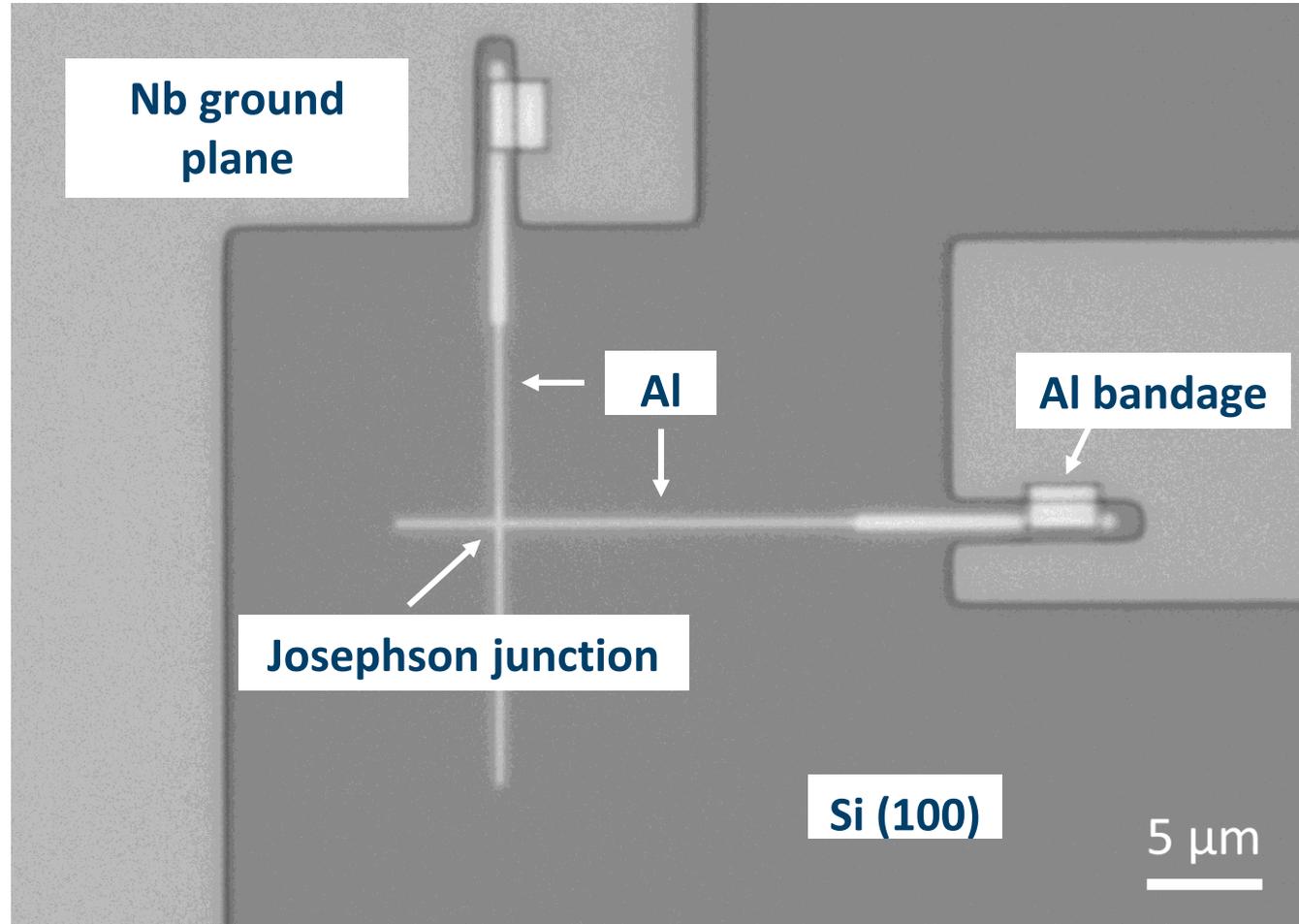
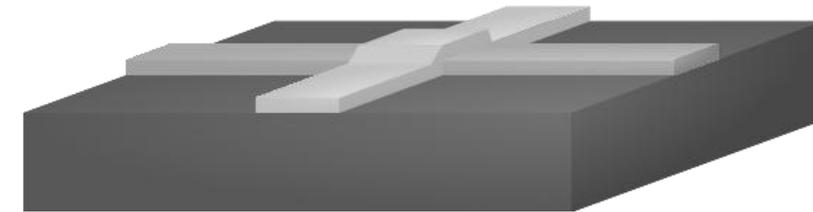


1. load sample with resist mask into Al evaporation tool
2. pump ultra high vacuum ($< 10^{-8} mbar$)
3. deposit first junction arm via e-beam evaporation (20 nm thickness)
4. dynamically oxidize the surface of this first junction arm
5. tilt and rotate sample
6. deposit second junction arm (60 nm thickness)



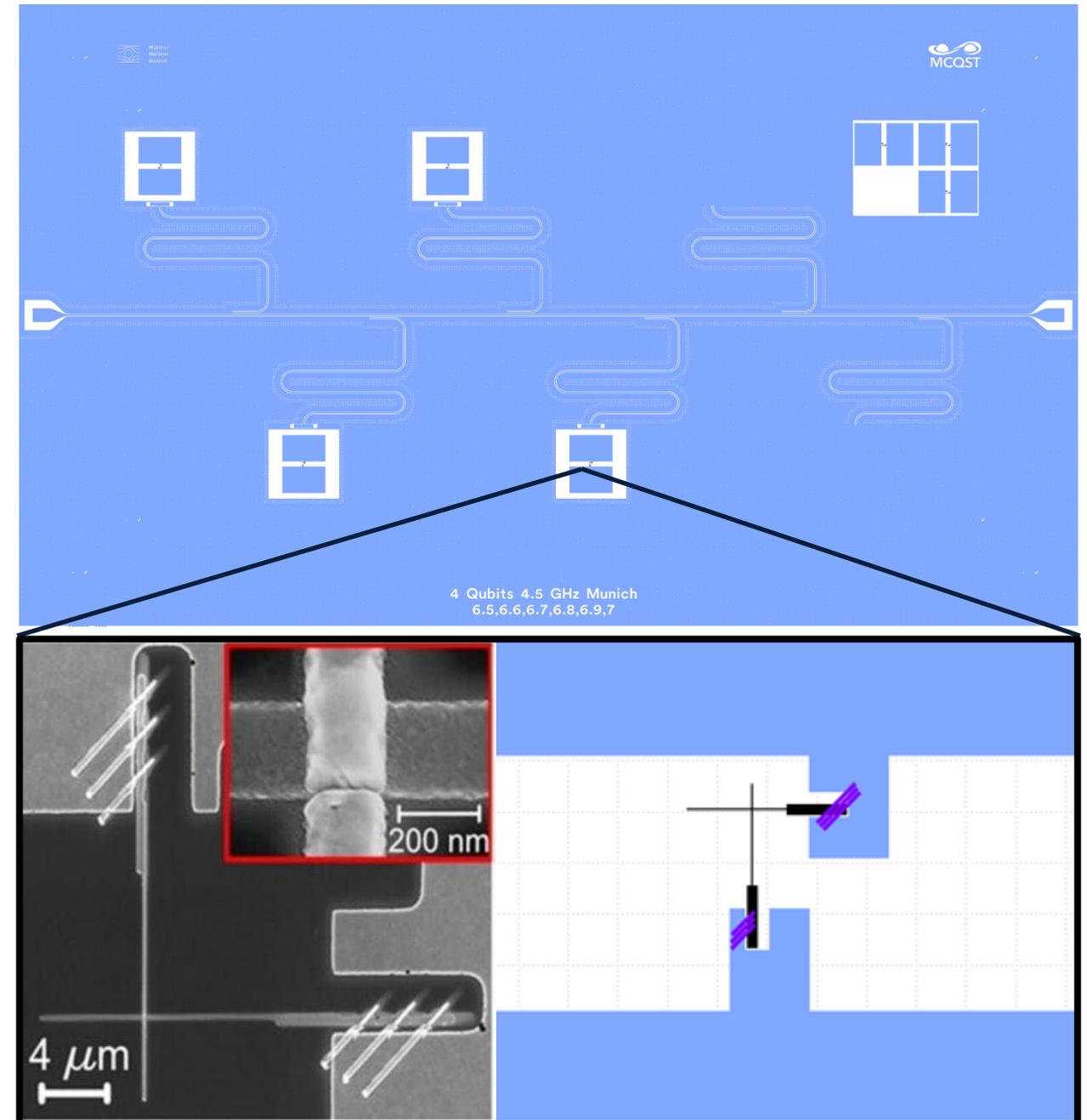
Lift-off – removing excess aluminium

1. Put sample into acetone to dissolve resist
2. Generate a flow to „wash away“ excess aluminium
3. rinse and dry sample



Ensure contact between Nb base layer and junction arms

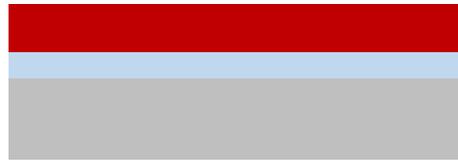
1. spin coat resist layers onto the sample
2. load sample again into a UHV e-beam writing tool
3. expose resist in predefined areas (purple areas in the picture) by electron irradiation
4. develop the resist structure
5. load sample into Al evaporation tool
6. etch away surface oxides by Ar-Ion milling
7. deposit aluminium for galvanic contact between first metallization layer and junction arms
8. Lift-off excess aluminium



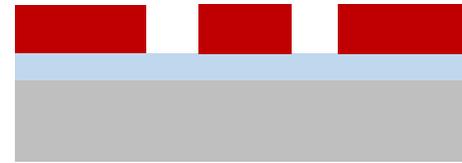
Sputtering Nb



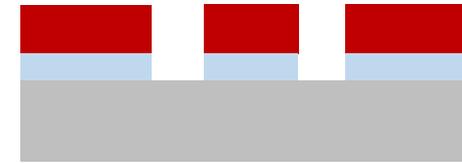
Spincoating resist



Optical lithography



Etching



Stripping resist



- Photoresist
- Niobium
- Substrate
- E-beam resist 1
- E-beam resist 2
- Aluminum
- Aluminum oxide
- Bandages
- Airbridges

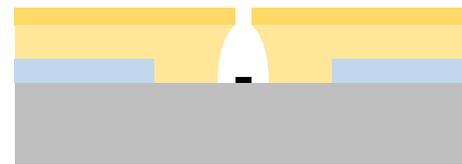
Spincoating resist



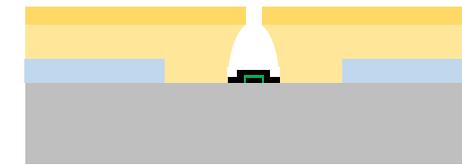
E-beam lithography



Evaporation 1



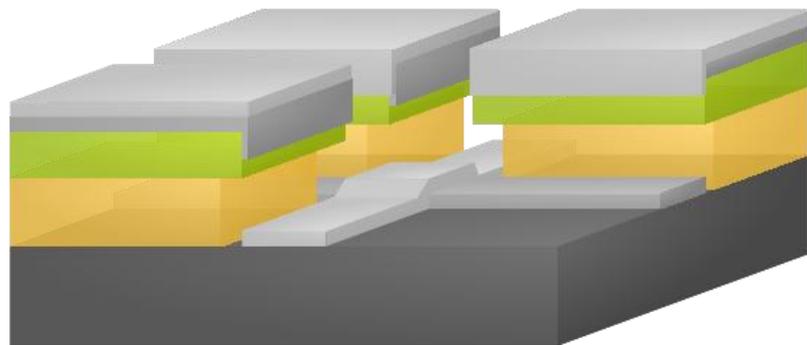
Oxidation + Evap. 2



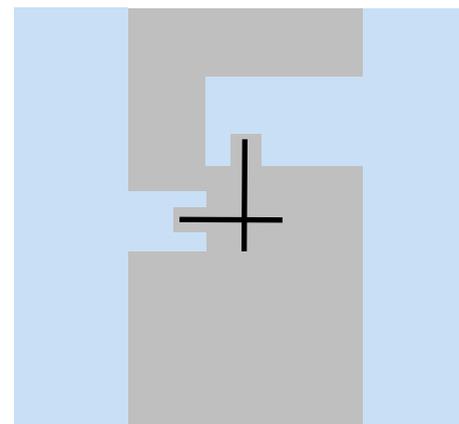
Lift-off



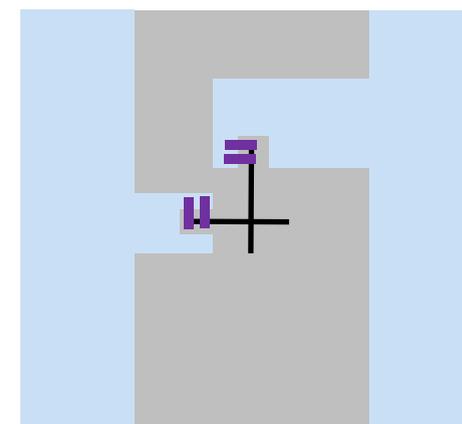
Side view of Josephson Junction



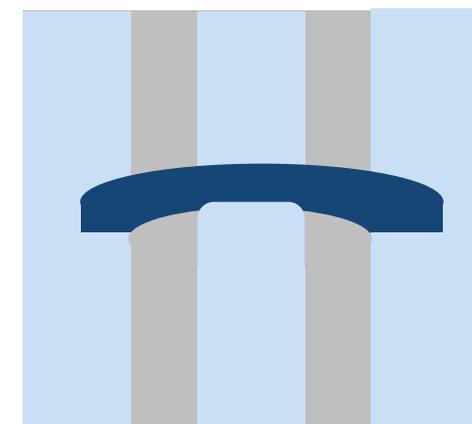
Top view



Bandages



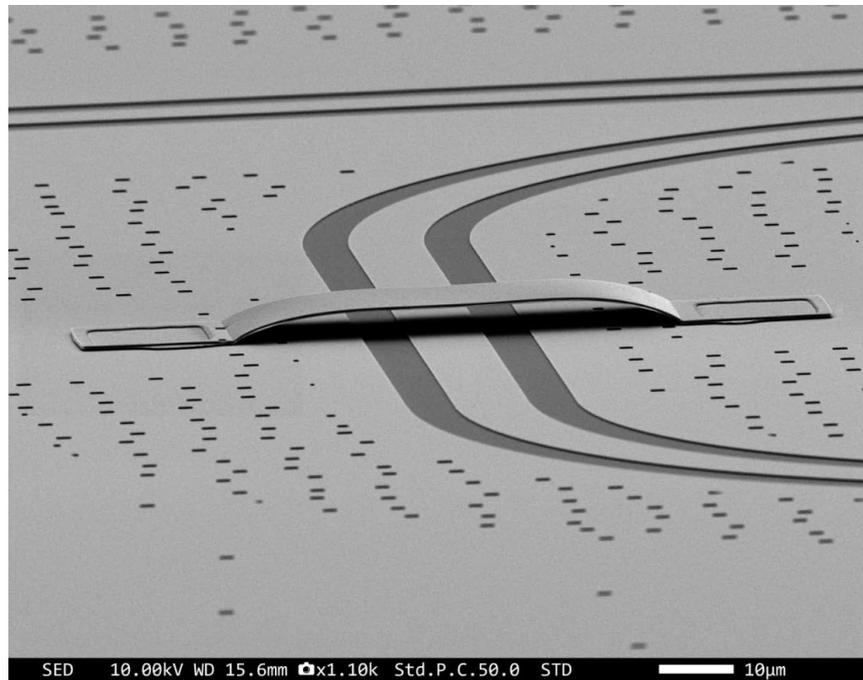
Air bridges



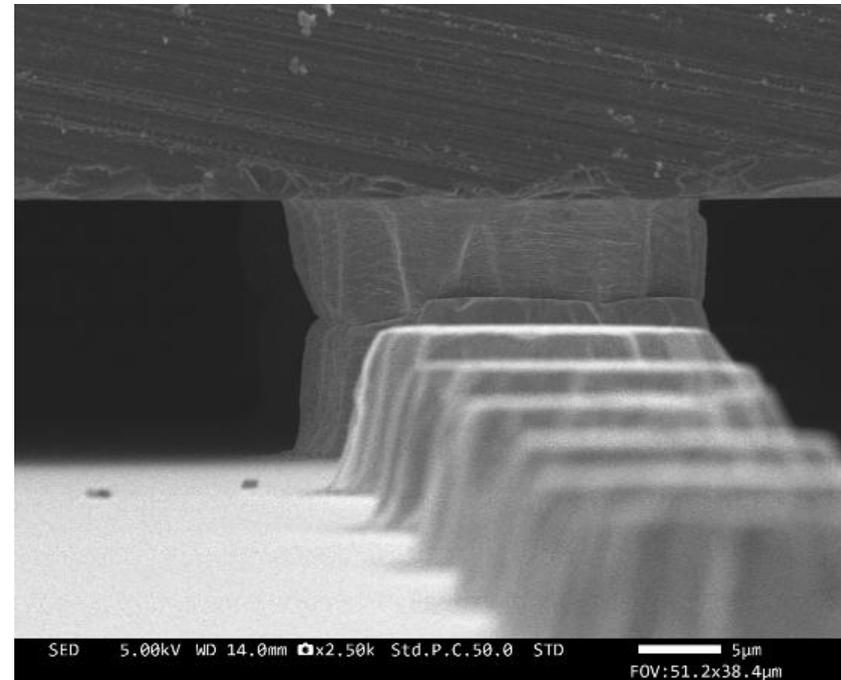
Requirement for scalability:

- addressability of all qubits (3-5 controls per qubit)
→ would require $> 10^6$ signal lines for universal QC
- reduction of modes in large chips
- reduction of cross-talk

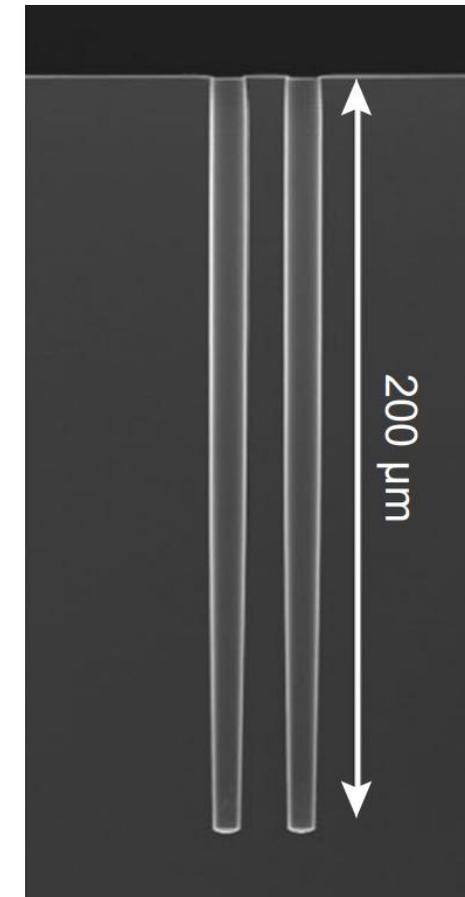
Air bridges



Indium bump flip-chip bonding



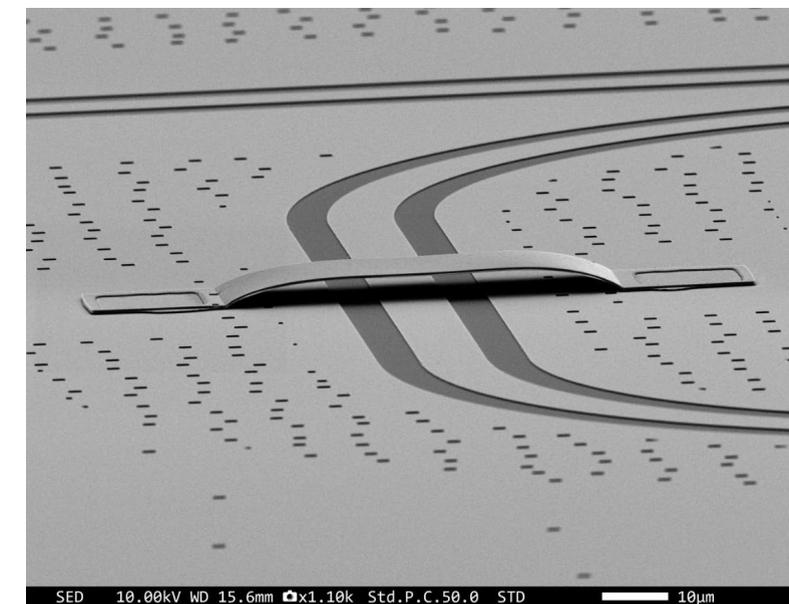
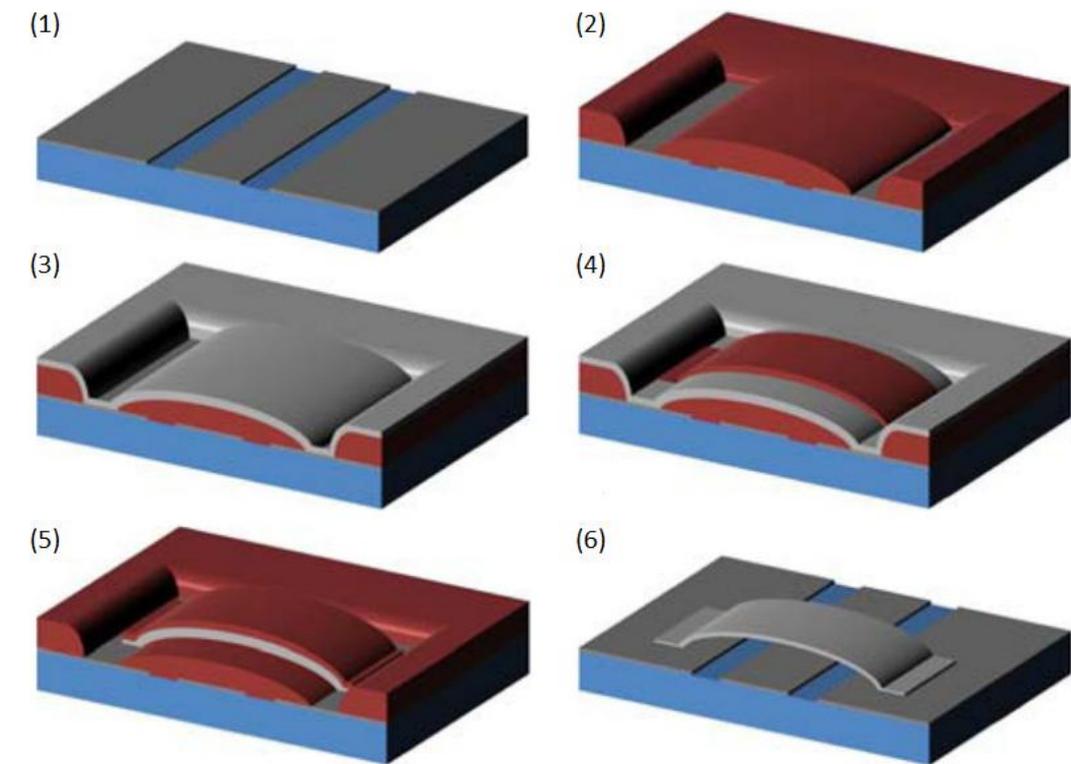
Through-silicon-Via (TSV)



Scaling: Air bridge process

To connect grounds on the chip and to route signal lines

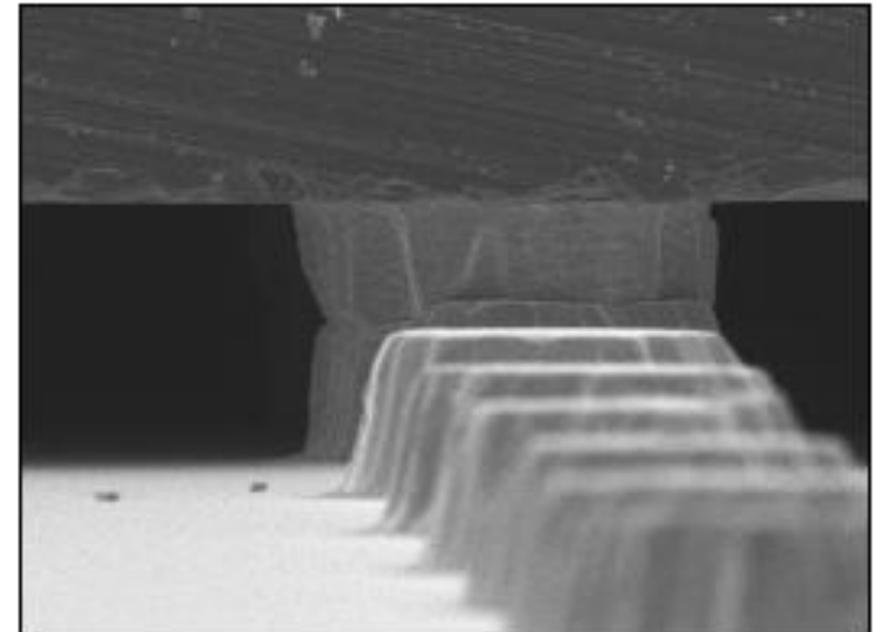
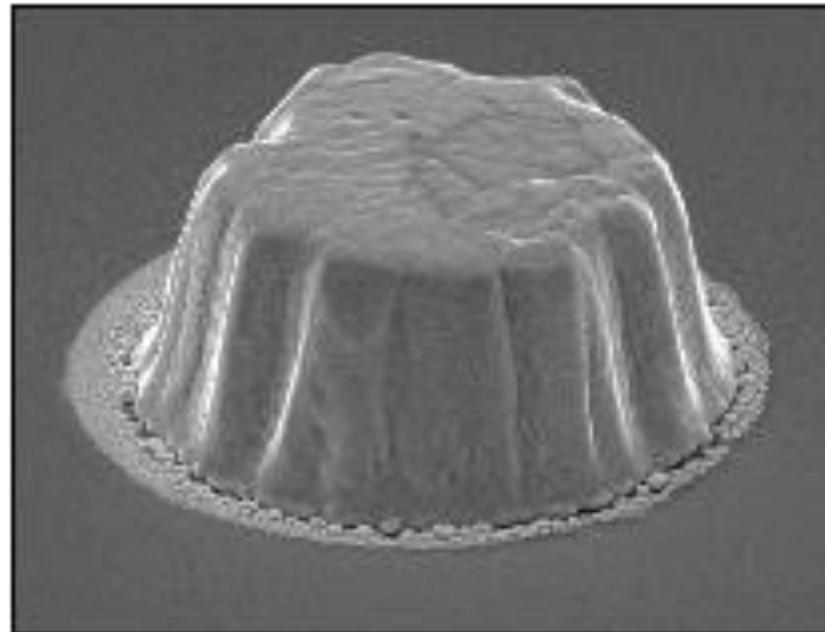
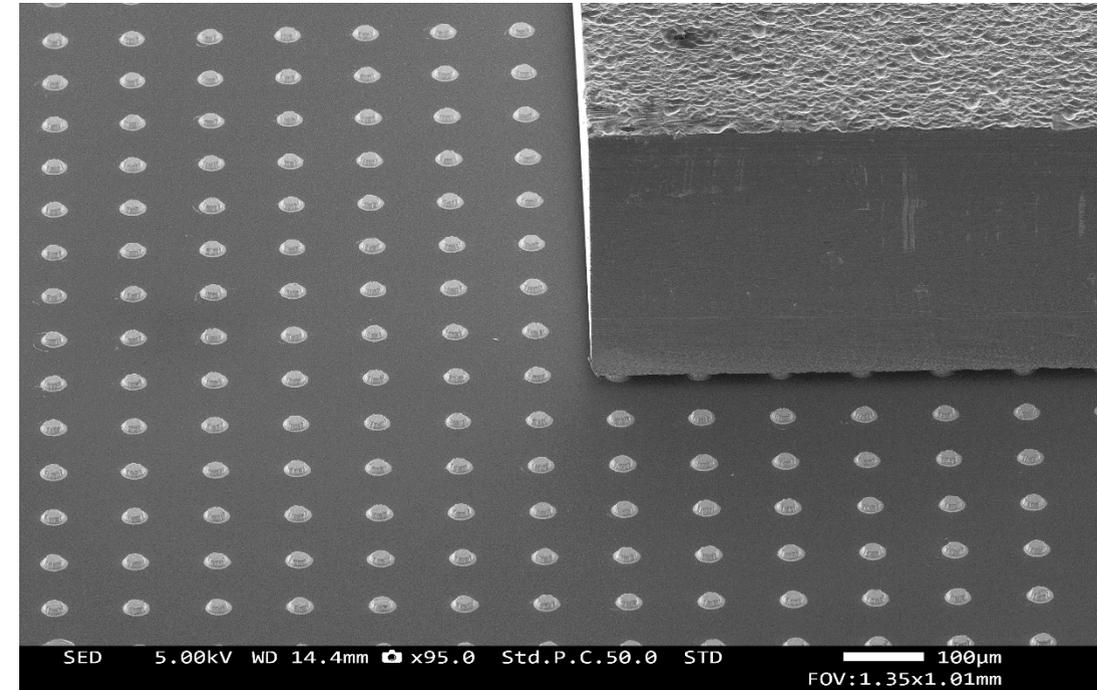
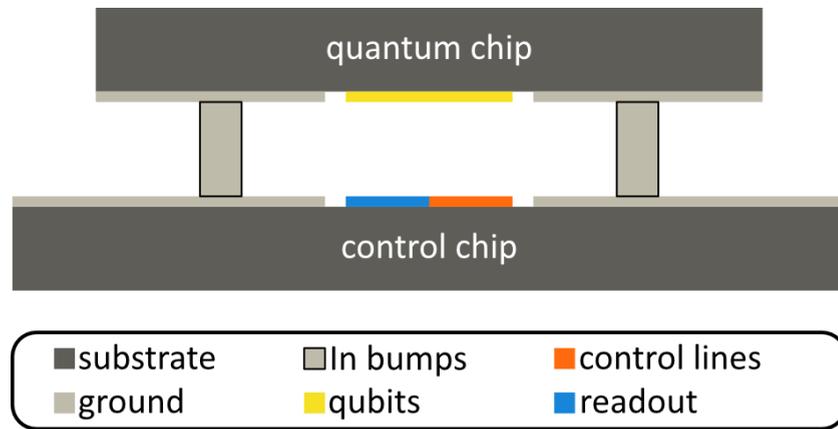
1. spin coat optical resist on pre-patterned substrate
2. define a structure by optical lithography, develop the structure and „reflow“ the resist by melting it
3. deposit metallization layer on top
4. spin coat and define a second structure by optical lithography
5. etch away the excess material
6. release the air bridge by dissolving remaining resist



Scaling: Indium bump flip-chip bonding

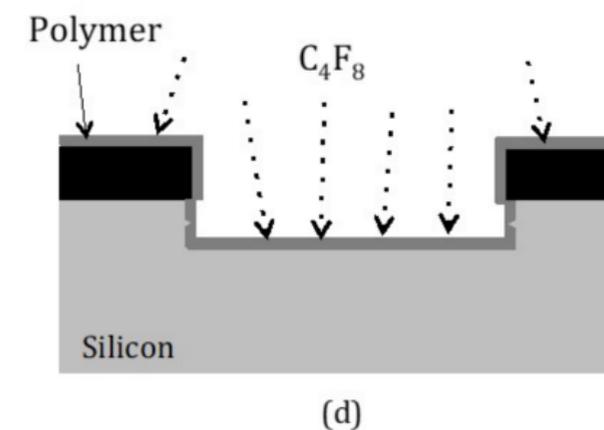
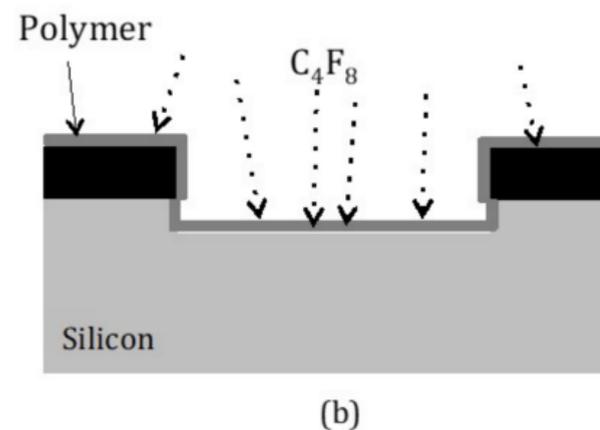
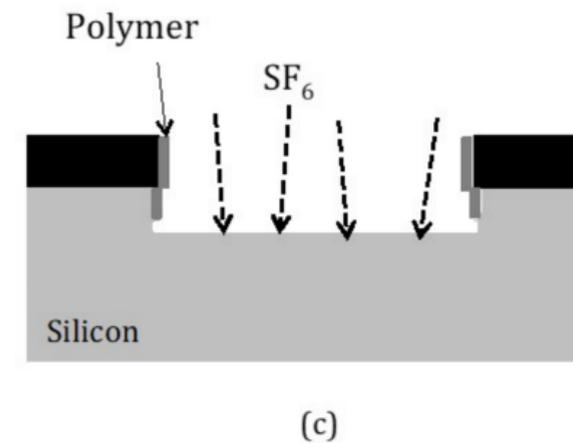
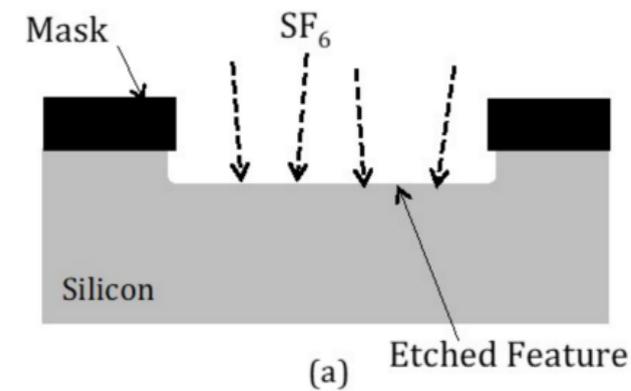
Two Si chips connected by indium bumps

- Bottom chip for routing
- Top chip for qubits and couplers
- $\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ chip spacing, precise tilt control is key

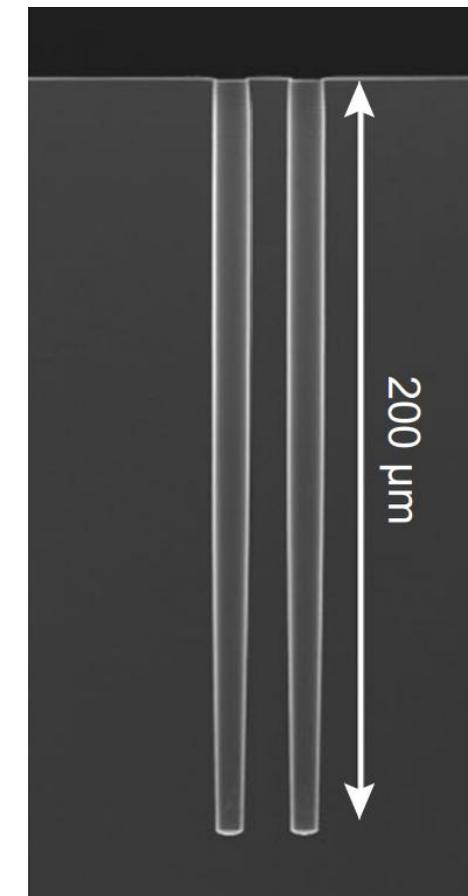


RIE Bosch process:

- Cyclic etch process which enables etching of deep trenches in Si
 1. SF₆ gas to etch small amount of initial silicon
 2. C₄F₈ gas to passivate surface (PTFE/Teflon)
 3. Switch to SF₆ (& Ar), the anisotropic physical component facilitates breaking of the polymer at the bottom
 4. Cycle between SF₆ and C₄F₈



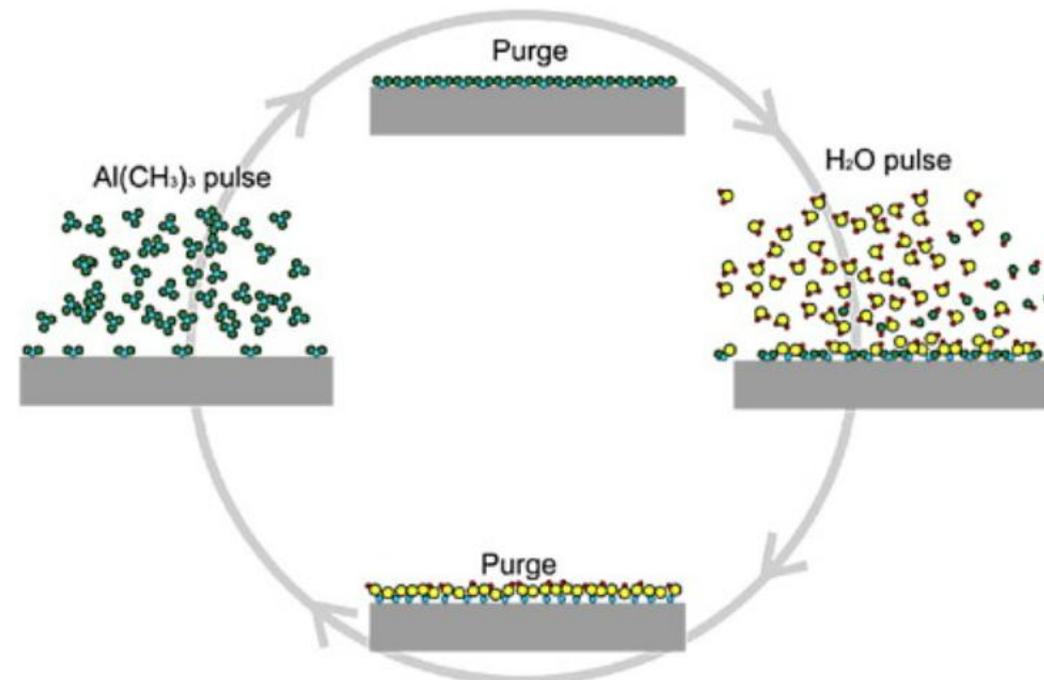
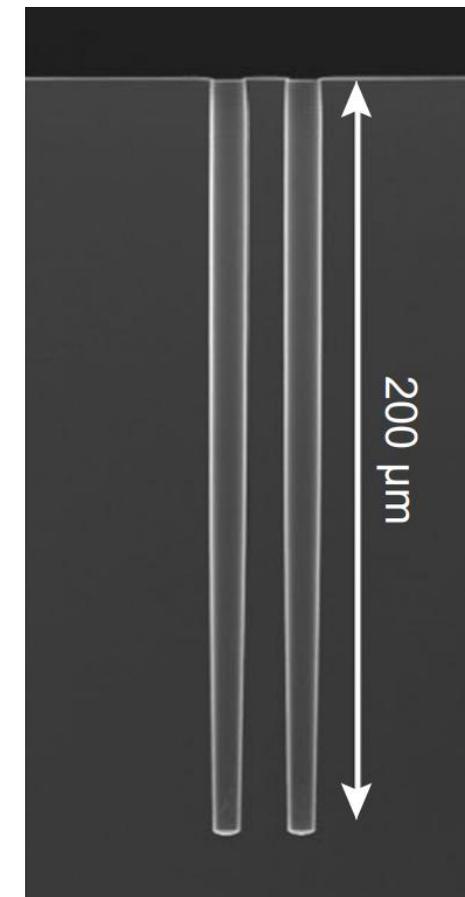
Through-silicon-Via (TSV)



ALD process (Al₂O₃ as example):

- Pulse with precursor (TMAI) which forms a monolayer (ideally)
- Purge reactor chamber
- Pulse reactant (H₂O)
- Purge reactor chamber
- One layer of Al₂O₃ has now been deposited, repeat cycle
- Advantages: High thickness control, conformal deposition
- For TSVs for qubits applications, materials such as TiN and NbN are of interest

Through-silicon-Via (TSV)



Qubit chip

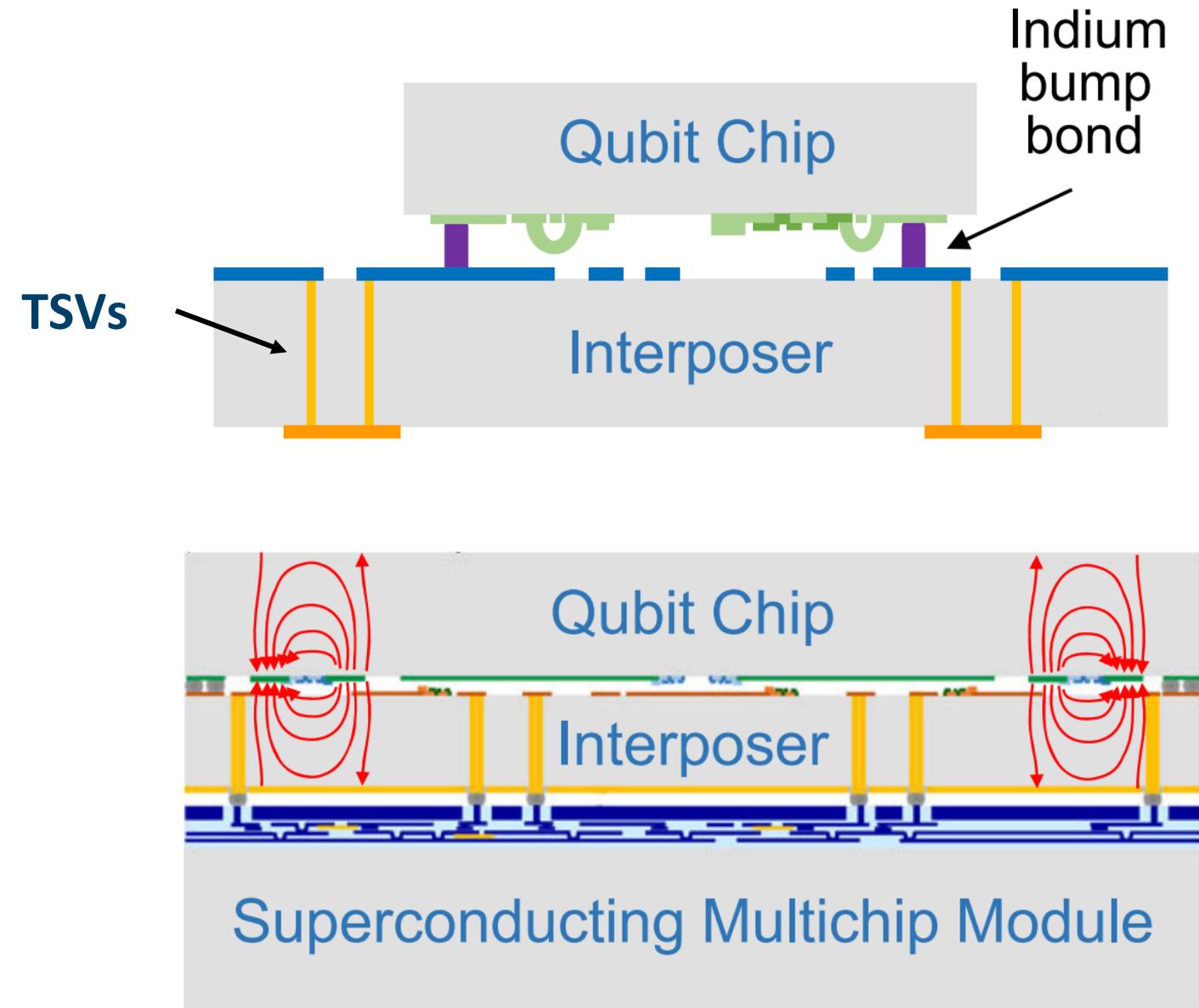
- Qubit capacitor pads
- Josephson junctions

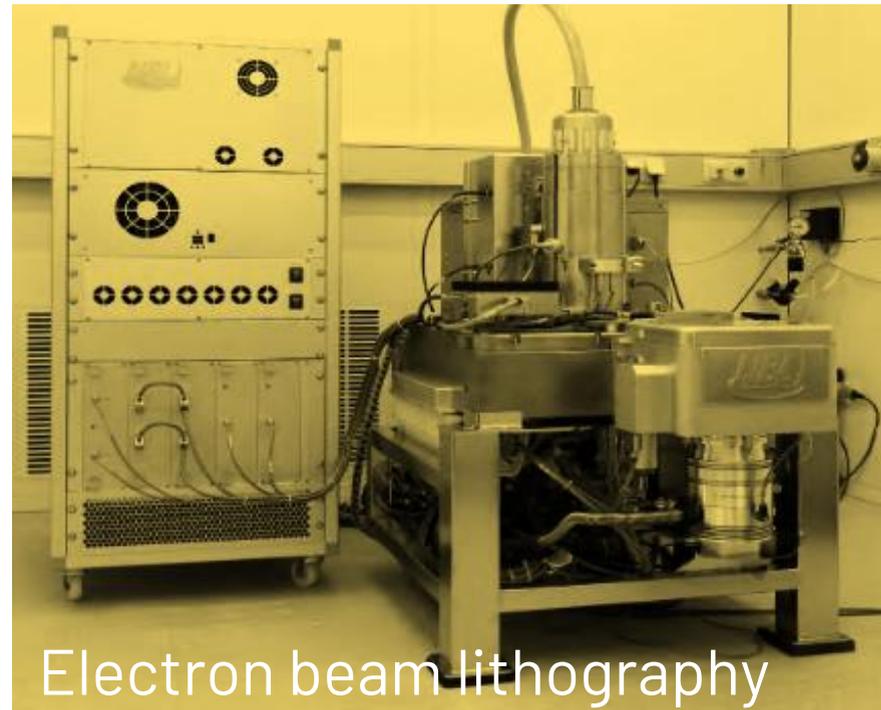
Interposer/control chip

- Resonators
- Flux lines
- Drive lines

Multichip Module

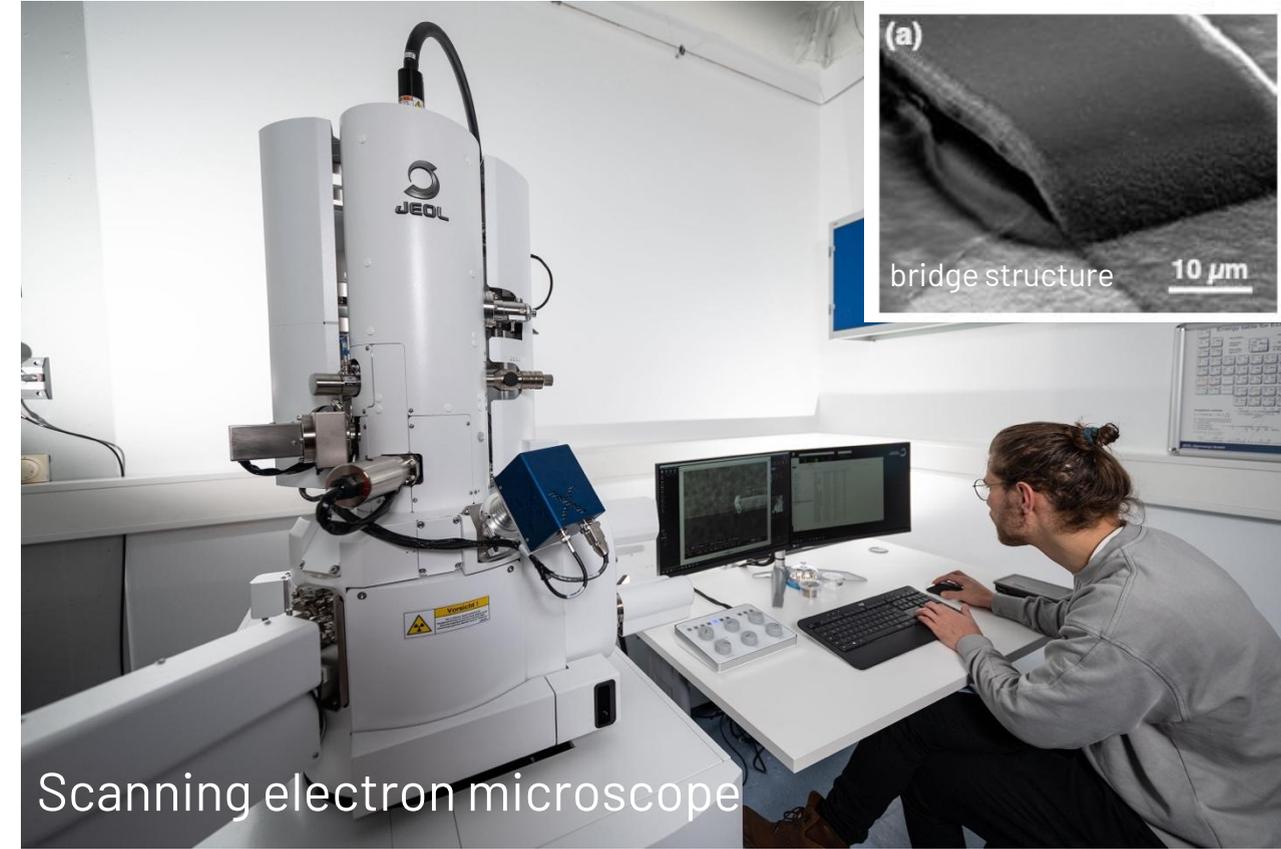
- Cryo CMOS
- SFQ
- TWPAs
- Packaging







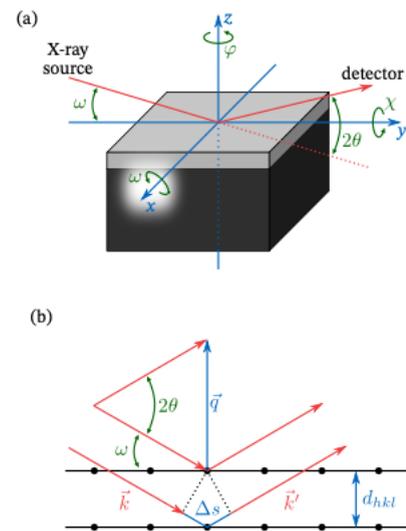
Optical microscope



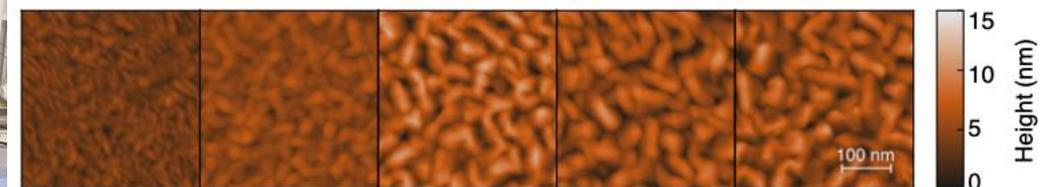
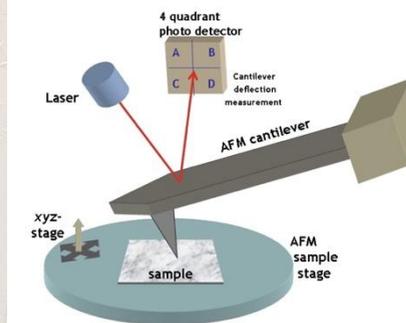
Scanning electron microscope



X-Ray diffractometer



Atomic force microscope

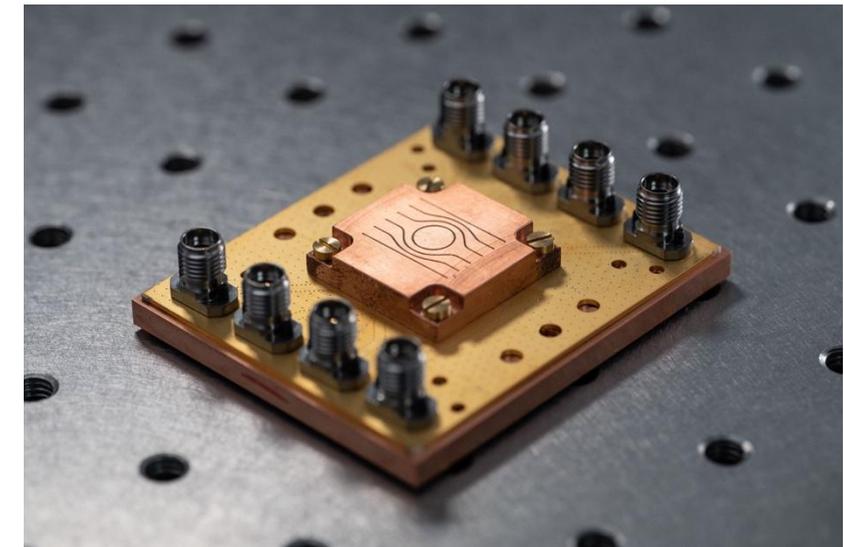
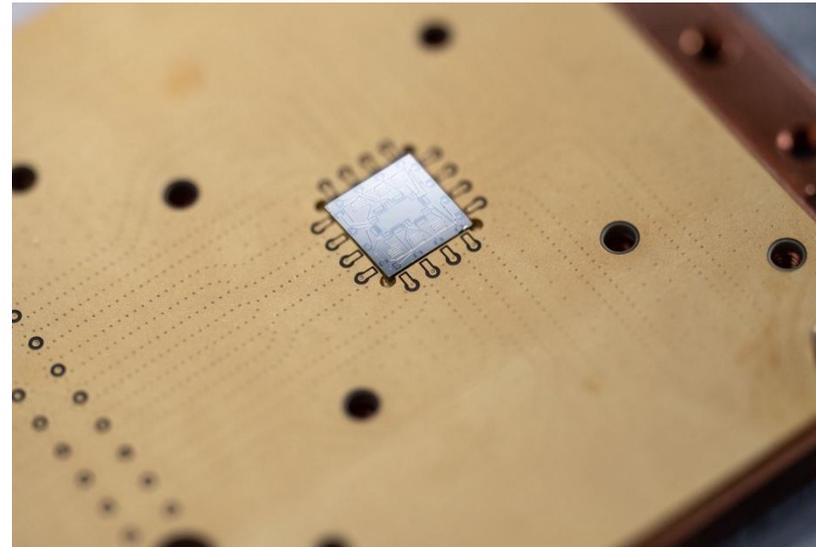
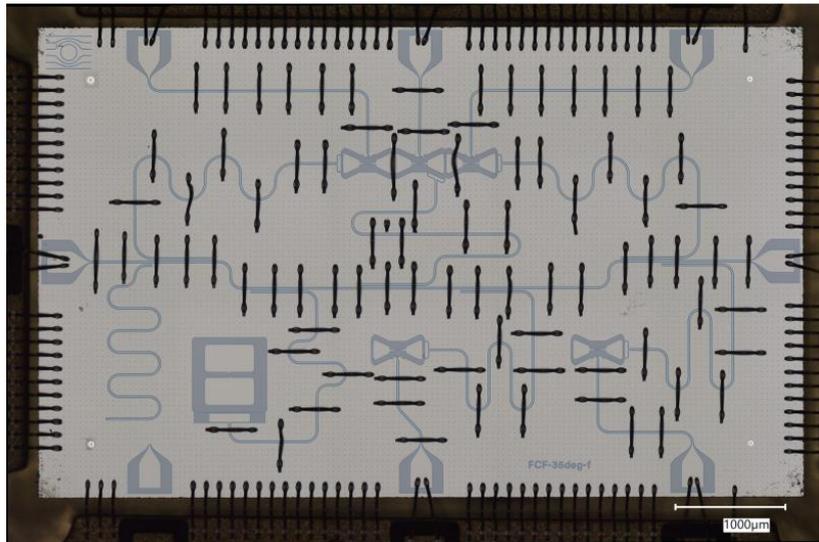


Sample preparation / Packaging

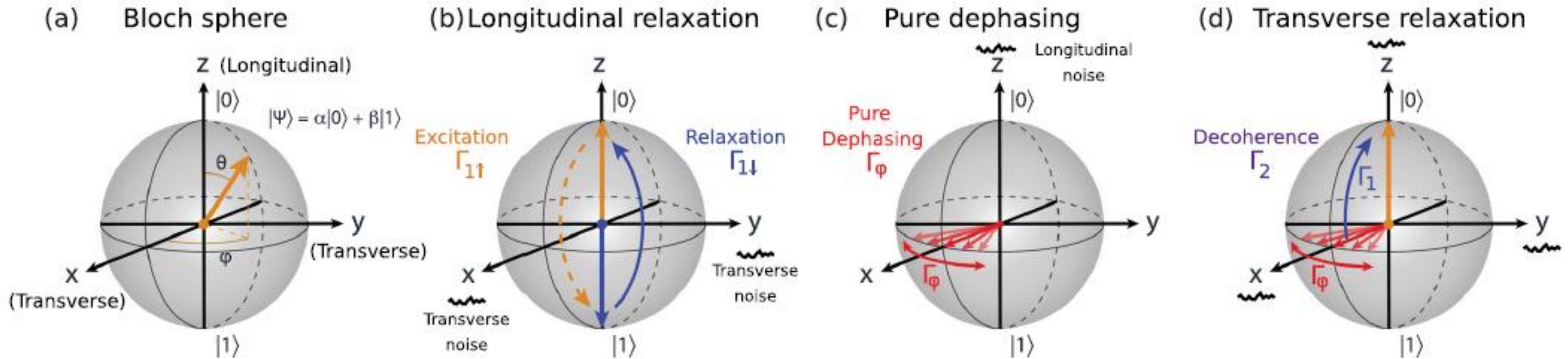
Wire bonder:



Wafer dicer:



Surface Losses & Decoherence



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

Longitudinal relaxation rate: $\Gamma_1 \equiv \frac{1}{T_1}$

Pure dephasing rate: Γ_ϕ

Transversal relaxation rate $\Gamma_2 \equiv \frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{\Gamma_1}{2} + \Gamma_\phi$

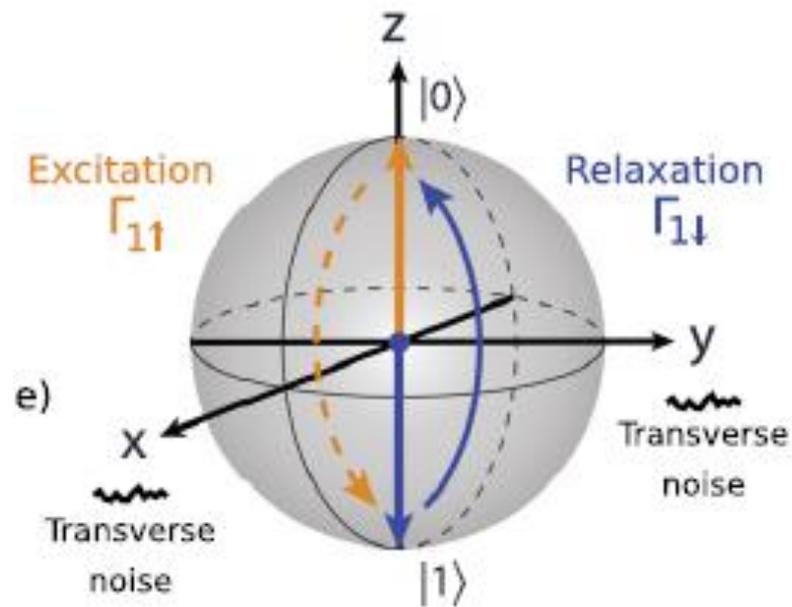
Bloch-Redfield dynamics:

Two-level system weakly coupled to noise sources with short correlation time

$$\rho_{BR} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|\alpha|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\Gamma_2 t} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

(b) Longitudinal relaxation



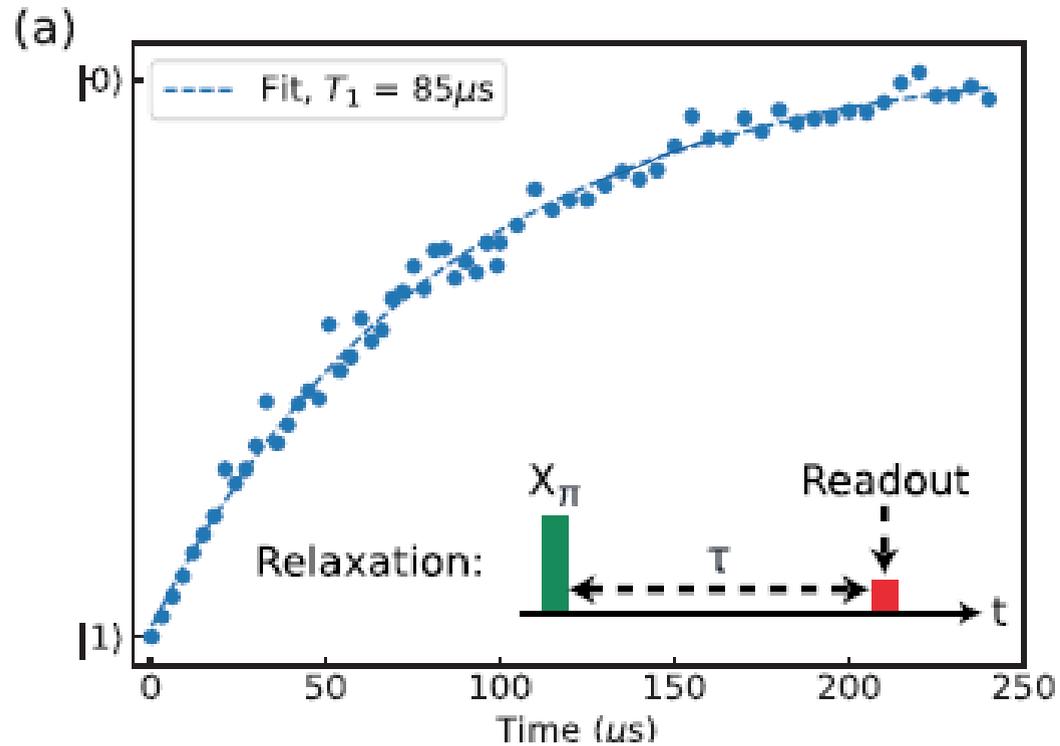
- Energy decay or energy relaxation into ground state $|0\rangle$ (or steady state if environment is at non-zero temperature)
- Caused by transverse noise along x or y axis: off-diagonal terms in interaction Hamiltonian (noise) drives transitions between $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$
- Energy exchange with an environment with both “up transition rate” $\Gamma_{1\uparrow}$ and “down transition rate” $\Gamma_{1\downarrow}$ (correspond to induced emission and absorption process):

$$\Gamma_1 \equiv \frac{1}{T_1} = \Gamma_{1\uparrow} + \Gamma_{1\downarrow}$$

$$\rho_{BR} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\Gamma_2 t} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

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

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]



- Detailed balance: $\Gamma_{1\uparrow} = e^{-\hbar\omega_{01}/k_B T} \Gamma_{1\downarrow}$

- Equilibrium qubit polarization

$$p = \frac{n_0 - n_1}{n_0 + n_1} = \tanh \frac{\hbar\omega_{01}}{2k_B T}$$

(at 20mK: $\Gamma_{1\uparrow}$ exponentially suppressed)

- Caused by noise **at the qubit frequency:**

$$\Gamma_{\downarrow/\uparrow} = S_{\omega}(\pm\omega_{01})$$

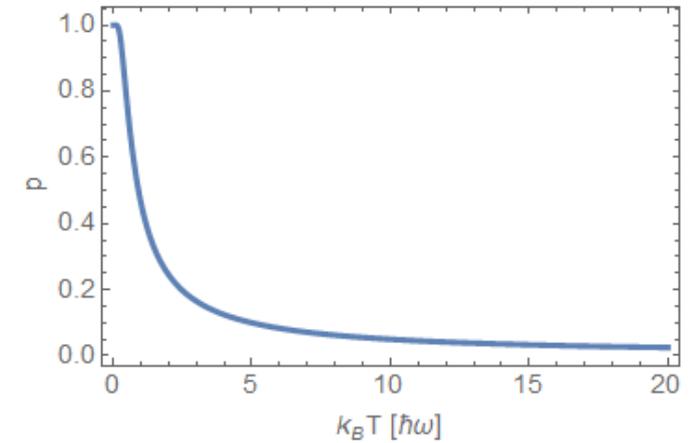
S_{ω} ... noise power spectral density ('how much power at a specific frequency per Hz')

→ typically white noise with short correlation length

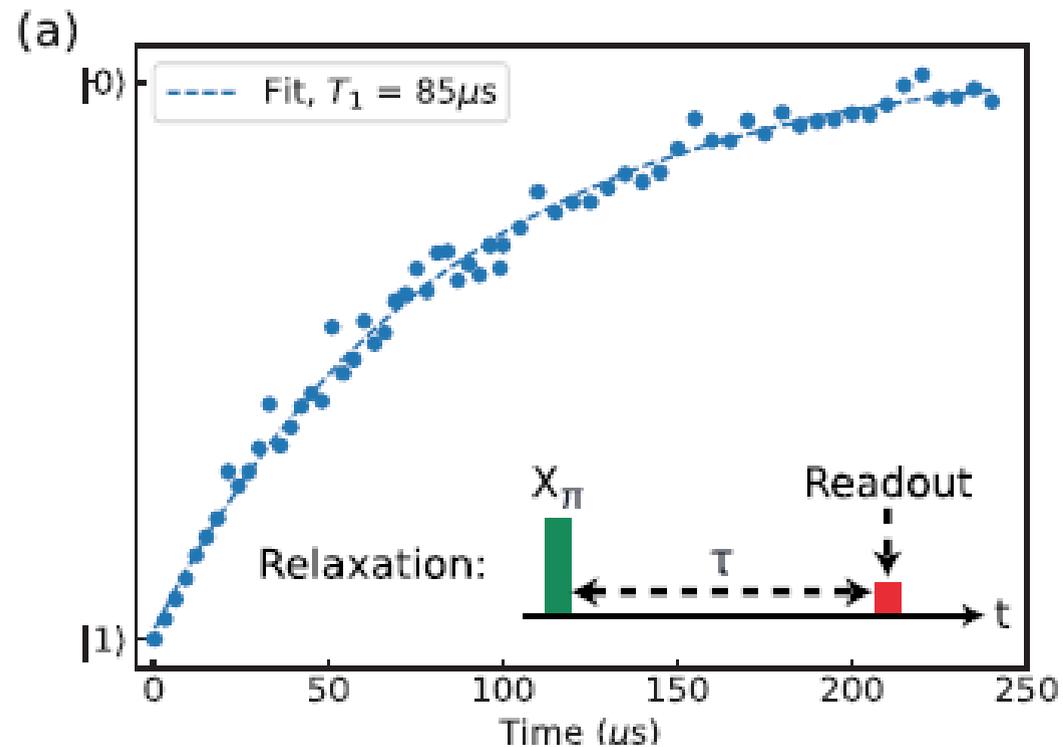
+ 1/f noise contribution at low frequencies

$$\rho_{BR} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\Gamma_2 t} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

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



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]



Protocol:

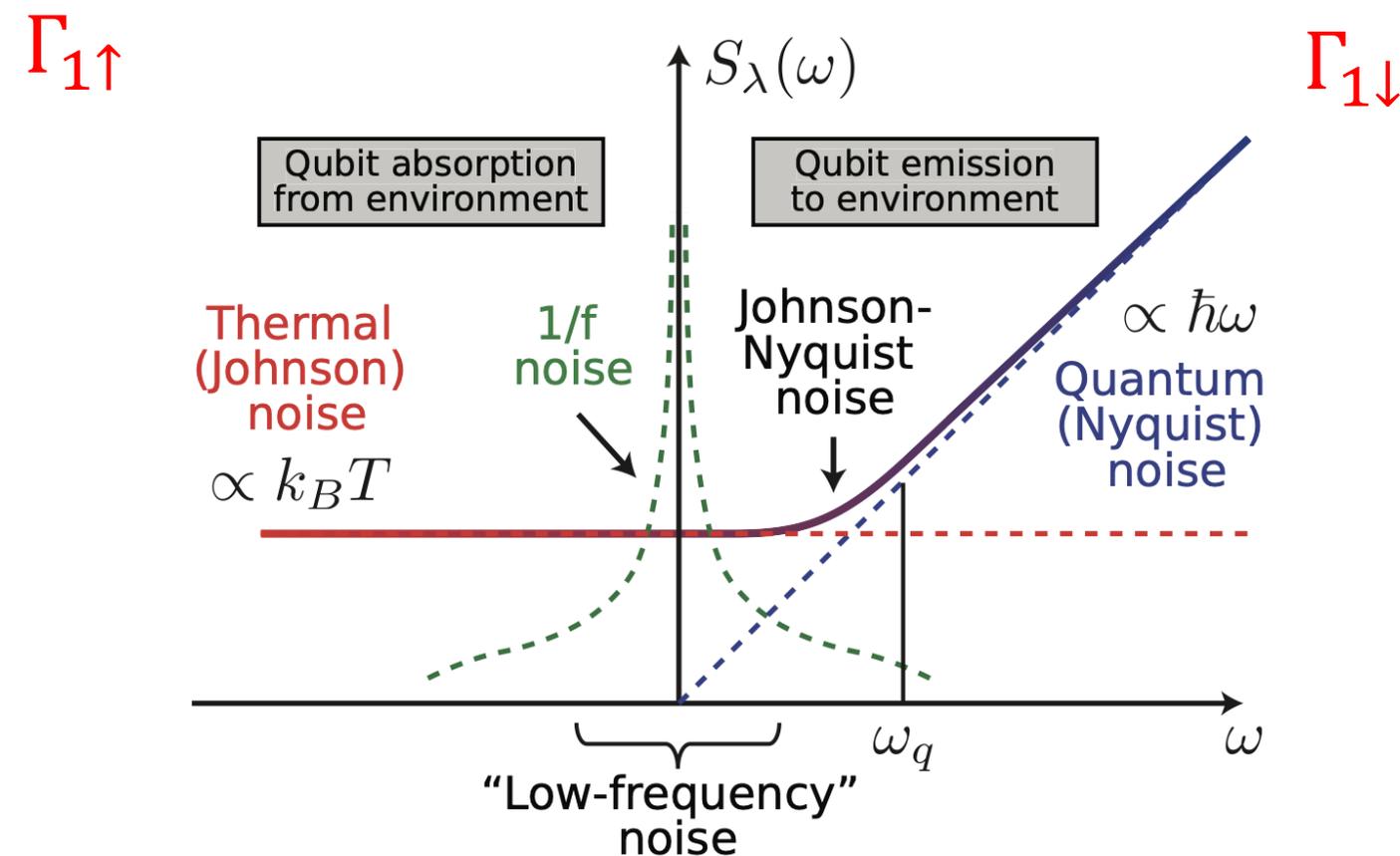
- Apply a π -pulse to populate the excited state.
- Wait for a varying time τ .
- Readout the residual population in the excited state as a function of τ .
- Repeat the experiment to improve the signal-to-noise (SNR) ratio.
- Fit to an exponential decay $f(\tau) = 1 - e^{-\Gamma_1\tau}$.

Noise power spectral density

In general: asymmetric power spectral density, quantum noise (see Clerk *et al.*, *Rev. Mod Phys* **82** (2010))

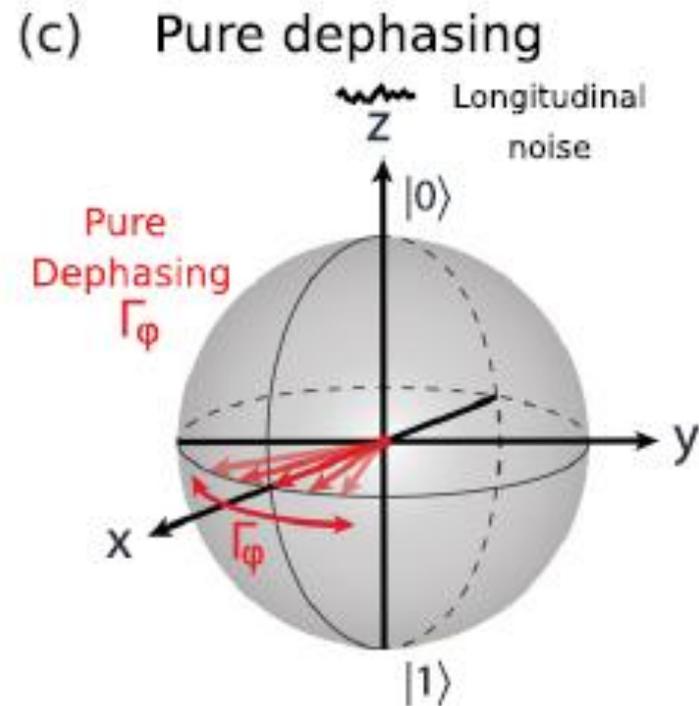
→ negative frequencies: qubit excitation $\Gamma_{1\uparrow}$ (\cong induced absorption)

→ positive frequencies: qubit relaxation $\Gamma_{1\downarrow}$ (\cong induced/spontaneous emission)



[Krantz *et al.* *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]



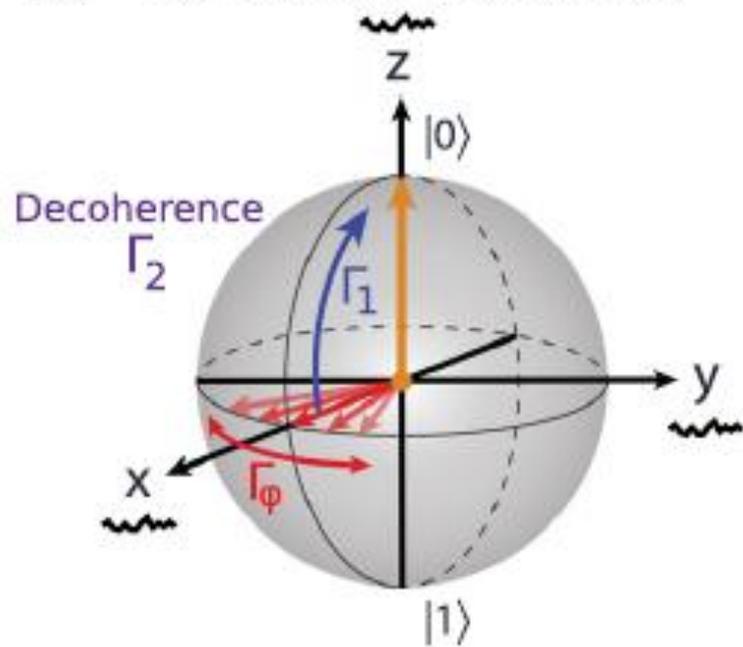
- $\Gamma_\phi = \frac{1}{T_\phi}$ caused by 'longitudinal noise' (along z axis)
- Fluctuating qubit frequency
- Not a resonant phenomenon, noise at any frequency can contribute (broadband noise)
- No energy exchange with environment (in principle reversible, e.g., by dynamical decoupling)

$$\rho_{BR} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\Gamma_2 t} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & 0 \\ 0 & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

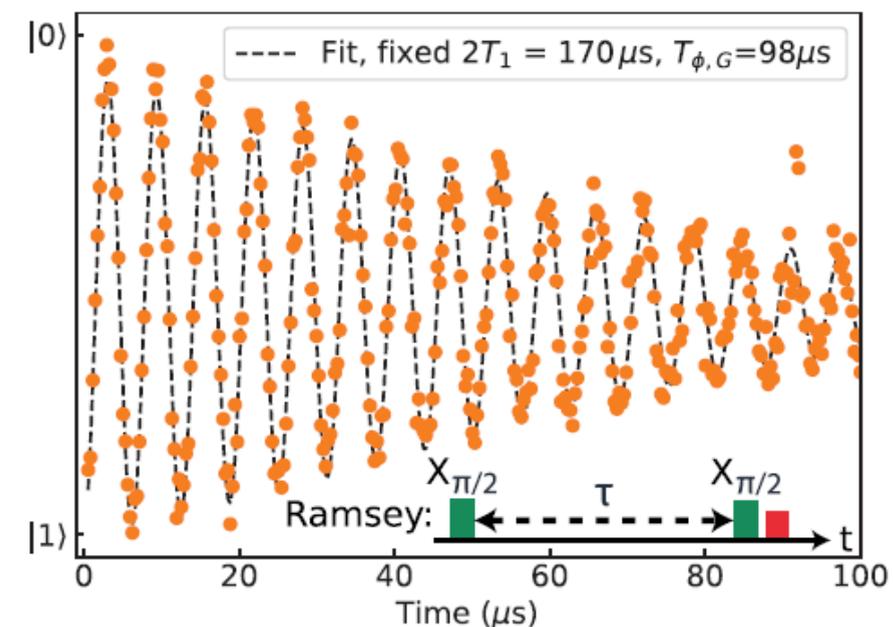
(d) Transverse relaxation



$$\rho_{BR} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\Gamma_2 t} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & 0 \\ 0 & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Describes loss of coherence, off-diagonal terms of ρ vanish
- Caused in part by longitudinal pure dephasing, and by transverse noise causing energy relaxation (because with relaxation to ground state comes loss of phase information)
- $\Gamma_2 = \frac{\Gamma_1}{2} + \Gamma_\phi$ (or $\frac{1}{T_2} = \frac{1}{2T_1} + \frac{1}{T_\phi}$)
- T_2^* measured by Ramsey experiment (*' → inhomogeneous broadening plays a role, i.e., quasistatic low-frequency fluctuations)

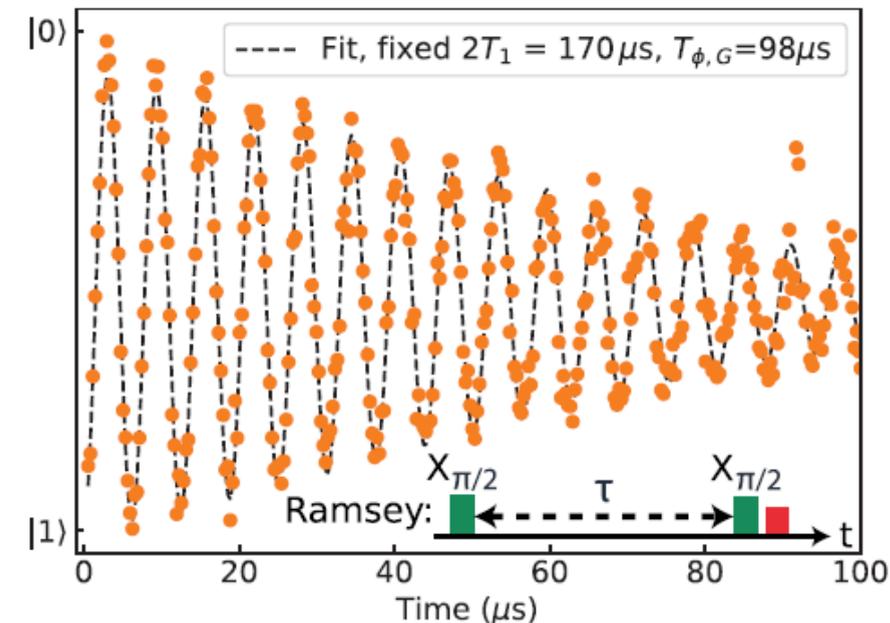
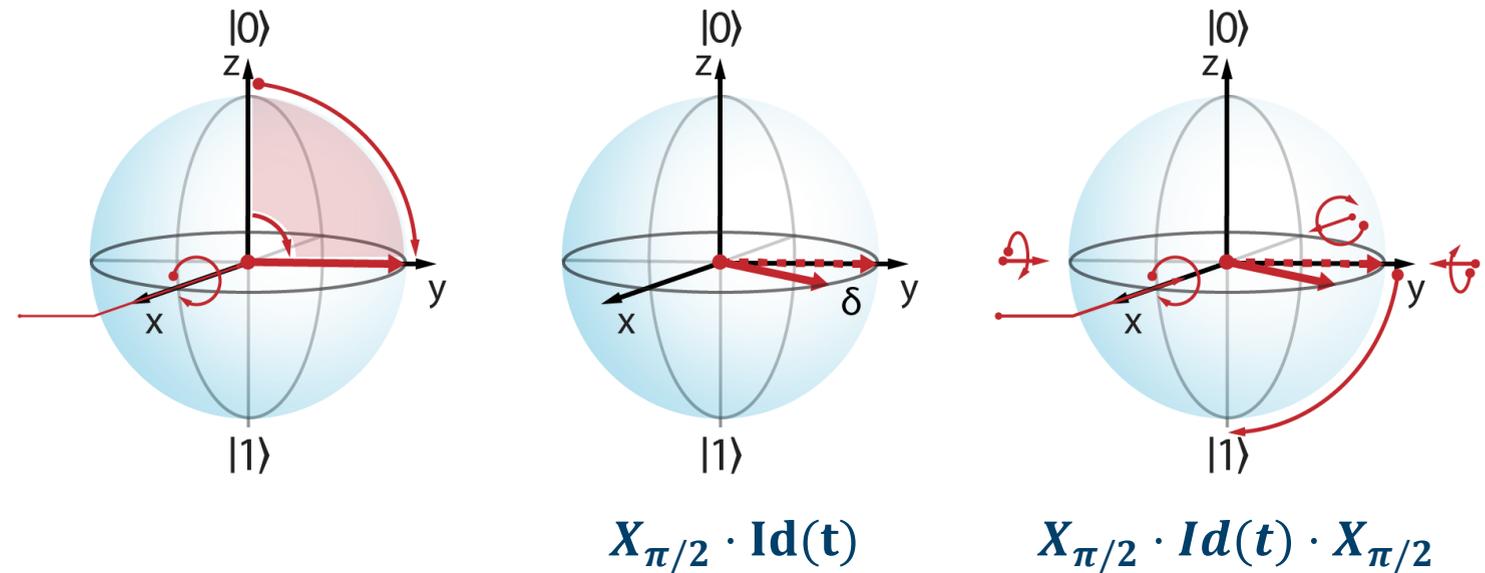


Ramsey-type measurement

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

Protocol:

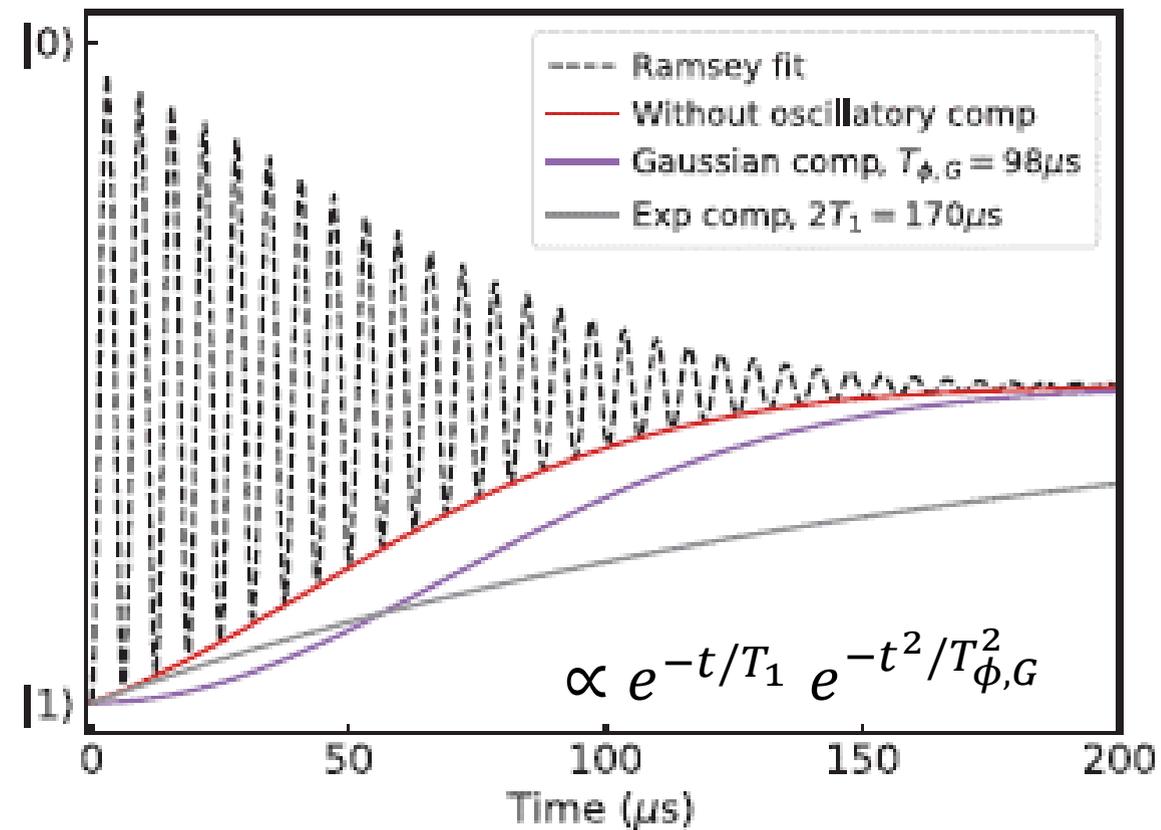
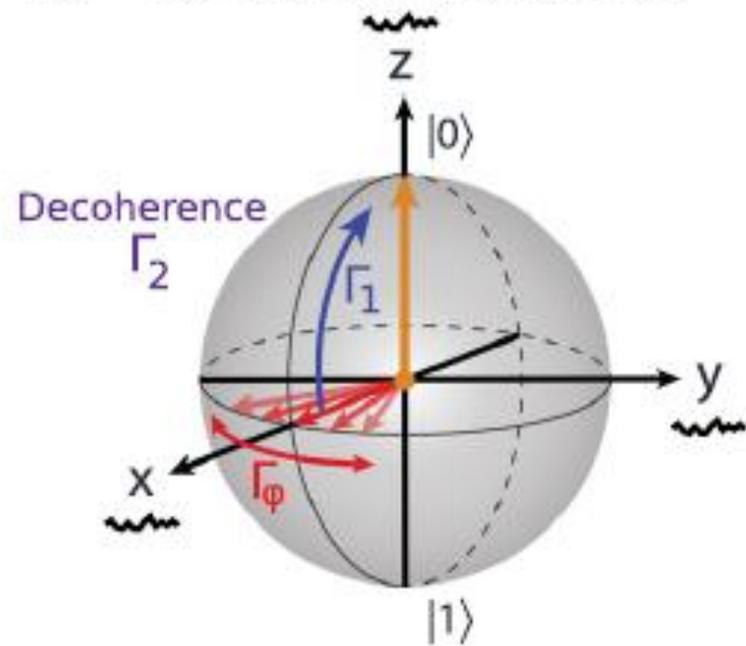
- Apply a $\frac{\pi}{2}$ -pulse about axis in equatorial plane (defines x-axis)
- Wait for a duration τ (=precession time) (apply identity gate $Id(t)$)
- Apply a second $\frac{\pi}{2}$ -pulse
- Measure the population of the excited state.
- Repeat the experiment to improve SNR.
- Fit the decay curve to an appropriate fit function, e.g., exponential. (Warning: Here it becomes tricky because of the frequency spectrum of the noise.)



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

- Ramsey experiment may exhibit **non-exponential decay**
- Signature of **slow 1/f noise, or inhomogeneous broadening** (of ensembles) (i.e., either temporal or spatial fluctuations)
- Flux-noise, charge-noise, etc. exhibits typically 1/f-like power spectrum (long-correlation time)
- → Simple exponential decay no longer valid

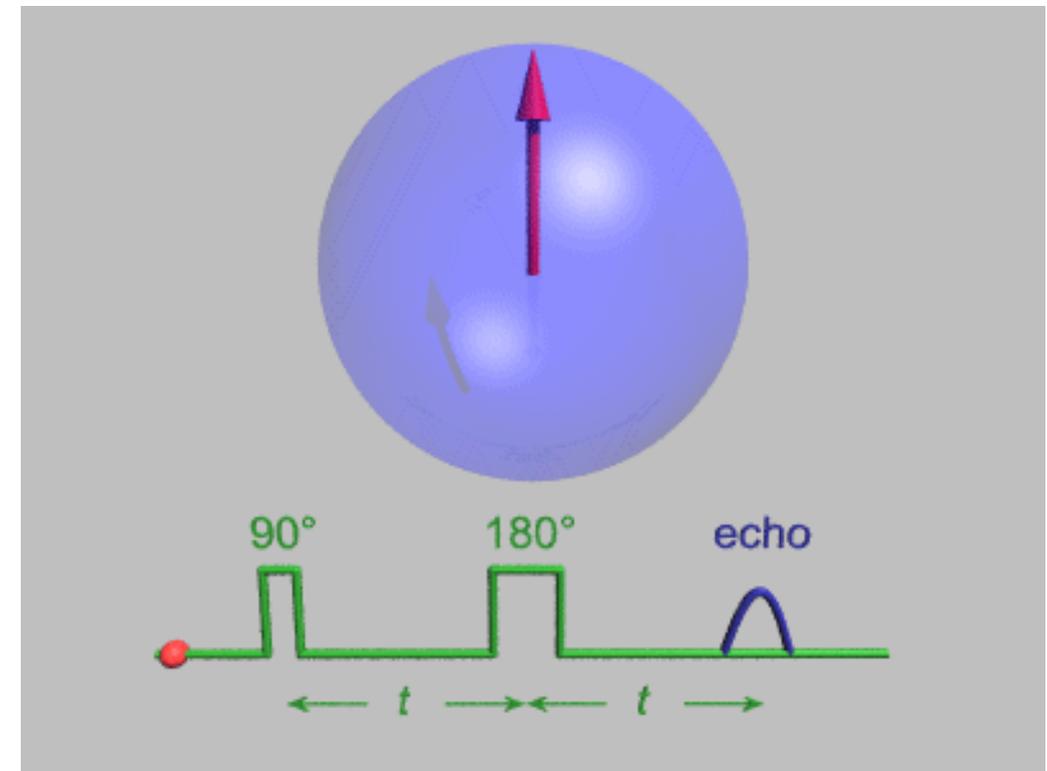
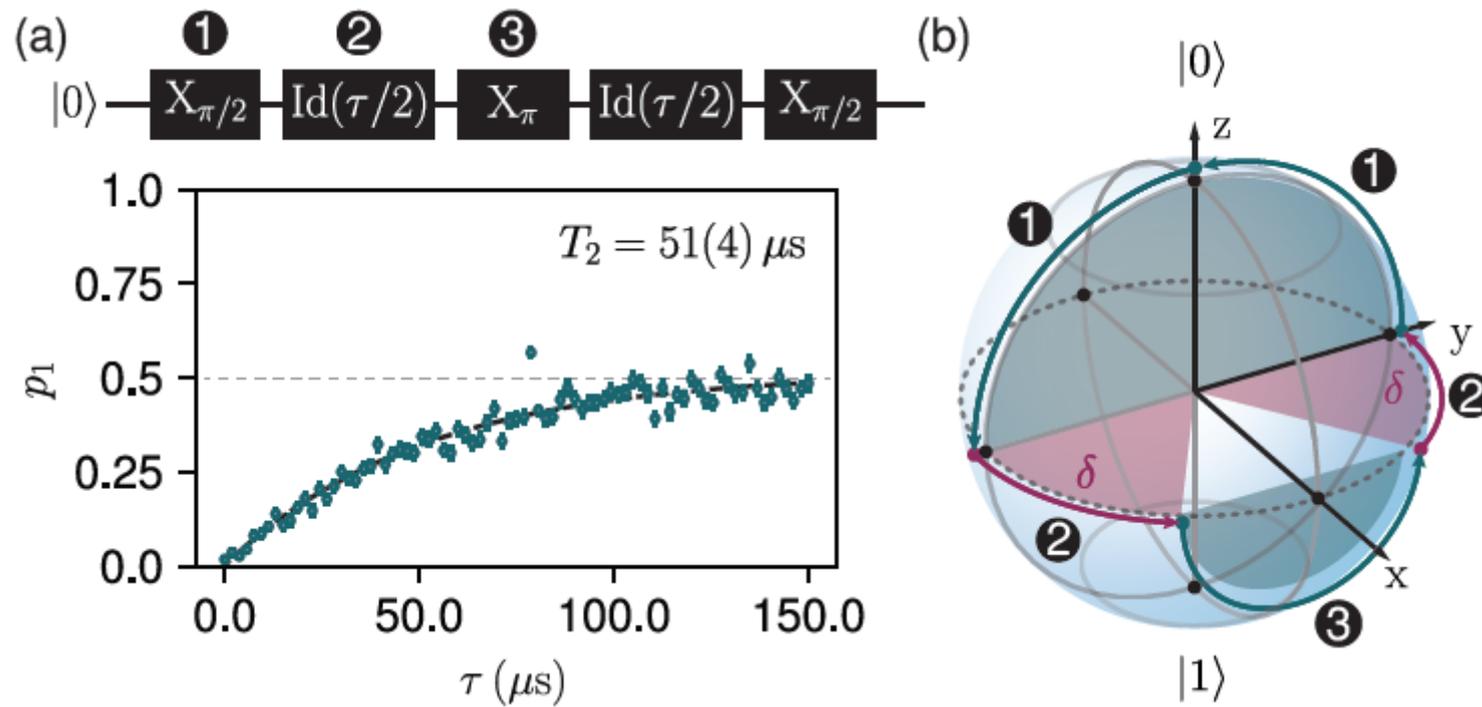
(d) Transverse relaxation



Hahn echo (Refocusing/Spin echo)

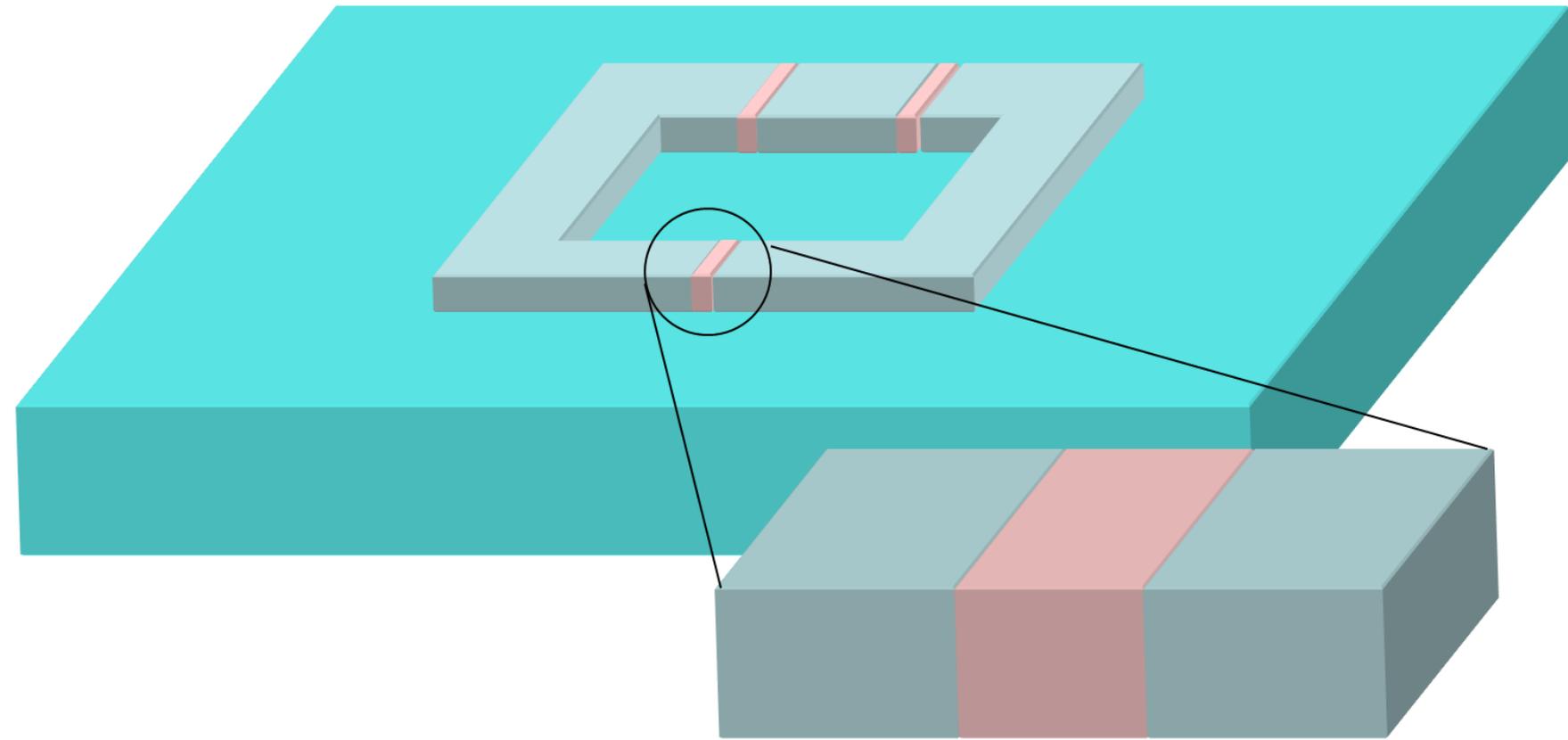
Refocusing scheme: add a π -pulse in the Ramsey sequence

→ undoes phase accumulation → eliminates slow noise

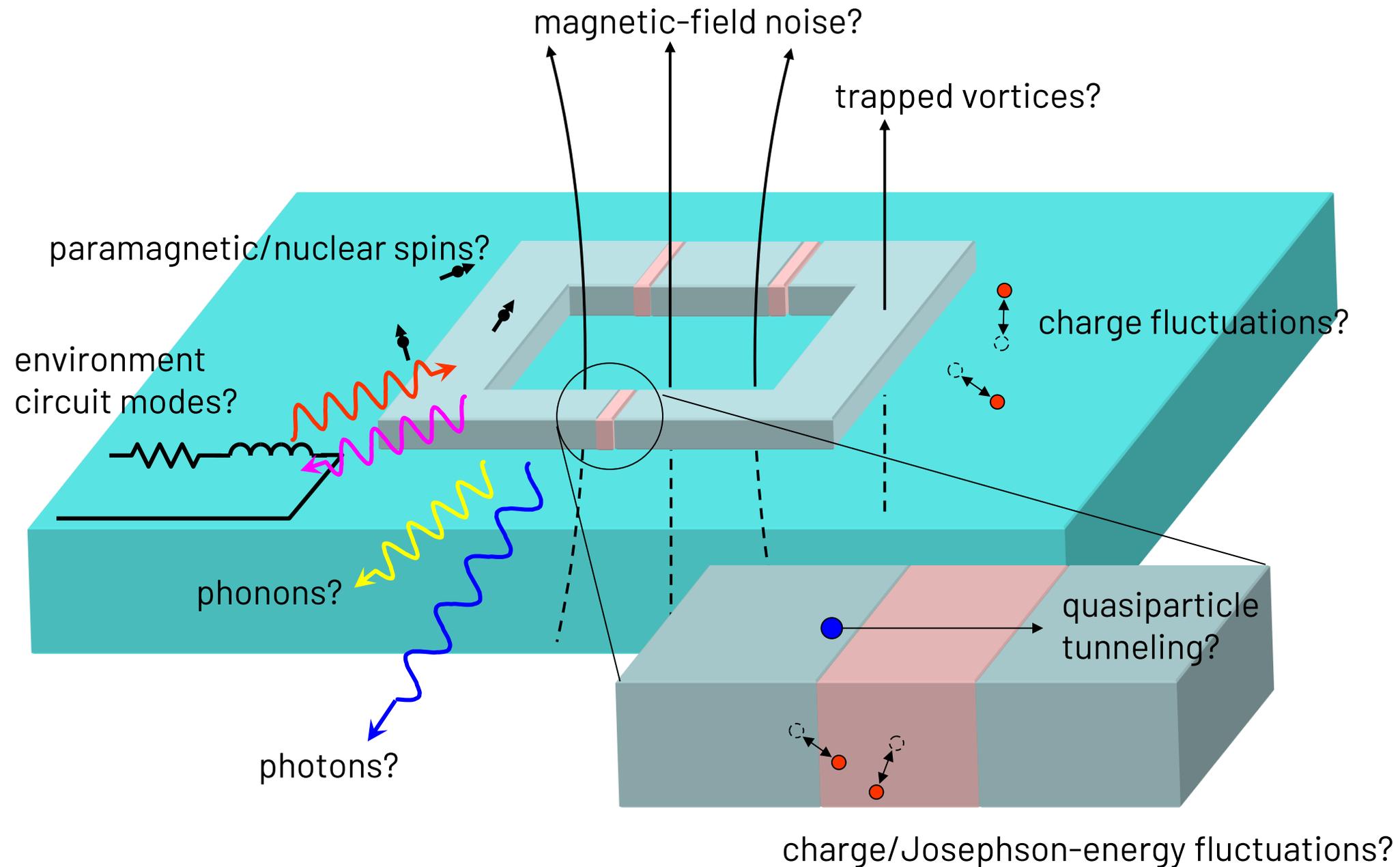


© Wikipedia <https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spin-Echo>

Which decoherence/dissipation mechanisms are present in a superconducting qubit?

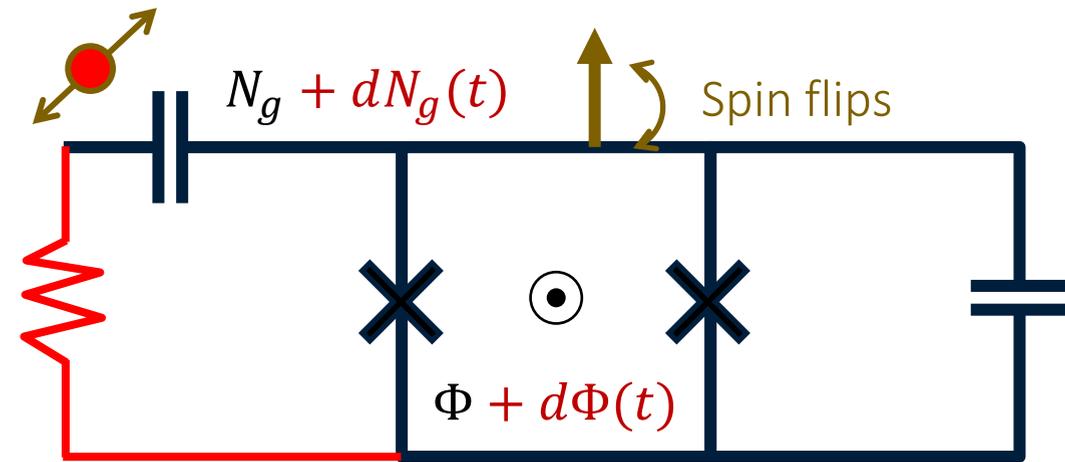


Decoherence and dissipation



[G. Ithier et al., *Phys. Rev. B* **72**, 134519 (2005)]

Noise in Hamiltonian parameters leads to decoherence



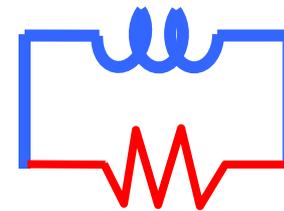
Origin of (stochastic) noise:

[c.f. J. Koch *et al.*, *PRA* (2007)]

1) **Electromagnetic (both T_1 & T_2):**

- Johnson-Nyquist due to thermal noise
- Spontaneous emission (quantum noise)

→ described by coupling to E.M. environment (electrical circuit)



2a) **Microscopic (low frequency): responsible for T_2**

- Charge noise → limitations on T_2
- Flux noise → limitations on T_2

2b) **Microscopic (high frequency): responsible for T_1**

- Imperfect dielectrics, microwave losses
- Magnetic vortices trapped in the superconducting thin films
- Unpaired electrons (quasiparticles) in the superconductor

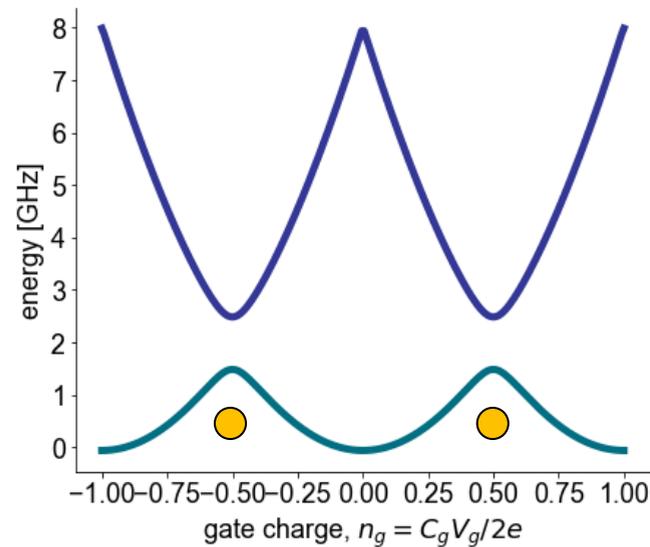
Noise mitigation strategy:

1. Avoid noise
2. Lower qubit susceptibility to noise (in qubit design, or by reducing coupling)
3. Use control pulses that are less sensitive to noise

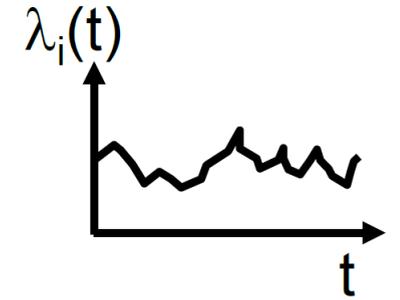
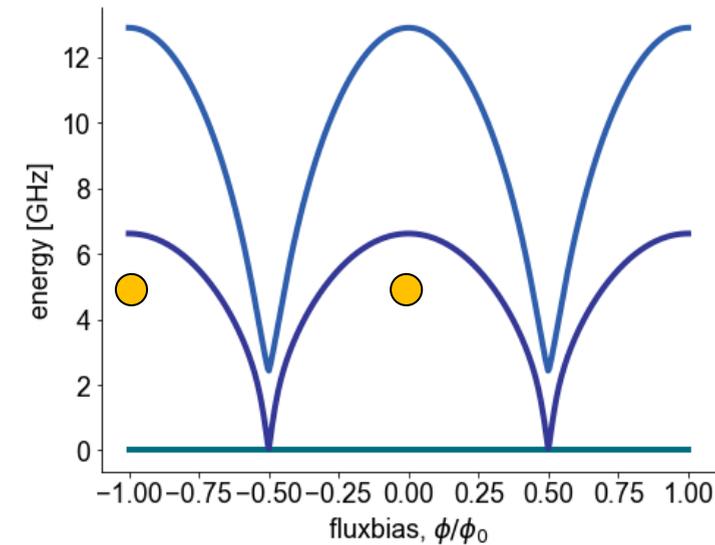
Solutions:

1. Find a point in parameter space with reduced sensitivity to noise:
→ charge (& flux) sweet spot for CPB (only 2nd order sensitive to fluctuations)

Optimal charge bias point at $n_g = \frac{1}{2}$



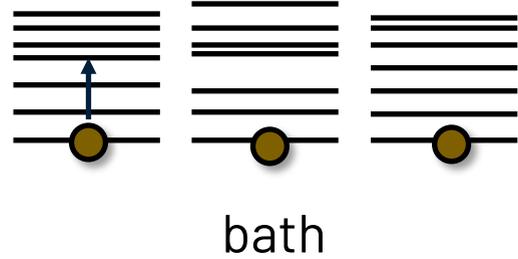
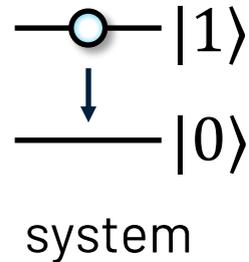
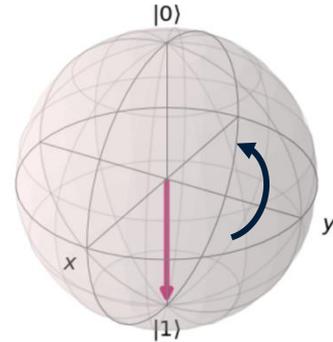
Optimal flux bias point at $\frac{\phi}{\phi_0} = 0$



2. Design qubits to lower sensitivity to noise
→ Transmon qubit with large E_J/E_C (optimized CPB)
→ Fluxonium,...
3. Identify noise sources and avoid them (more difficult)
4. Use pulse shapes that are insensitive to errors

Relaxation / Dissipation:

$$\hat{H}_q = -\frac{1}{2} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \left(\vec{H}_0(\lambda_0) + \frac{\partial \vec{H}_0}{\partial \lambda} \delta\lambda + \dots \right)$$

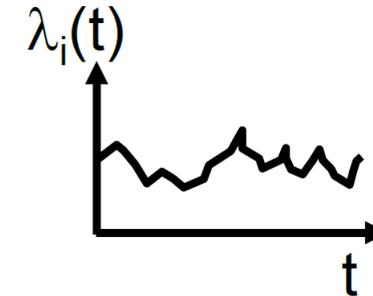
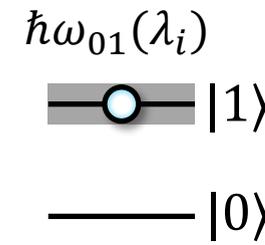


$$D_{\lambda,\perp} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \langle 0 | \frac{\partial H}{\partial \lambda} | 1 \rangle \dots \text{transition matrix element}$$

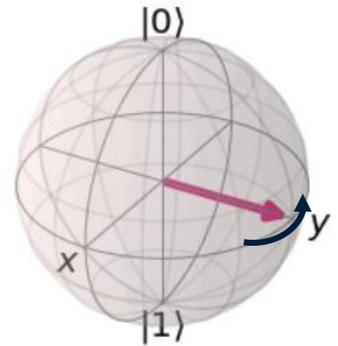
$$T_1^{-1} = \Gamma_1 = \frac{\pi}{2} D_{\lambda,\perp}^2 S_\lambda(\omega_{01}) \rightarrow \text{Fermi's Golden Rule}$$

environmental (bath) density of modes at qubit frequency

Pure dephasing:



$$\alpha |0\rangle + \beta e^{i\phi(t)} |1\rangle$$



$$f(\phi) \equiv \langle e^{i\phi(t)} \rangle \approx e^{-\Gamma_2 t} \dots \text{decay function}$$

$$T_2^{-1} = \Gamma_2 = \frac{\Gamma_1}{2} + \Gamma_\phi$$

$$\Gamma_\phi = \pi D_{\lambda,\parallel}^2 S_\lambda(0)$$

$$D_{\lambda,\parallel}^2 = \frac{\partial \omega_{01}}{\partial \lambda}$$

Low frequency noise

[G. Ithier et al., Phys. Rev. B **72**, 134519 (2005)]

[Girvin, Les Houches Lecture Notes; Ithier *PRB* **72** (2005)]

General description of noise coupling to a quantum system ($\eta_j = \delta\lambda_j$):

$$H(\vec{\lambda}) = H(\bar{\lambda}) + \sum_{j=1}^n \left. \frac{\partial H}{\partial \lambda_j} \right|_{\bar{\lambda}} \eta_j + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j,k=1}^n \left. \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial \lambda_j \partial \lambda_k} \right|_{\bar{\lambda}} \eta_j \eta_k + \dots$$

Single qubit case

(simplest situation; with higher levels and coupling to other modes/qubits it can become complex):

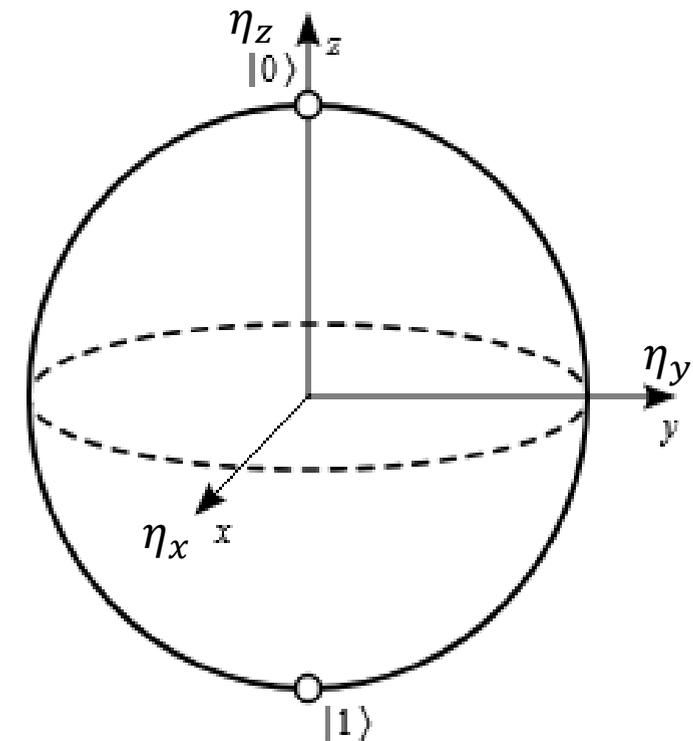
$$H(\vec{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_x \\ \lambda_y \\ \omega_{01} + \lambda_z \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_x \\ \sigma_y \\ \sigma_z \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\underbrace{\omega_{01}}_{H(\bar{\lambda})} \sigma_z + \eta_x \sigma_x + \eta_y \sigma_y + \eta_z \sigma_z \right)$$

with $\left. \frac{\partial H(\vec{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda_x} \right|_{\bar{\lambda}_x} \delta\lambda_x = \eta_x \sigma_x$, $\eta_y \sigma_y = \dots$ and $\bar{\lambda}_{x,y,z} = 0$

T_1 -Relaxation: Interaction Hamiltonian $\hat{H}_{int} = \left. \frac{\partial H(\vec{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda_x} \right|_{\bar{\lambda}_x} \delta\lambda_x = \sigma_x \eta_x$

relation to $S(\omega)$: via Fermi golden rule $\Gamma_1 \propto \underbrace{\frac{1}{\hbar^2} |\langle 0 | \sigma_x | 1 \rangle|^2}_{(D_{\lambda,\perp})^2} S_\lambda(\omega_{01})$

→ noise power spectral density at qubit frequency is relevant!



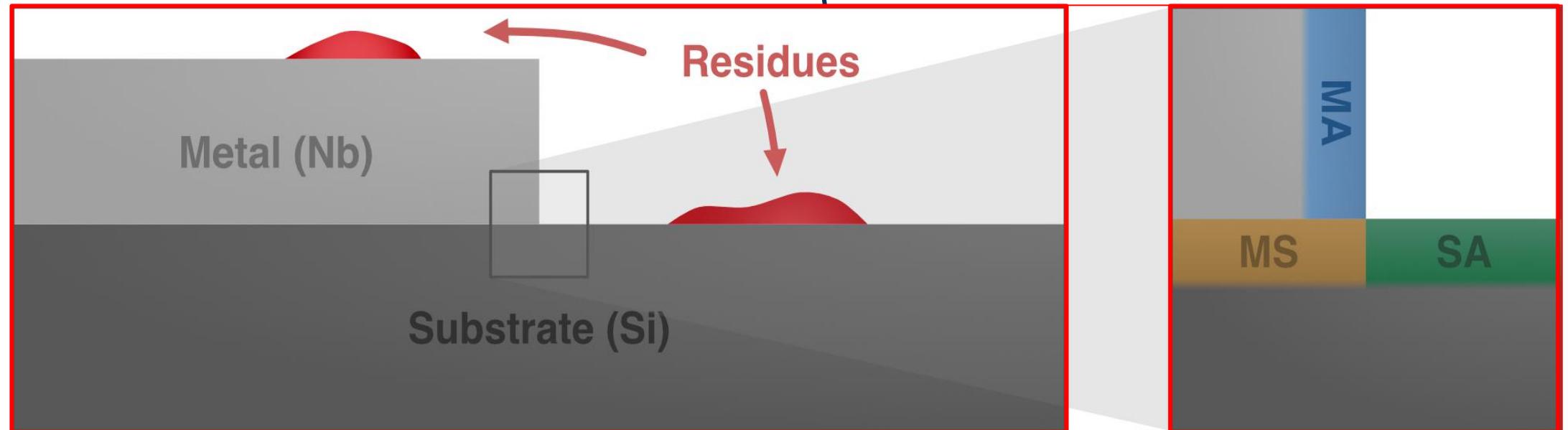
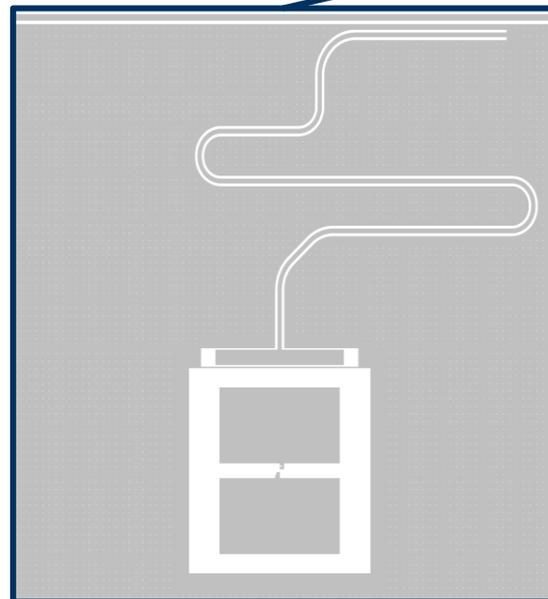
Fermi's Golden Rule

Which part of the decay rate $\Gamma_1 \propto |\langle \Psi_0 | H_c | \Psi_1 \rangle|^2 S(\omega_{01})$ can mainly be influenced by fabrication processes?

- a) The transition matrix element $|\langle \Psi_0 | H_c | \Psi_1 \rangle|^2$
- b) The density of states of the environment $\rho_{env}(\omega_{01})$
- c) Both.

- Fermi's golden rule describes the decay rate from an excited state Ψ_1 to ground state Ψ_0

$$\Gamma_1 \propto |\langle \Psi_0 | H_c | \Psi_1 \rangle|^2 S_{env}(\omega_{01})$$



- Transition matrix element from perturbation (environment, TLSs, flux noise,...), can be modified in design
- density of states of the environment (TLSs,...) at transition frequency; one of the main challenges in fabrication

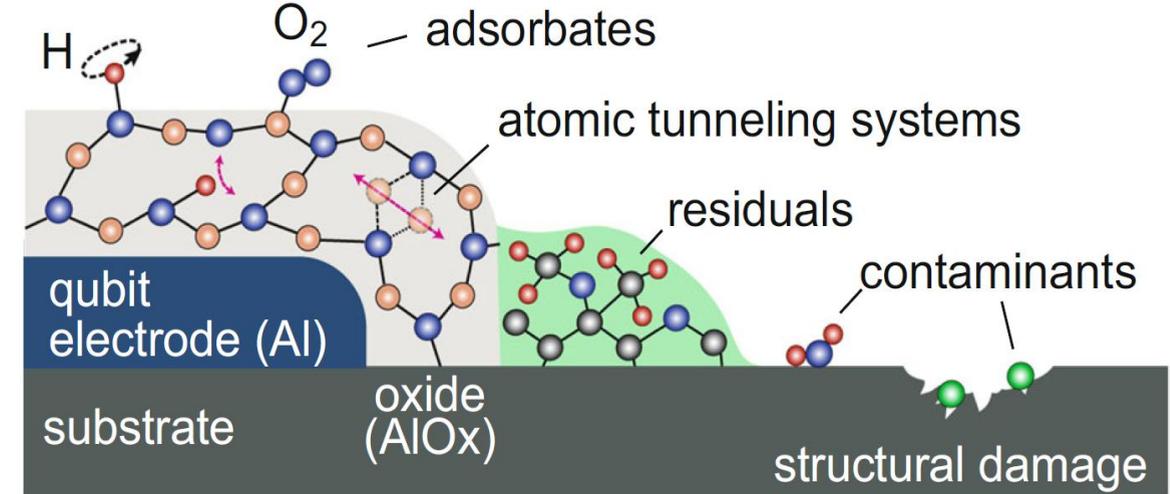
Contributions to surface losses

Goal: minimize surface losses from dielectric TLS by proper design

Task: Calculate the influence of losses in interface layers, minimize effect on quality factor

$$Q = \frac{\omega}{\Gamma} = \omega T_1$$

$$Q = \left(\frac{1}{Q_{ext}} + \frac{1}{Q_{qp}} + \frac{1}{Q_{bulk}} + \frac{1}{Q_{surface}} + \frac{1}{Q_{etc}} + \dots \right)^{-1} = \left(\frac{1}{Q_{ext}} + \frac{1}{Q_{int}} \right)^{-1}$$



J. Lisenfield *et al.*, *npj Quantum Inf* **5**, 105 (2019)

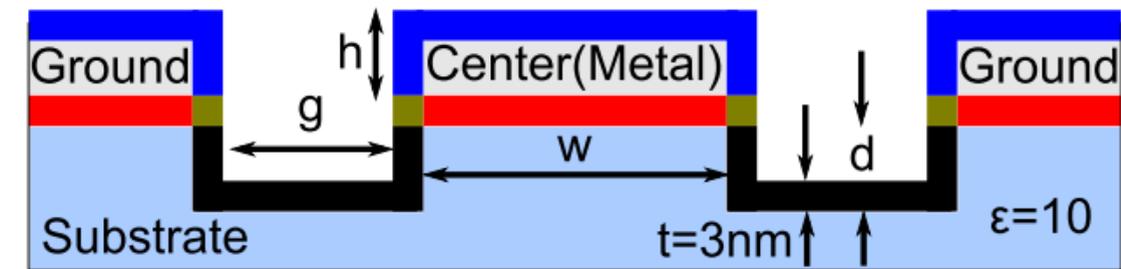
Quality factor $Q_{surface}$: qualitatively described by loss tangent

$$\tan \delta = \frac{1}{Q_{surface}}$$

Contribution of different interfaces:

$$\tan \delta = \sum_i p_i \tan(\delta_i)$$

$\tan(\delta_i)$... loss tangent of material i ; p_i ...participation ratio



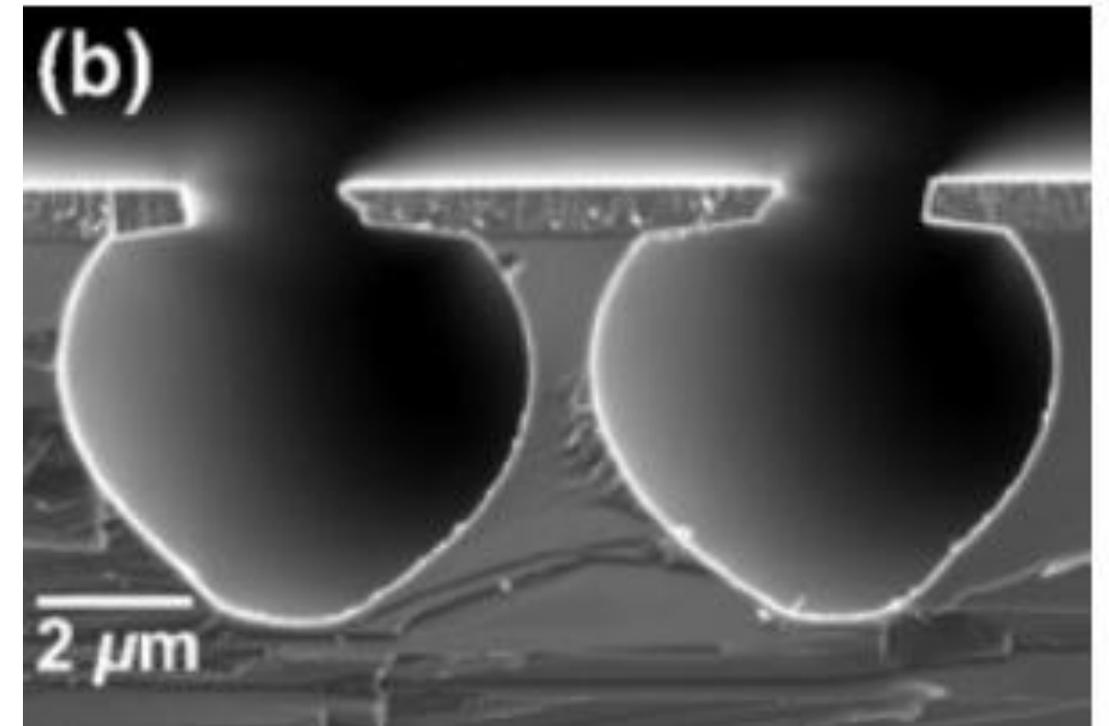
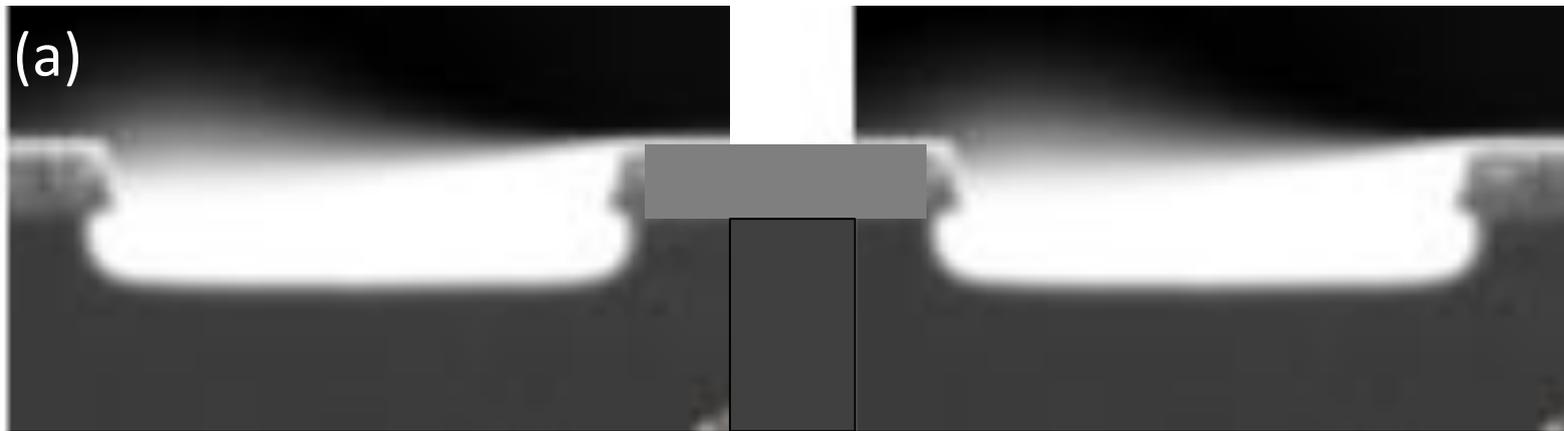
[Martinis, 1107.4698]

Three main categories: **Substrate-Air**, **Metal-Air** and **Metal-Substrate** interfaces (**SA**, **MA**, **MS**)

Interface layer t : few nanometers thick
[P. Altoé *et al.*, *PRX Quantum* **3** (2022)]

Participation ratios - Example

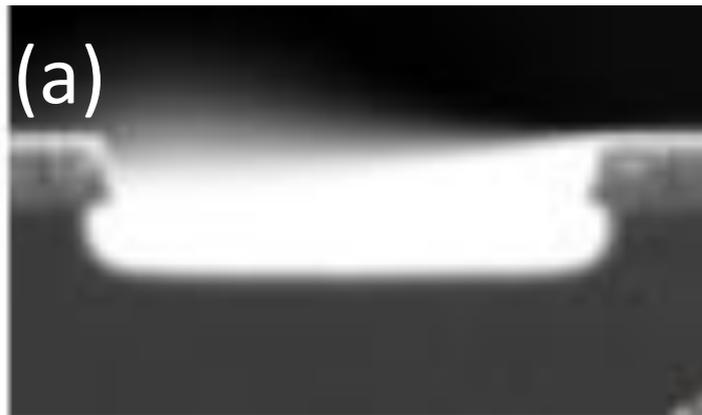
Which geometry has a higher metal-substrate participation ratio (MS)?



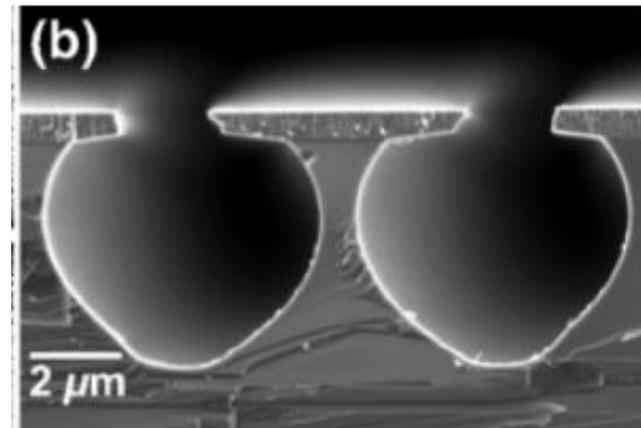
Participation ratios - Example

Example from MIT – Lincoln Labs [Woods *et al.*, *Phys Rev Applied* **12** (2019)]

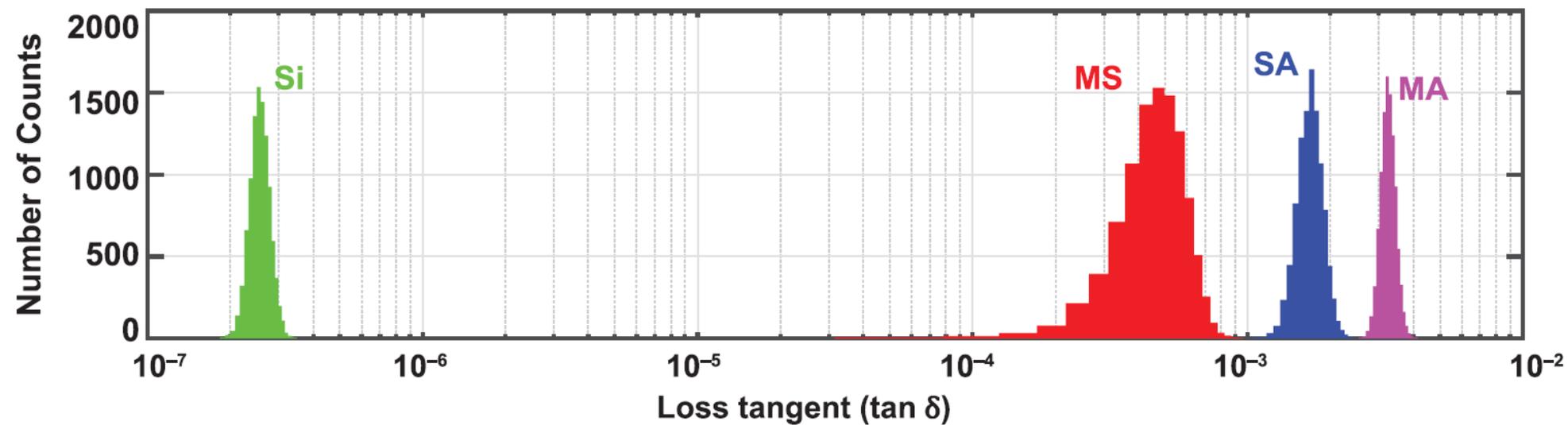
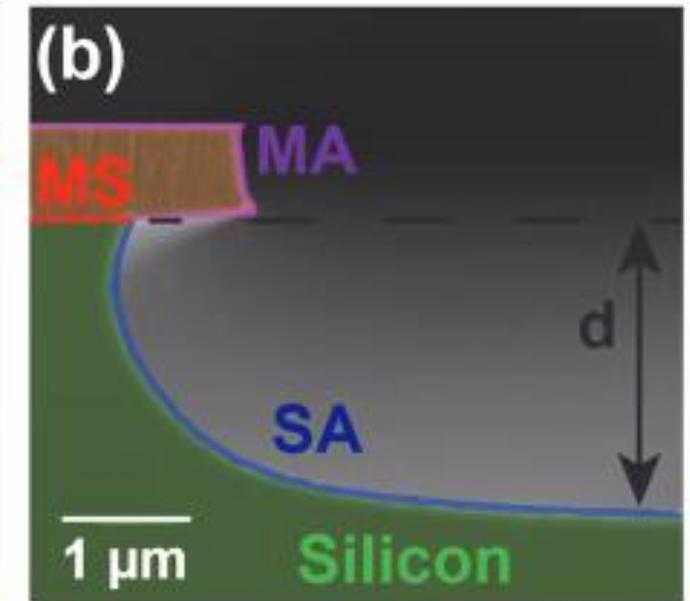
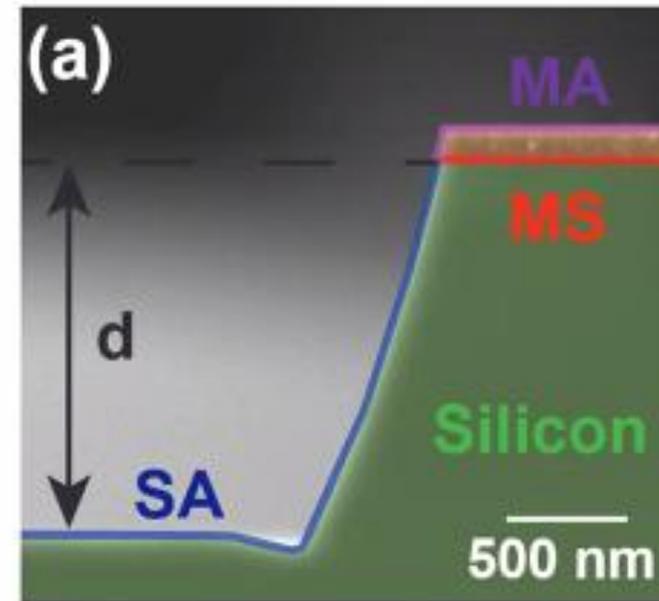
TiN Resonator on Si substrate



MS-heavy



SA-heavy

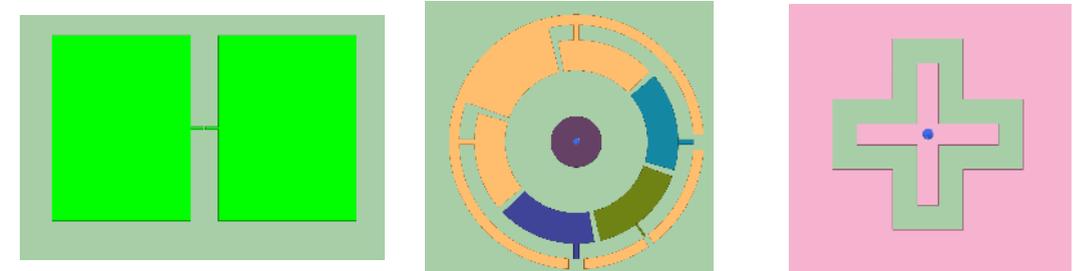


In general:

larger qubits have smaller participation ratios than smaller ones

→ easier to fabricate with high Q-factors

Different designs have different participation ratios:



→ **Think about your qubit design!**

	PP-Transmon	Coaxmon	X-mon
p_{MS}	$3.51 * 10^{-5}$	$2 * 10^{-4}$	$1.38 * 10^{-4}$
p_{SA}	$3.77 * 10^{-5}$	$1.04 * 10^{-4}$	$1.76 * 10^{-4}$

Qubit T_ϕ – longitudinal environmental interaction

Interaction Hamiltonian: $\hat{H}_{int} = \frac{\partial H(\vec{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda_z} |_{\vec{\lambda}} \delta \lambda_z = \sigma_z \eta_z(t)$

consider relative phase of a superposition state $|0\rangle + e^{-i\delta\varphi(t)} |1\rangle$

$$\delta\varphi(t) = \int_0^t (\Omega + \eta_z(t')) dt' = \Omega t + \delta\Omega(t)$$

→ fluctuations of the transition frequency $\delta\Omega(t) = D_{\lambda_z} \int_0^t \delta\lambda_z(t') dt'$

→ longitudinal qubit's sensitivity $D_{\lambda_z} = \frac{\partial H(\vec{\lambda})}{\partial \lambda_z}$ to noise in λ_z

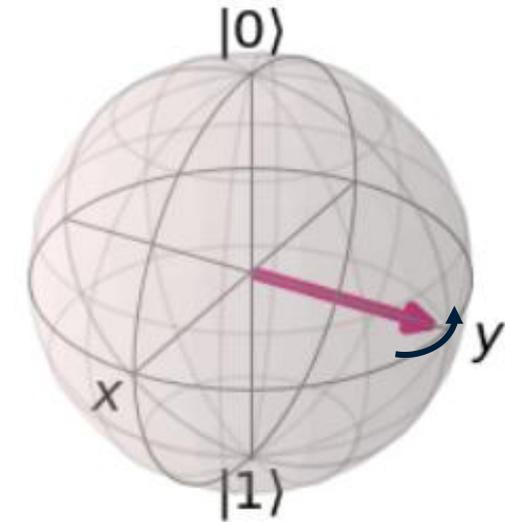
ensemble averaging over a Gaussian-distributed stochastic processes $\delta\lambda(t)$:

$$\langle e^{-i\delta\varphi(t)} \rangle = e^{-i\Omega t - \frac{1}{2} \langle \delta\varphi^2(t) \rangle} \equiv e^{-i\Omega t} e^{-\chi(t)}$$

coherence decay function $\chi(t) = -\frac{t^2}{2} D_{\lambda_z}^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\omega g(\omega) S_\lambda(\omega)$ with filter/weighting function $g(\omega)$

non-exponential decay → decay function $e^{-\chi_N(t)}$ with coherence function $\chi_N(t)$ generating pure dephasing

$$\rho(t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 + (|a|^2 - 1)e^{-\Gamma_1 t} & \alpha\beta^* e^{-\frac{\Gamma_1}{2}t} e^{-\chi_N(t)} \\ \alpha^*\beta e^{-\frac{\Gamma_1}{2}t} e^{-\chi_N(t)} & |\beta|^2 e^{-\Gamma_1 t} \end{pmatrix}$$

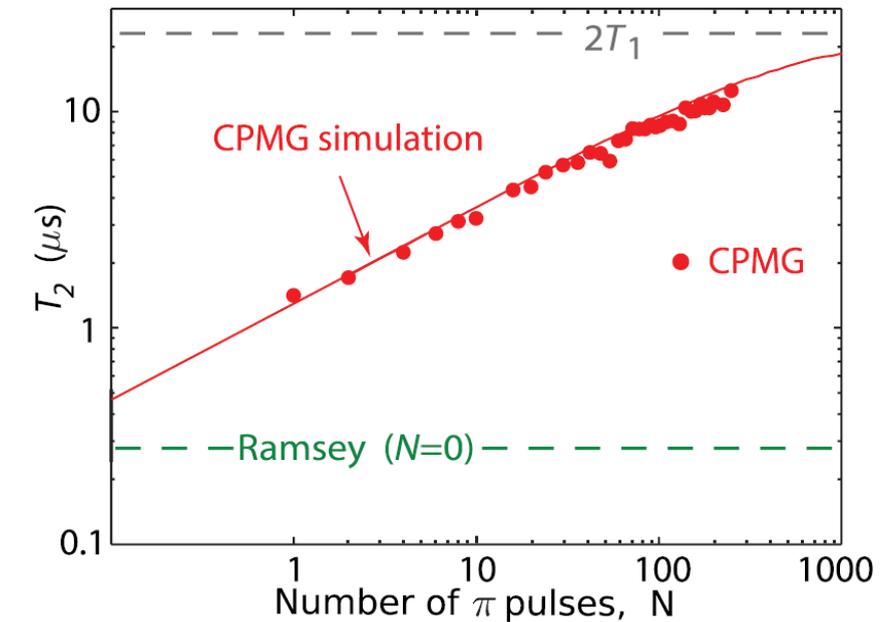
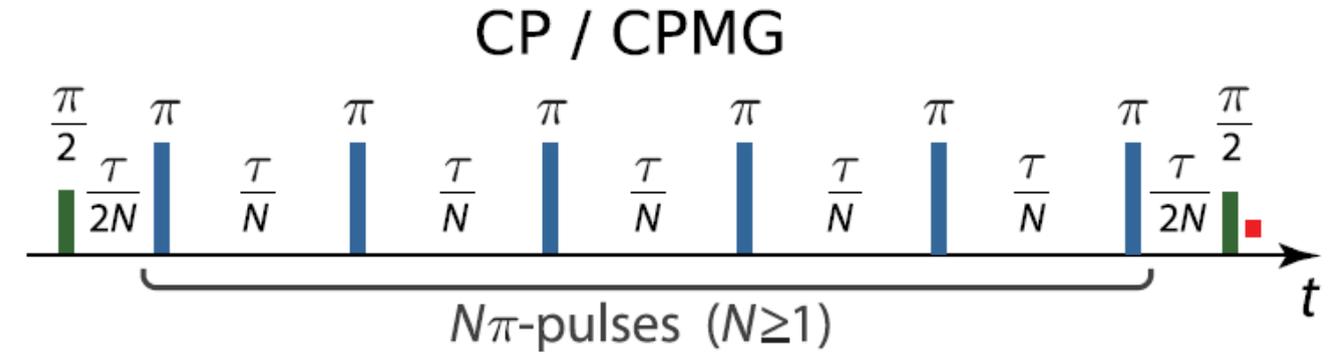
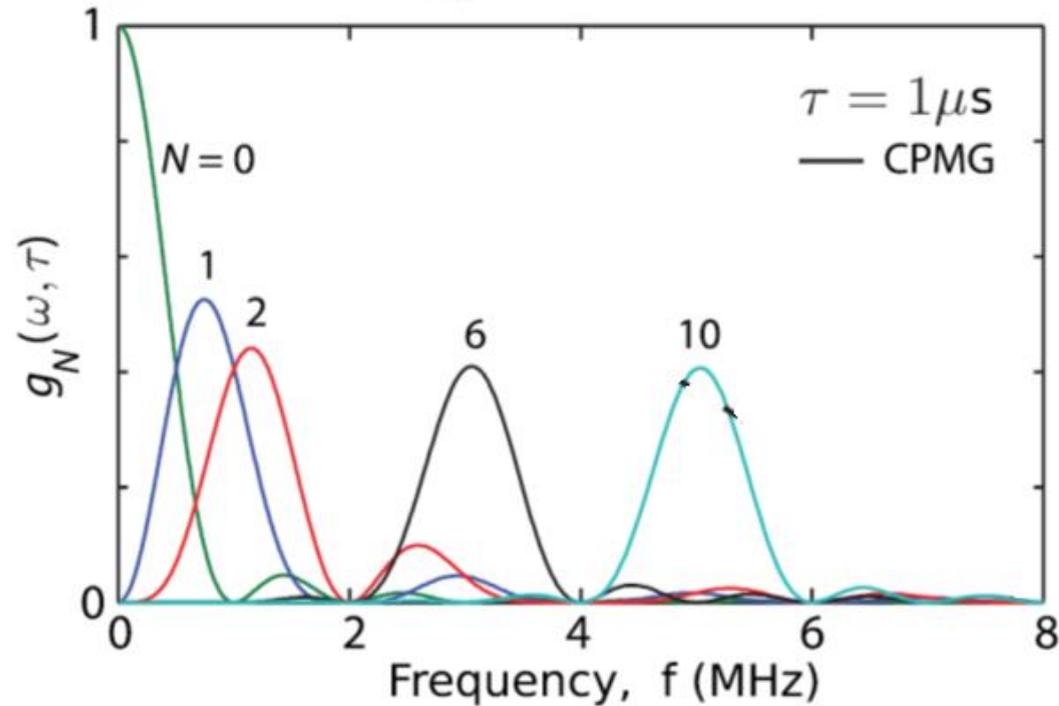


[e.g., J. Schrieffer, Y. Makhlin, A. Shnirman and G. Schön, *New J. Phys* **8** (2006)]

Which noise frequencies dominate in a Ramsey-type experiment

- a) at $\omega = 0$.
- b) at $\omega = \frac{1}{T}$ (T ... pulse delay)
- c) at $\omega = \infty$.
- d) at all frequencies

Filter function $g(\omega, t)$



$$g_0(\omega, \tau) = \text{sinc}^2 \frac{\omega\tau}{2}, g_1(\omega, \tau) = \sin^2 \frac{\omega\tau}{4} \text{sinc}^2 \frac{\omega\tau}{4}$$

$$\text{In general: } g_N(\omega, \tau) = \frac{1}{(\omega\tau)^2} \left| 1 + (-1)^{1+N} e^{i\omega\tau} + 2 \sum_{j=1}^N (-1)^j \exp(i\omega\delta_j\tau) \cos(\omega t_\pi/2) \right|^2$$

→ evaluate $\chi_N(t)$ at different t → calculate $S(\omega)$ (not trivial)

[Krantz *et al.*, *PR Applied* 2019; Cywinski *et al.*, *PRB* 2008; Bylander *et al.*, *Nat. Phys* 2011]

Why is the T_2 -echo time increasing with increasing number of pulses?

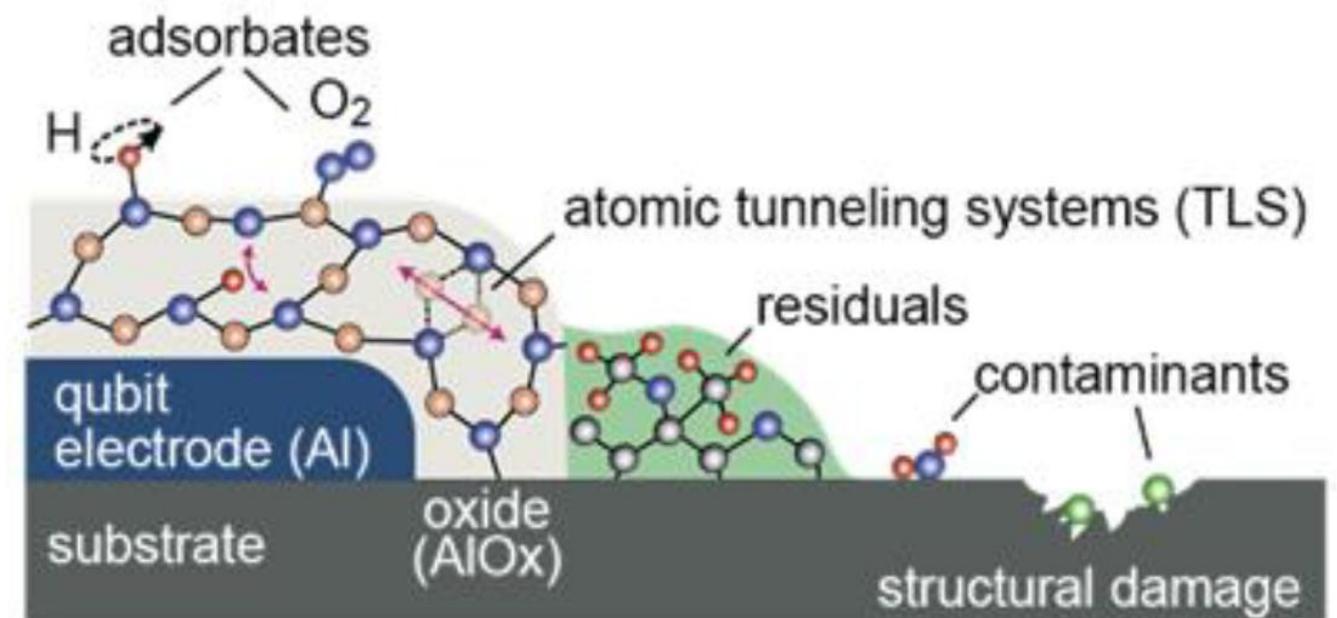
- (a) Because the noise spectral density is constant.
- (b) Because the noise spectral density decreases at higher frequencies.
- (c) I don't know.

- Ubiquitous in solid-state devices:
 - arises from charged fluctuators in defects, charge-traps
 - Interfaces, junction tunnel barrier, substrate
- E.g., electric field in transmon couples to dielectric defects (see discussion above)
- E-field is transverse to quantization axis
 - responsible for T_1 decay (for large E_J/E_C)
 - or T_2 as well for smaller E_J/E_C
- PSD: (1/f + Ohmic [Johnson-Nyqvist] noise)

at lower frequencies: $S_Q(\omega) = A_Q^2 \left(\frac{2\pi \times 1\text{Hz}}{\omega} \right)^{\gamma_Q}$

(with $A_Q^2 = (10^{-3}e)^2/\text{Hz}$ at 1 Hz and $\gamma_Q \approx 1$)

at higher frequencies ($> 1\text{GHz}$): $S_Q(\omega) = B_Q^2 \left(\frac{\omega}{2\pi \times 1\text{Hz}} \right)$
(linear)



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- Stochastic flipping of **spins at the surface** of superconducting metals → random fluctuations of the effective magnetic field bias

- E.g., split transmon with fluctuating

$$\omega_{01} = \sqrt{8E_J(\Phi)E_C} \text{ with } E_J(\Phi) = E_{J0} \left| \cos \frac{\Phi}{\Phi_0} \right|$$

→ Longitudinal noise $(\omega_{01} + \delta\omega)\sigma_z$

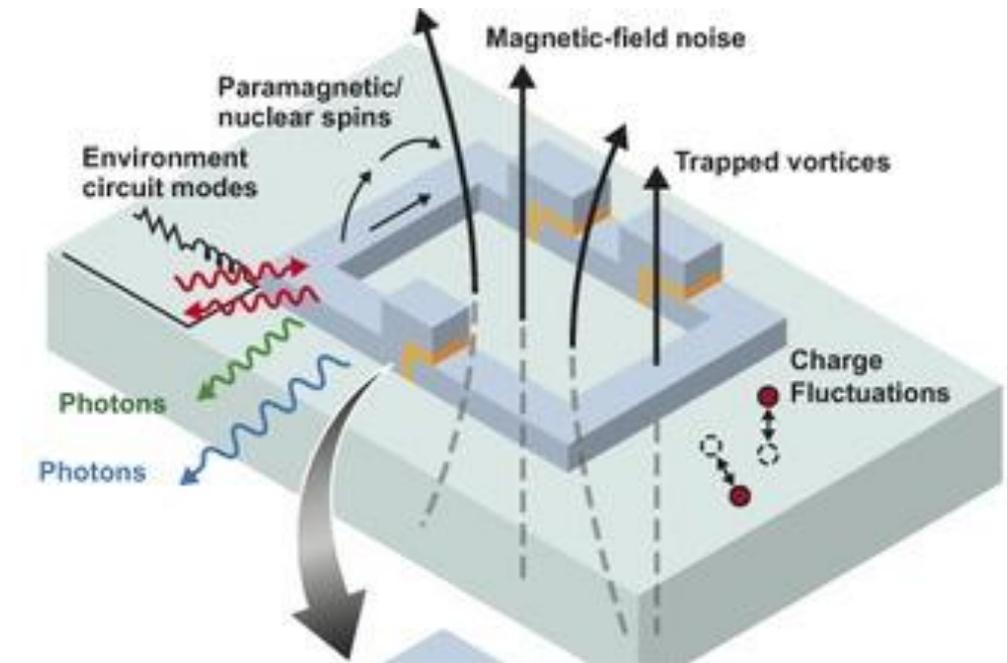
- In flux qubit either longitudinal or transversal

- *PSD*: “quasi-universal” $1/f$

$$S_Q(\omega) = A_\Phi^2 \left(\frac{2\pi \times 1\text{Hz}}{\omega} \right)^{\gamma_\Phi}$$

with $A_\Phi^2 = (10^{-6}\Phi_0)^2/\text{Hz}$ at 1 Hz and $\gamma_\Phi \approx 0.8$
over large frequency range (mHz to > GHz)

- Precise origin of flux noise unclear (and pending issue since decades)
- Potential sources: molecular oxygen or atomic hydrogen
[Kumar *et al.*, *PR Applied* (2016); de Graaf *et al.*, *PRL* 118 (2017)]



[Oliver and Welander, *MRS Bulletin* 2013]

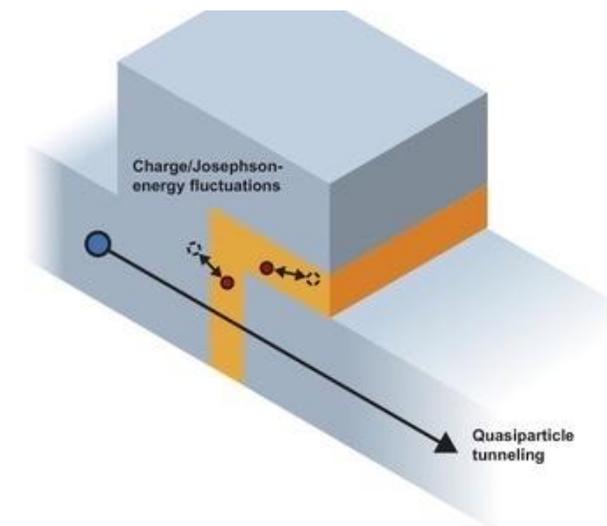
Photon number fluctuations:

- Residual microwave photons in the cavity
- Dispersive regime - longitudinal coupling $\chi \hat{\sigma}_z \hat{n} \rightarrow$ Pure dephasing at a rate $\Gamma_\phi = \frac{\eta \bar{n} 4\chi^2}{\kappa}$
with average photon number \bar{n} and $\eta = \frac{\kappa^2}{\kappa^2 + 4\chi^2}$
- Lorentzian type noise spectral density (white noise)

$$S(\omega) = 4\chi^2 \frac{2\eta \bar{n} \kappa}{\omega^2 + \kappa^2}$$

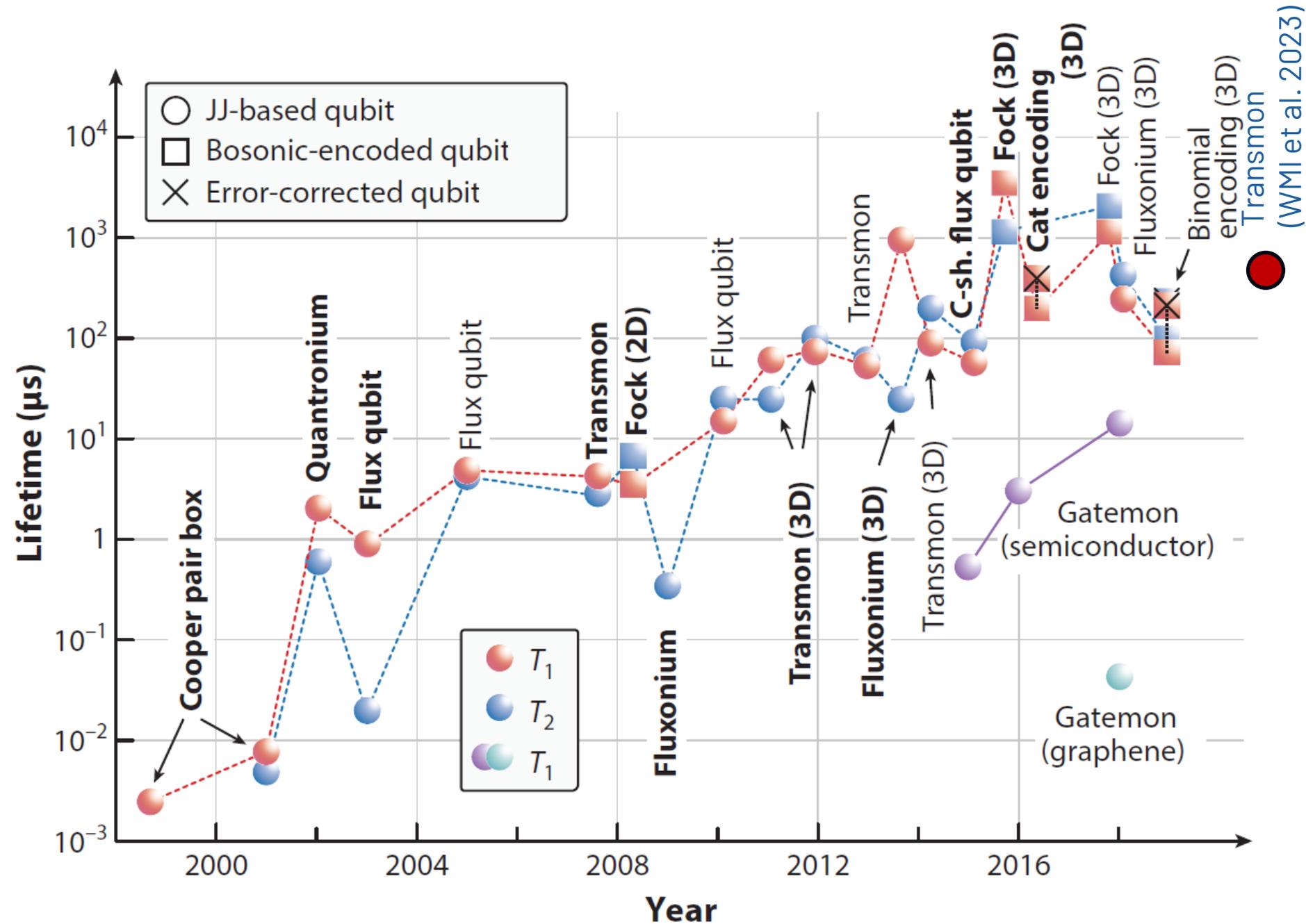
Quasiparticles:

- Tunneling of quasiparticles through a qubit junction may lead to both T_1 or T_ϕ depending on qubit type, bias point,...
- Occur naturally because of thermodynamics, exponentially suppressed with decreasing temperature
- Observed $10^{-8} - 10^{-6}$ per cooper pair is higher than expected



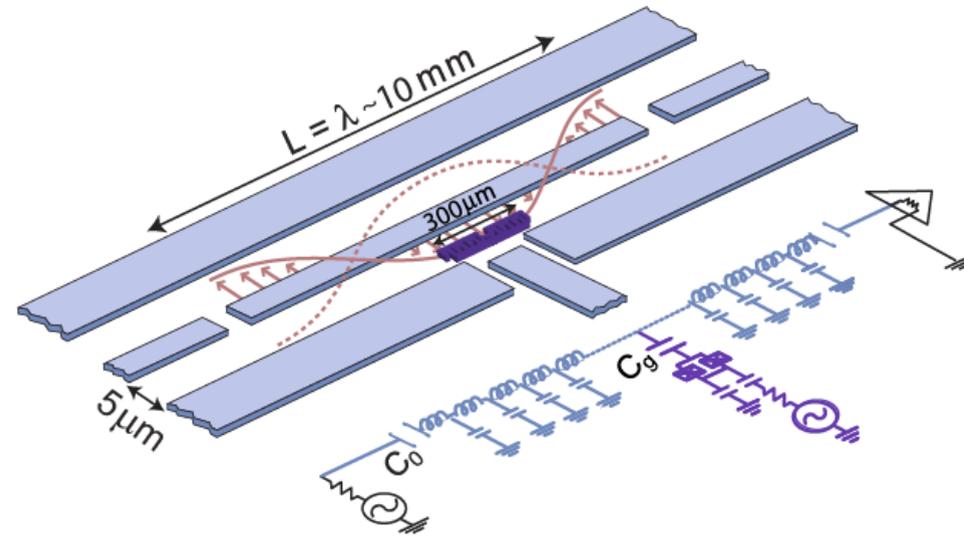
Superconducting qubits – Trend of lifetime

[Kjaergaard *et al.*, *Ann. Rev. Cond. Mat Phys* **11** (2020); <https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.13641>]



Qubit Readout

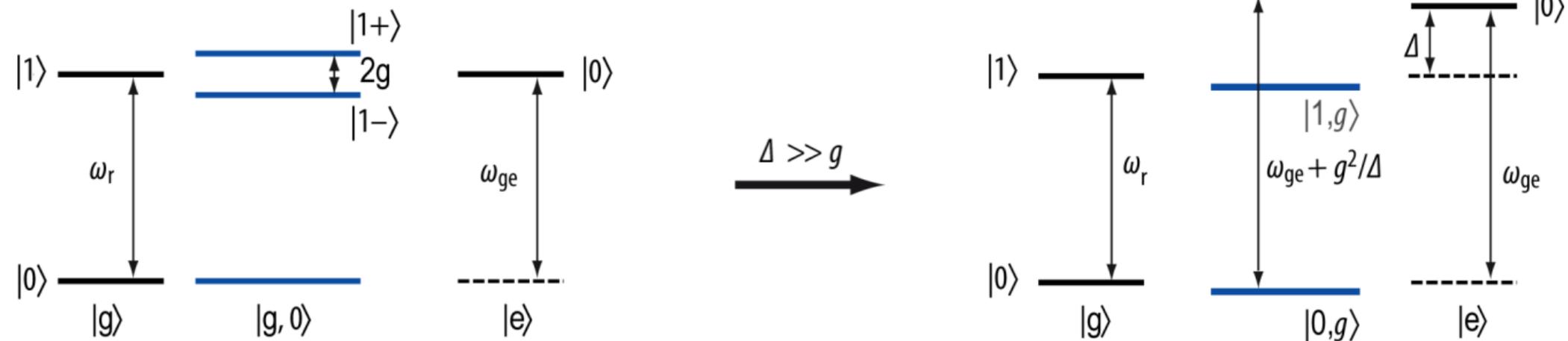
resonant:



dispersive (qubit detuned from resonance):

$$\Delta = |\omega_q - \omega_r| \gg g$$

[Blais *et al.*, *PRA* **69** (2004)]



Dispersive shift

When probing the frequency of the resonator

- a) The qubit frequency is shifted by a fixed amount, even without photons in the resonator.
- b) The qubit frequency is shifted depending on the mean photon number in the resonator.
- c) The qubit frequency is not shifted at all.

Non-Resonant (Dispersive) Interaction

approximate diagonalization:

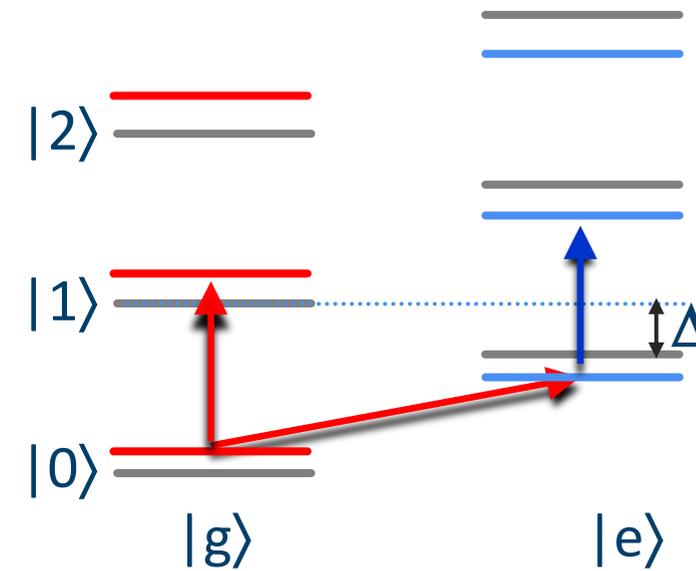
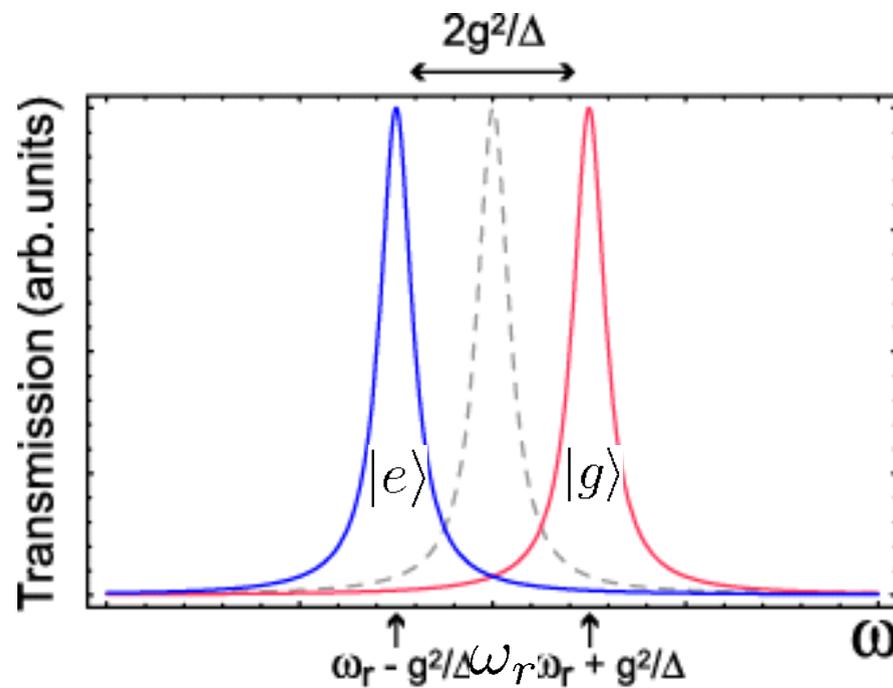
$$|\Delta| = |\omega_q - \omega_r| \gg g:$$

$$H = \hbar \left(\omega_r + \frac{g^2}{\Delta} \sigma_z \right) a^\dagger a + \frac{\hbar}{2} \left(\omega_q + \frac{g^2}{\Delta} \right) \sigma_z \quad \text{or} \quad H = \hbar \omega_r a^\dagger a + \frac{\hbar}{2} \left(\omega_q + \frac{g^2}{\Delta} + \frac{2g^2}{\Delta} a^\dagger a \right) \sigma_z$$

Qubit state-dependent cavity frequency shift

Lamb Shift (vacuum fluctuations)

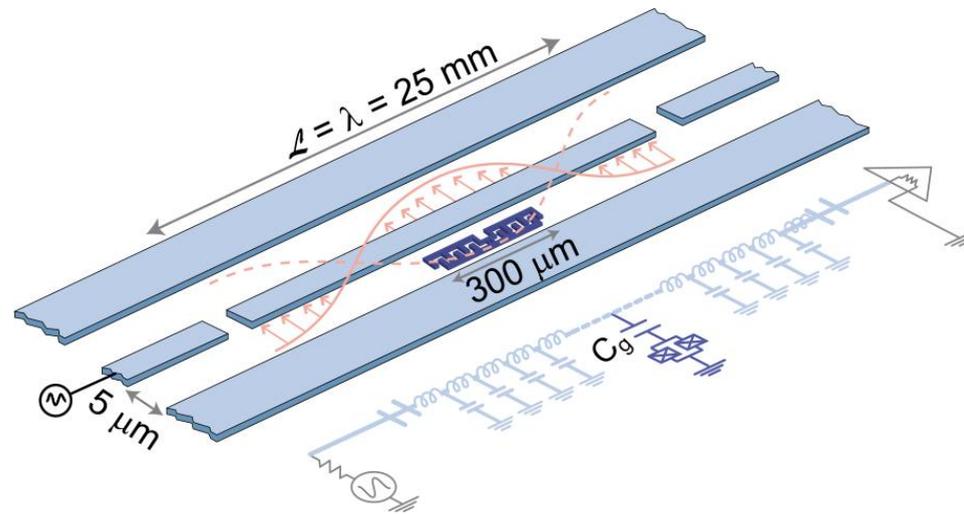
Photon number dependent qubit ac-Stark shift



qubit detuned by D from resonator

[A. Blais et al., PRA **69**, 062320 (2004)]

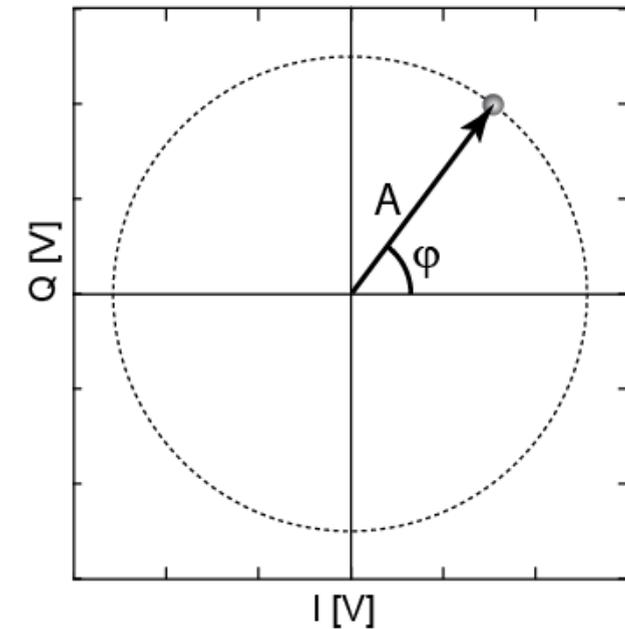
transmission measurement to determine qubit state:



phase sensitive measurement of transmitted microwave:

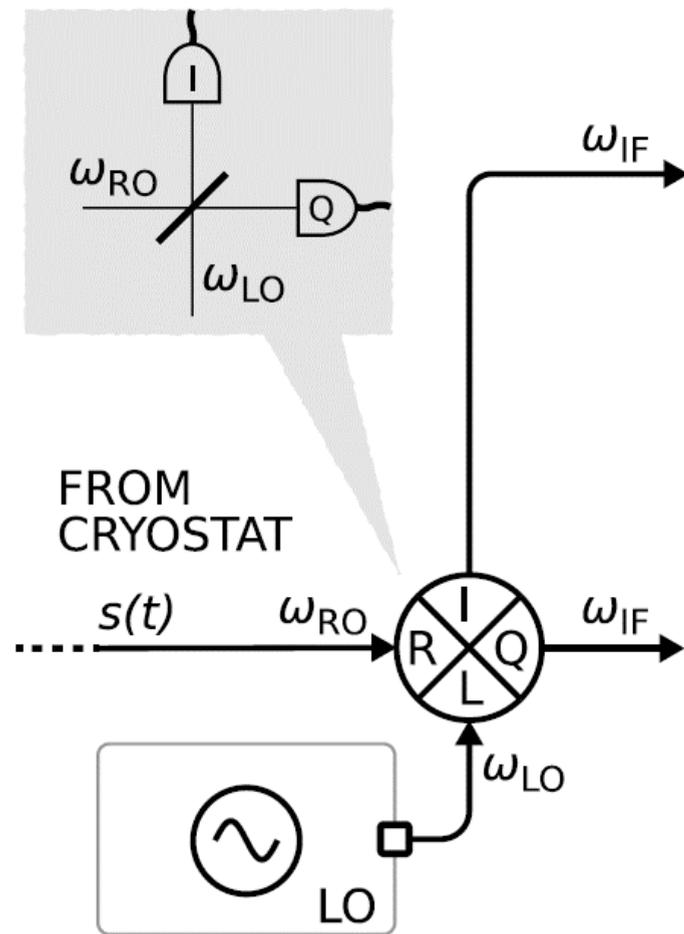
voltage signal:

$$A(t) \sin(\omega_m t + \phi(t)) \equiv \underbrace{I(t)}_{A(t) \cos \phi(t)} \sin \omega_m t + \underbrace{Q(t)}_{A(t) \sin \phi(t)} \cos \omega_m t$$

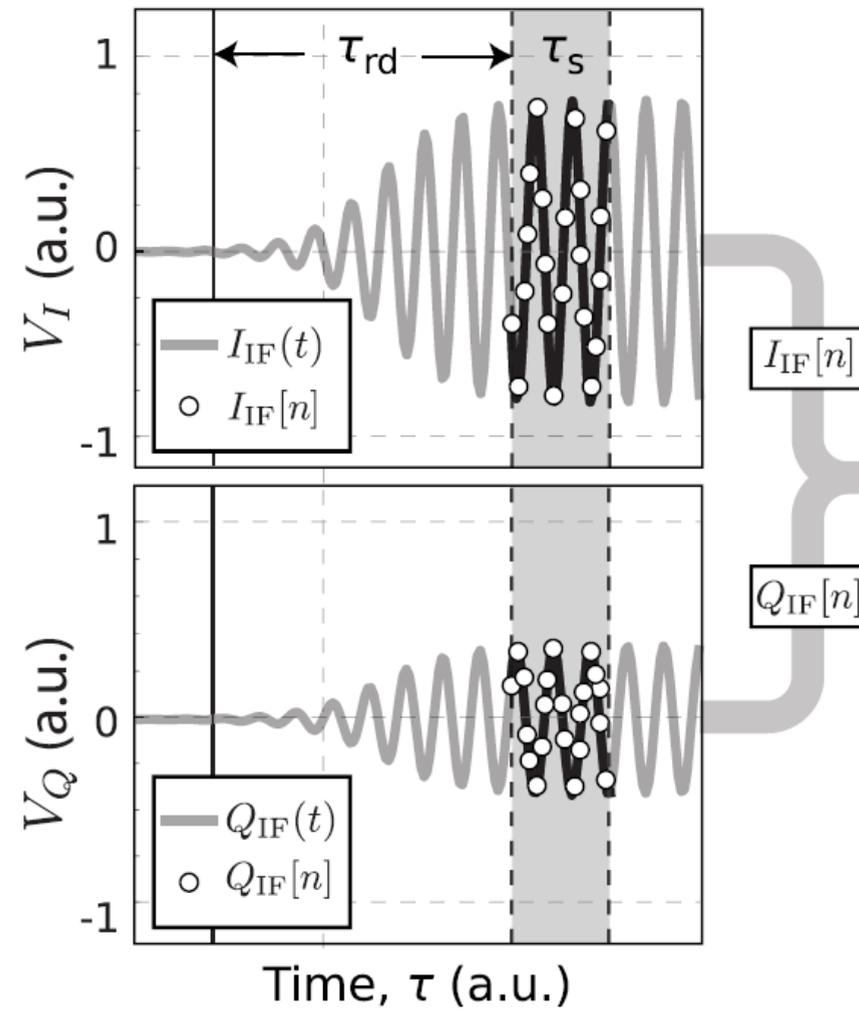


Superconducting qubits – Readout

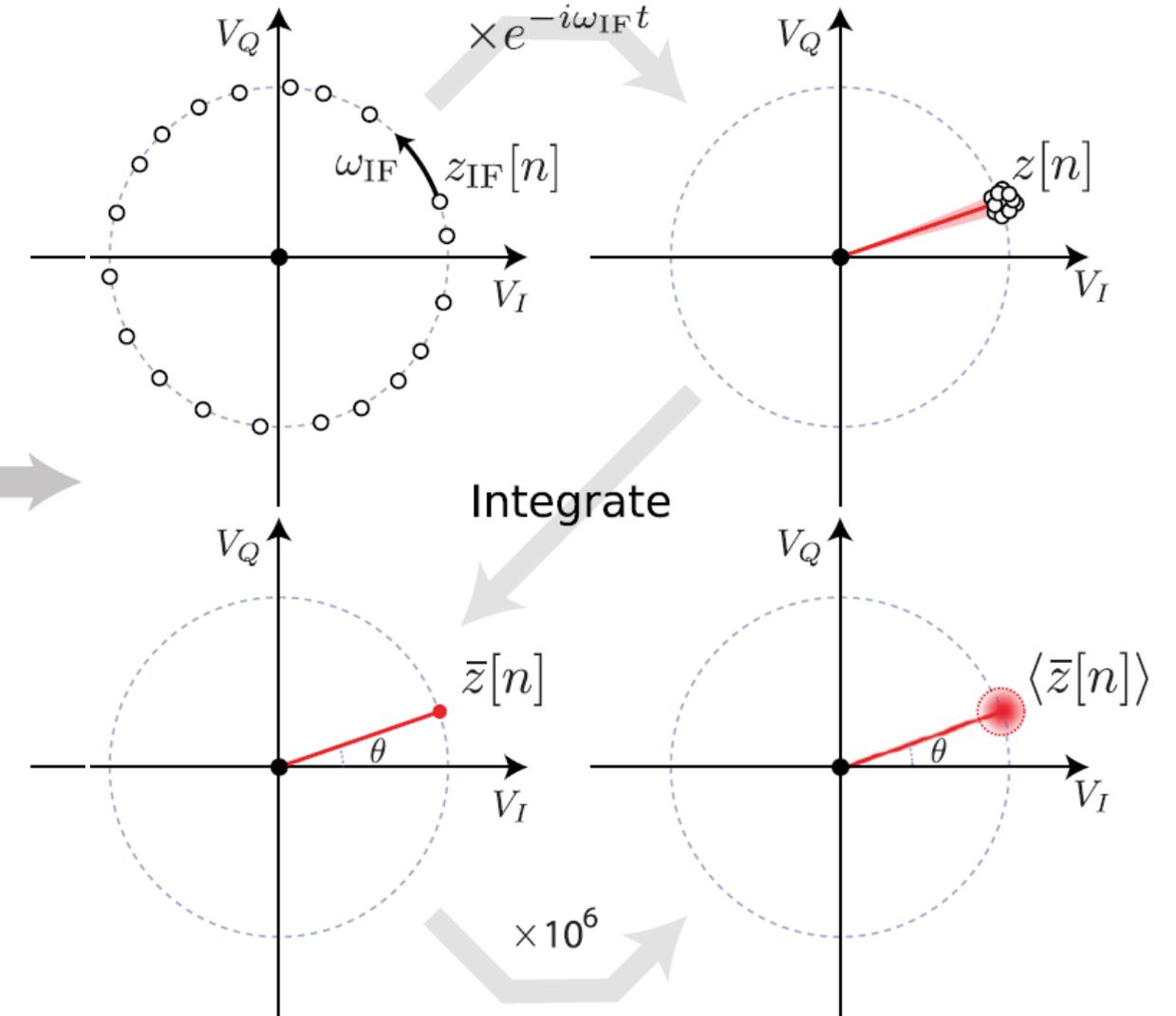
(a) ANALOG DEMOD.



(b) DATA SAMPLING



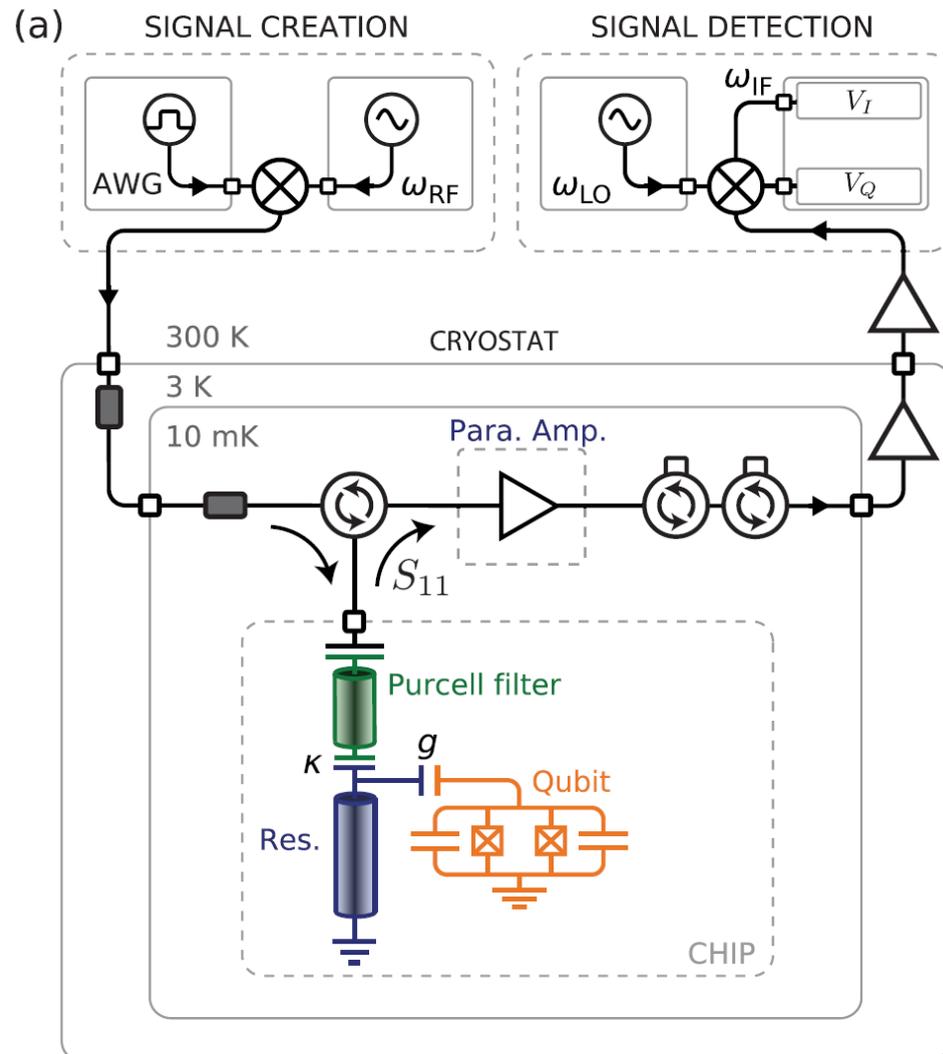
(c) DIGITAL SIGNAL PROCESSING (DSP)



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

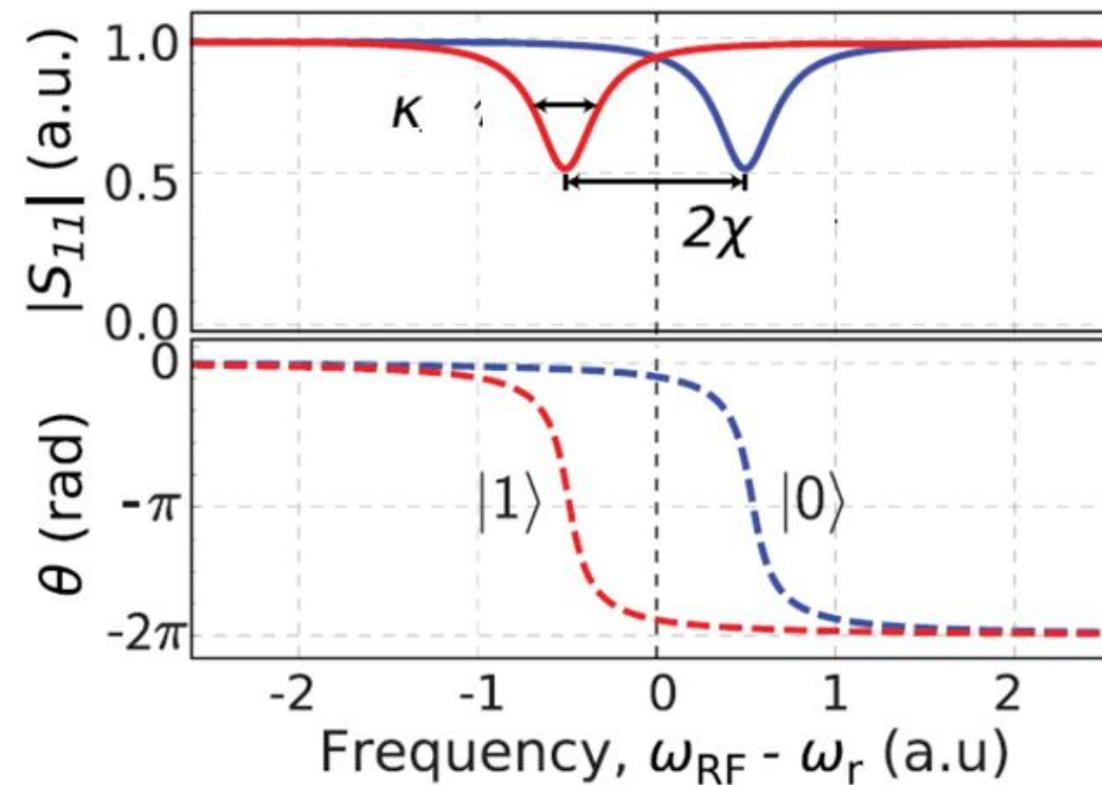
Dispersive read out – reflection measurement

Signal chain for readout:



Reflected signal with amplitude $|S_{11}|$ and phase θ :

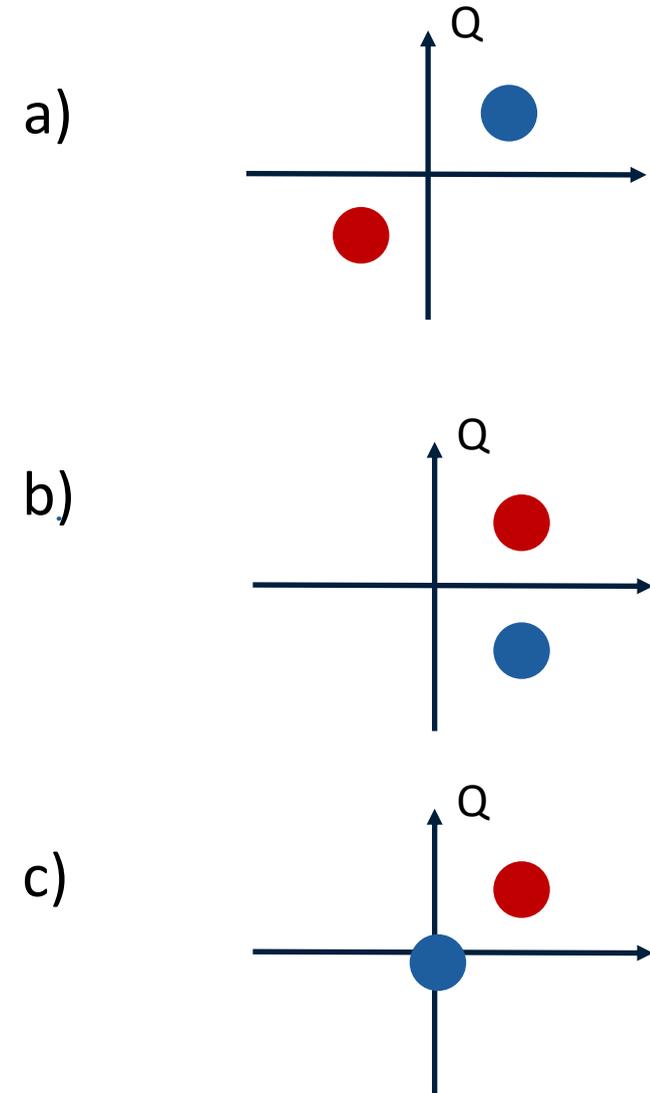
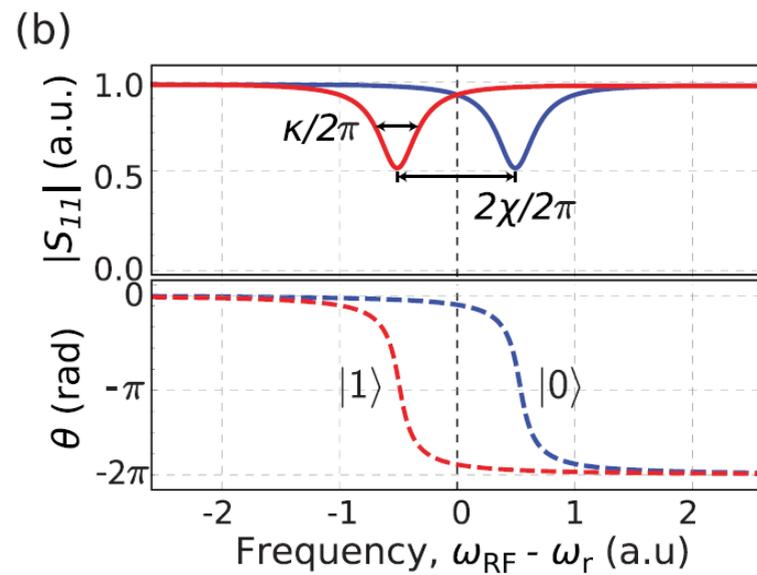
Two peaks/dips for qubit states $|0\rangle$ & $|1\rangle$, separated by dispersive shift χ



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

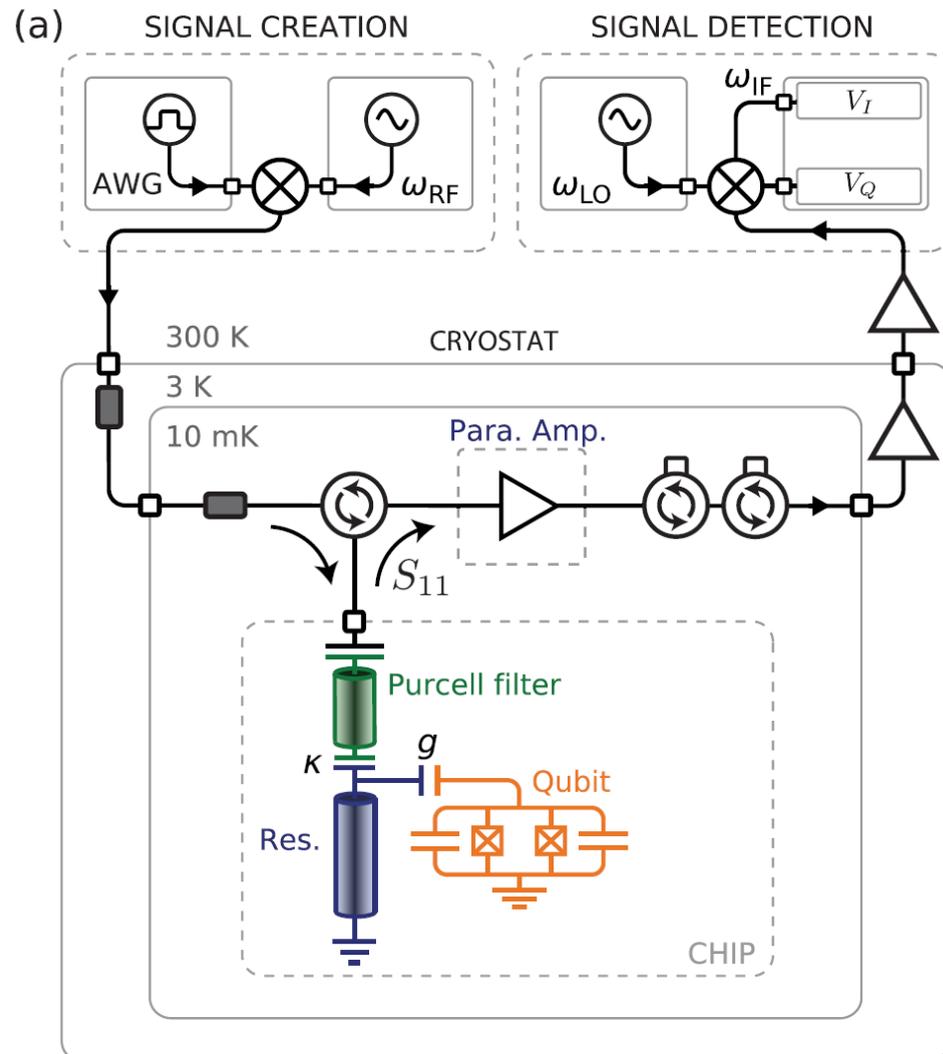
Reflected signal in IQ plane

How does the reflected signal look like in the IQ plane when measuring at ω_r ?



Dispersive read out – reflection measurement

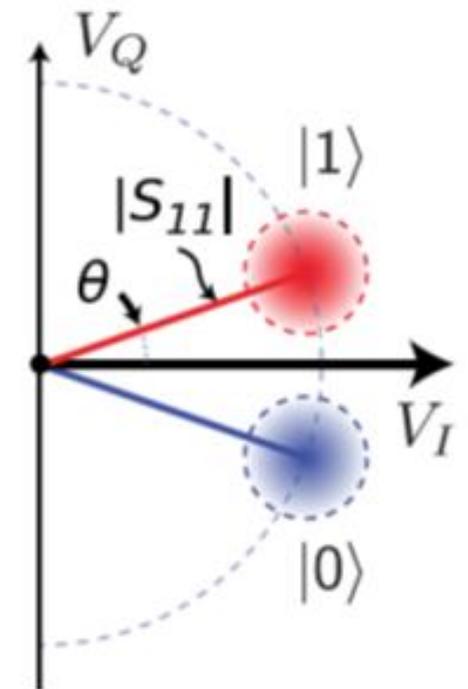
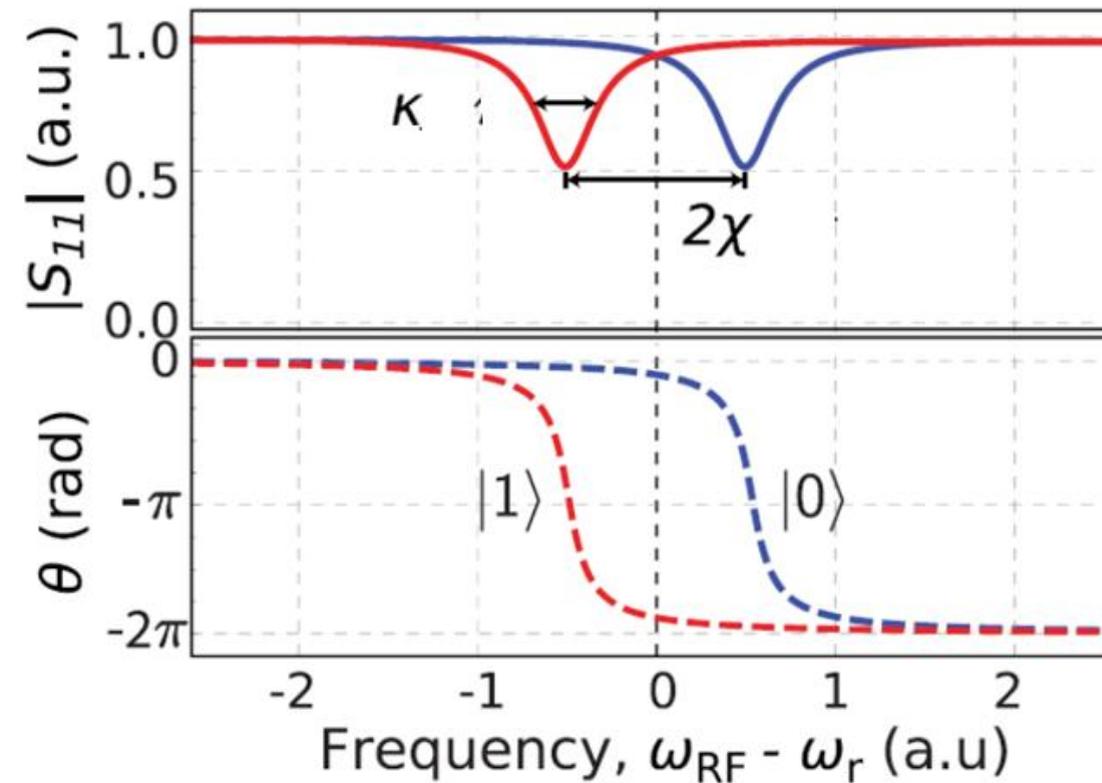
Signal chain for readout:



Reflected signal with amplitude $|S_{11}|$ and phase θ :

→ 2 blobs in IQ plane

Two peaks/dips for qubit states $|0\rangle$ & $|1\rangle$, separated by dispersive shift χ



[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* **6** (2019)]

SNR and single-shot measurement

without noise: $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$ can be distinguished for any non-zero dispersive shift

reality: added noise leads to Gaussian distribution in the I/Q plane

[see Clerk *et al.*, *Rev. Mod. Phys.* (2010)]

contribution to noise:

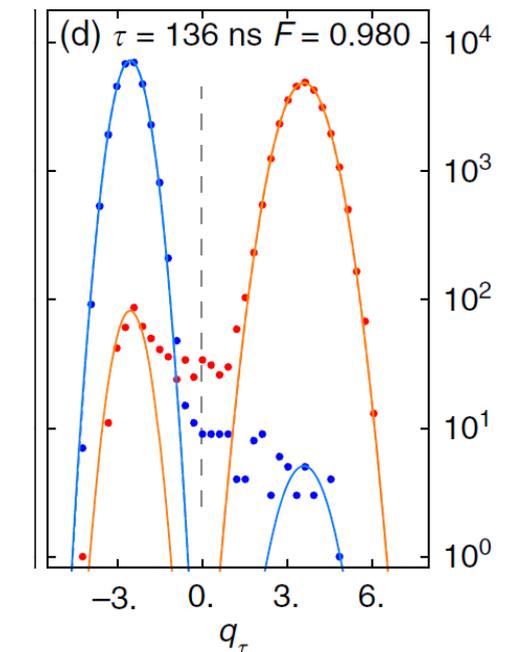
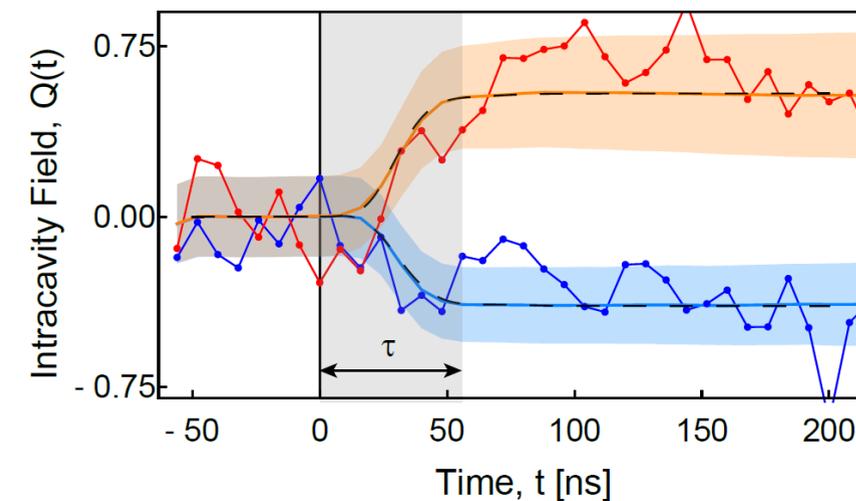
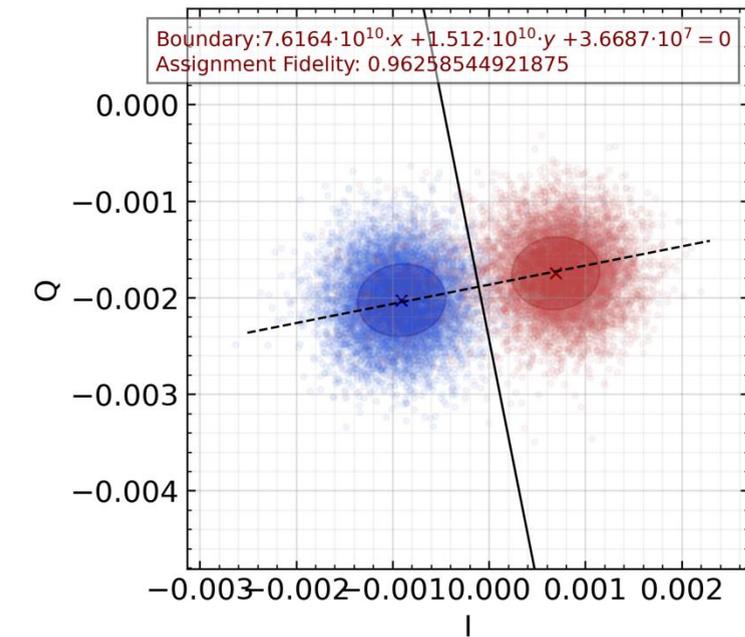
- quantum noise ($\hbar\omega/2$ per unit bandwidth)
- amplifier noise (at least another $\hbar\omega/2$ of qm noise + classical noise)
- classical noise of the signal (drifts, fluctuations)

single-shot measurement: discriminate state in each measurement with high fidelity

integrated measurement signal:

finite sampling time to increase signal to noise ratio

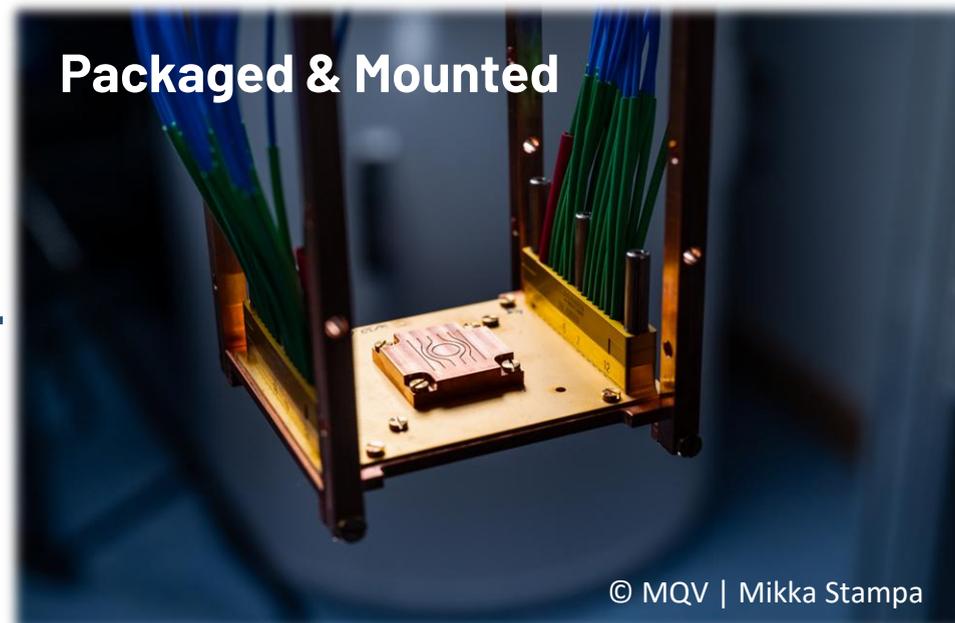
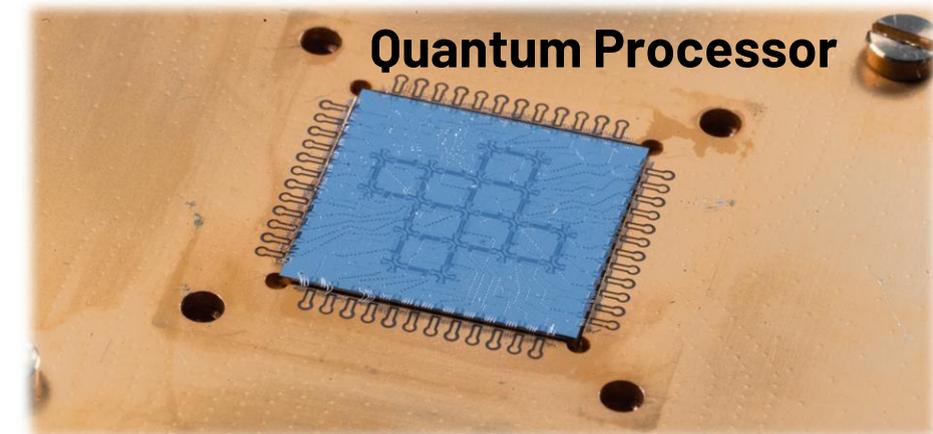
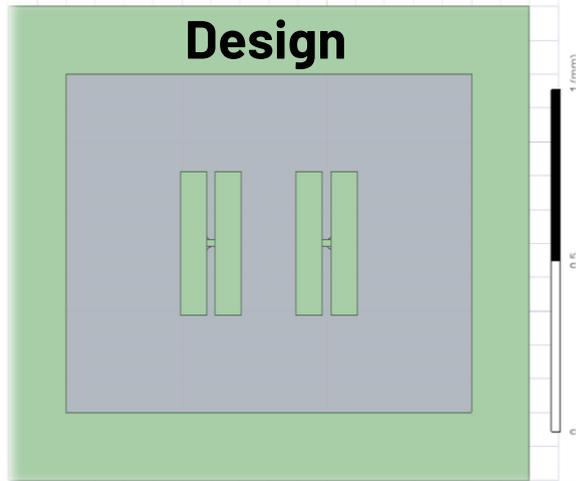
note: T_1 reduces signal to noise for long integration times



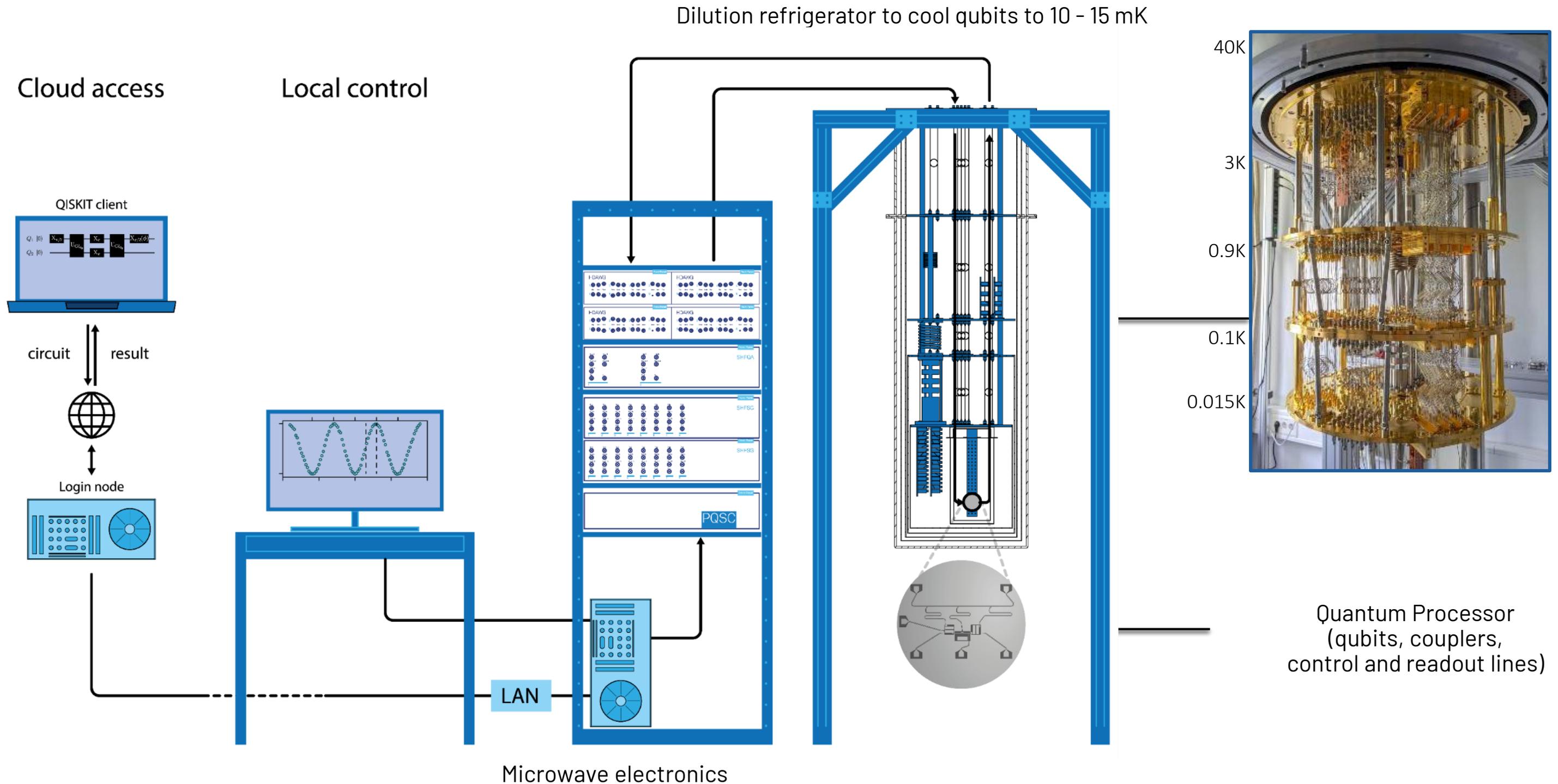
[Walter *et al.*, *PR Applied* (2017)]

Qubit Control

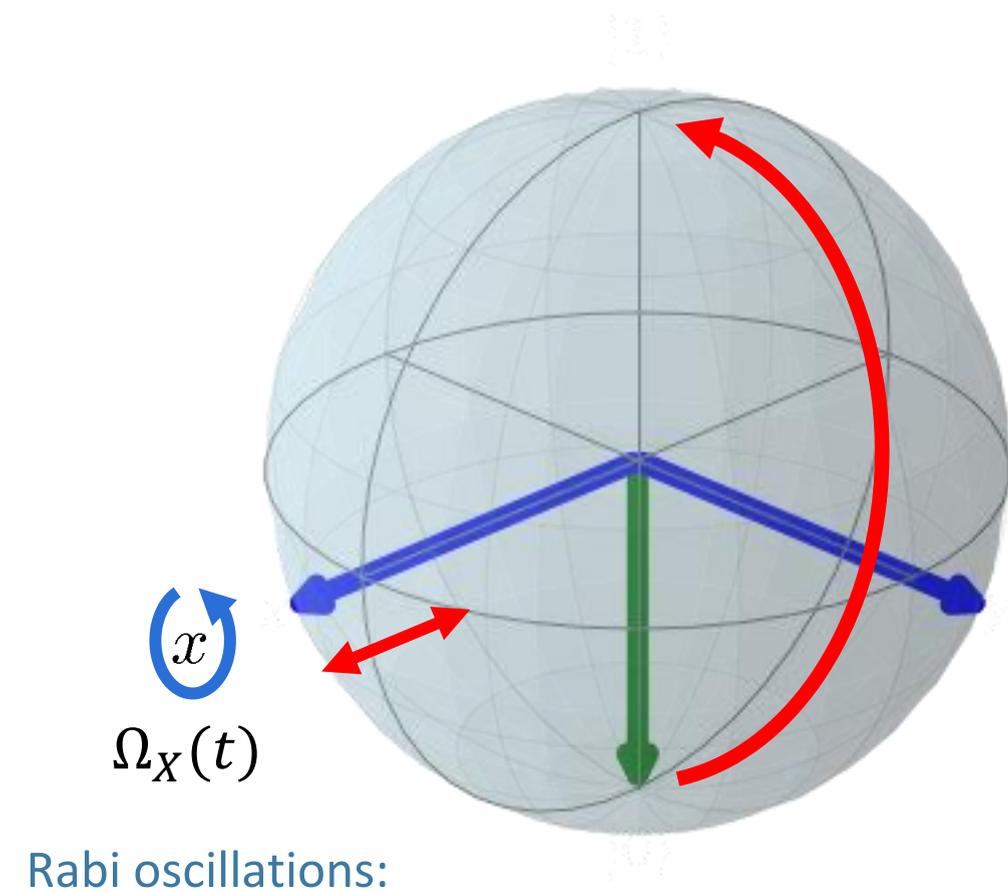
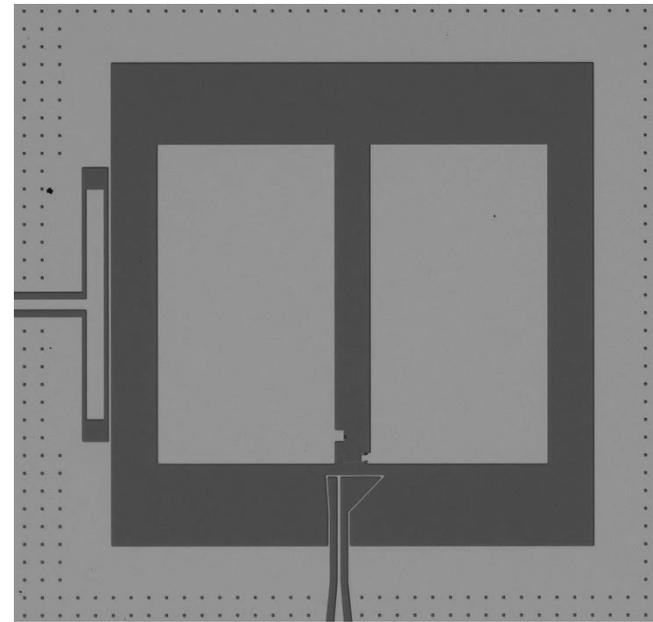
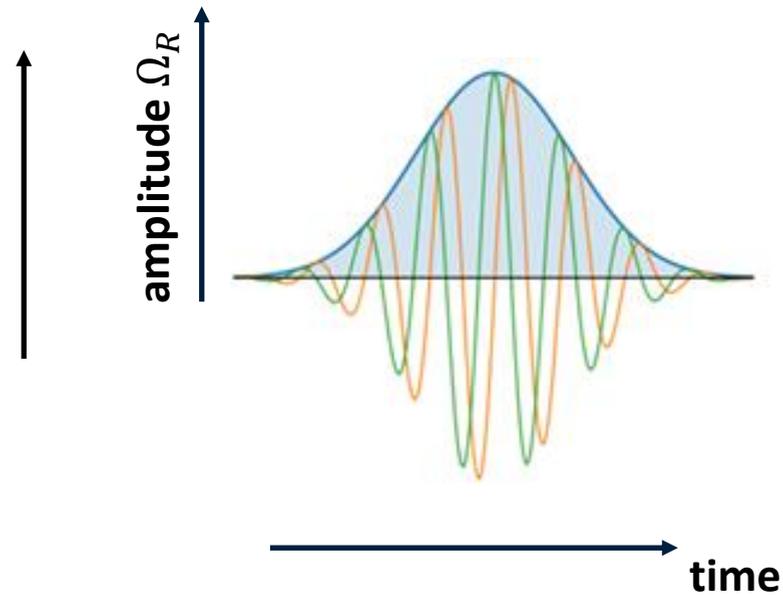
From Quantum Processor Design to Control



Superconducting qubit quantum computer setup



apply microwave pulse (capacitive coupling)



- Hamiltonian for state manipulation $\hat{H} = \hbar\Omega_x\hat{\sigma}_x + \hbar\Omega_y\hat{\sigma}_y$
- Area under the pulse determines the rotation angle ($X_\pi, X_{\pi/2}$)
- Phase ϕ_R determines azimuthal angle, e.g., $\phi_R = \frac{\pi}{2} \rightarrow Y_\pi$
- Typical pulse duration: 10-50ns
- Typical fidelities: 99.9%-99.95%

Rabi Oscillations – X and Y gates

drive at **resonance frequency** with varying **drive strength Ω** or **duration τ** ($\Omega_x = \Omega, \omega_d = \omega_q$):

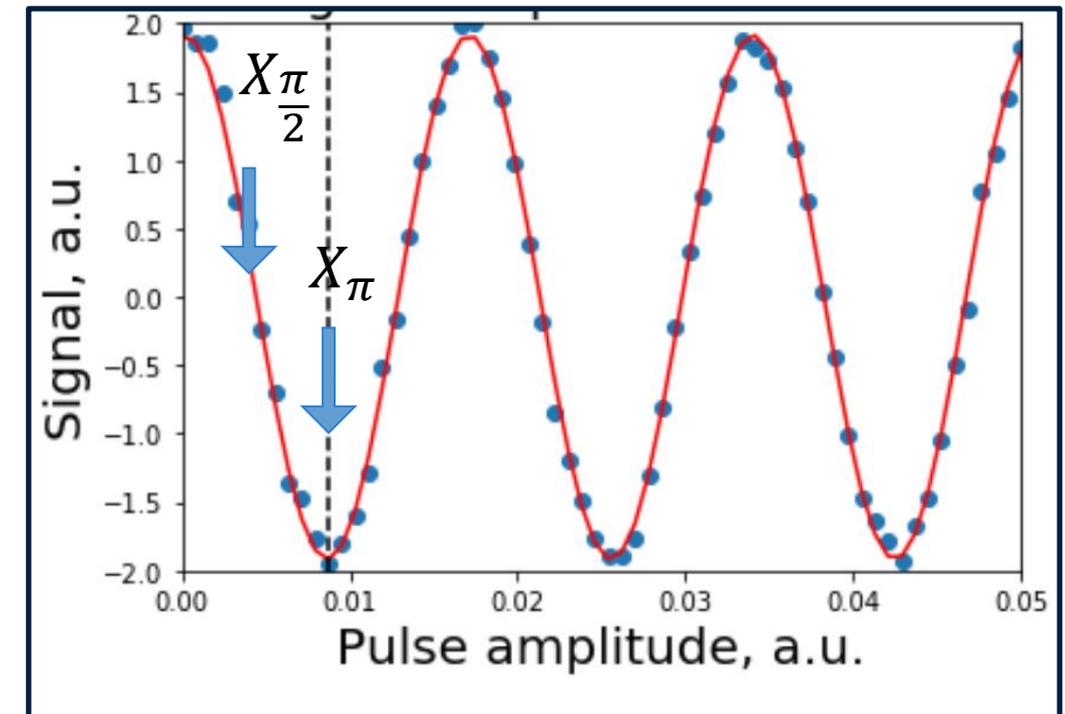
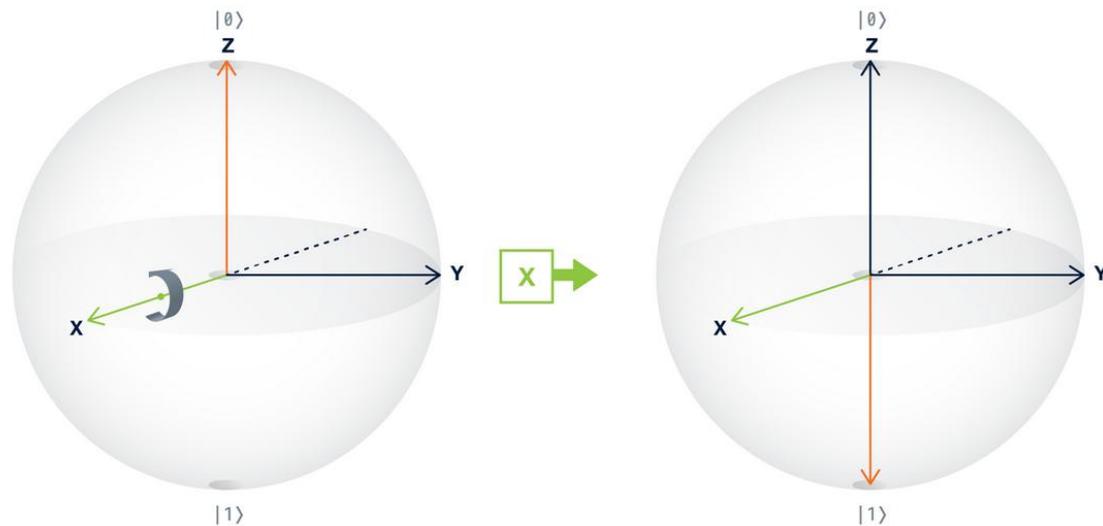
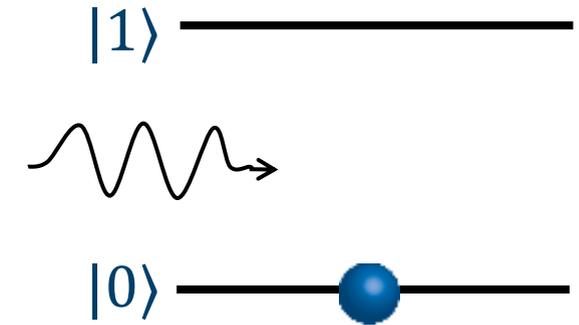
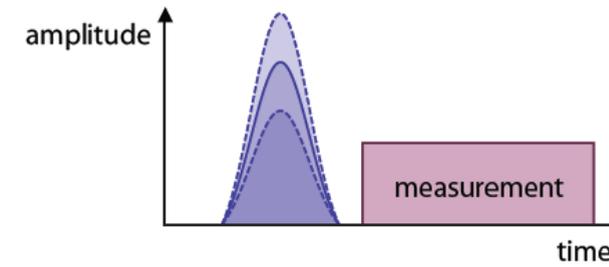
effective field $M = (\Omega \cos \phi, \Omega \sin \phi, 0)$

X_π gate (spin flip) for $\theta = \pi$ ($\Omega = \frac{\pi}{\tau}$) and $\phi = 0$:

$$H = \frac{\hbar\Omega_x}{2} \sigma_x \rightarrow U = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}\sigma_x} \text{ with } \theta = \Omega \tau$$

$X_{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ gate (superposition state) for $\theta = \pi/2$ ($\Omega = \frac{\pi}{2\tau}$): $U = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{4}\sigma_x}$

Y_π and $Y_{\frac{\pi}{2}}$ gate for choice of phase $\phi = \frac{\pi}{2}$



extra phase shift γ on subsequent gates gives an **effective rotation about z-axis** (i.e., an extra phase shift)
 [McKay et al., Phys. Rev. A **96**, 022330 (2017)]

pulse about the **x-axis** ($X_\theta = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}\sigma_x}$) followed by a pulse about a rotated axis with phase offset γ ($\Gamma_\theta = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}(\cos \gamma \sigma_x + \sin \gamma \sigma_y)}$):

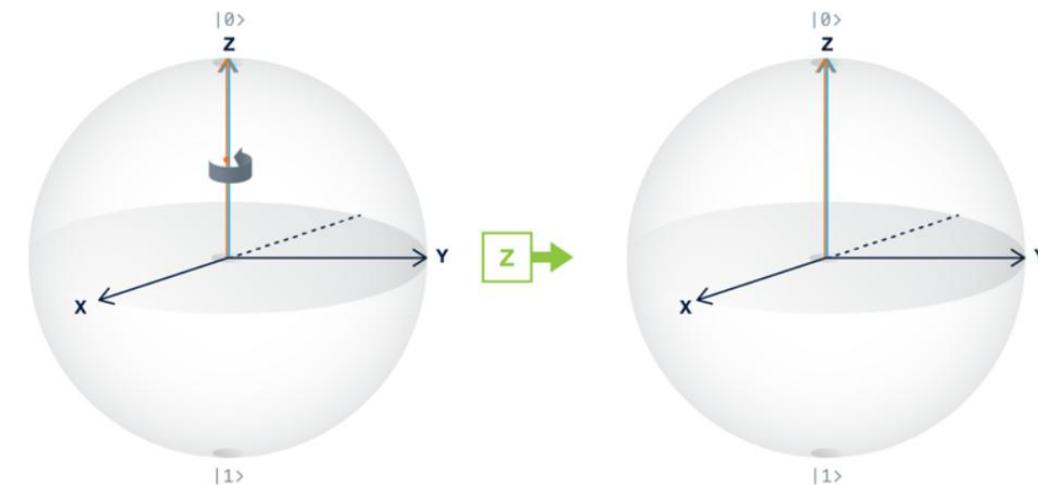
$$\Gamma_\theta \cdot X_\theta = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}(\cos \gamma \sigma_x + \sin \gamma \sigma_y)} \cdot X_\theta =$$

$$U_z^+(\gamma) \cdot X_\theta \cdot U_z(\gamma) \cdot X_\theta = e^{i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_z} \cdot e^{-i\frac{\theta}{2}\sigma_x} \cdot e^{-i\frac{\gamma}{2}\sigma_z} \cdot X_\theta = Z_{-\gamma} \cdot X_\theta \cdot Z_\gamma \cdot X_\theta$$

→ results in **Z-gate** Z_γ sandwiched between the X gate
 (plus an additional $Z_{-\gamma}$ that has to be taken into account for subsequent gates)

Simple example: **Ramsey-experiment** with different rotation axis of the second $\pi/2$ pulse

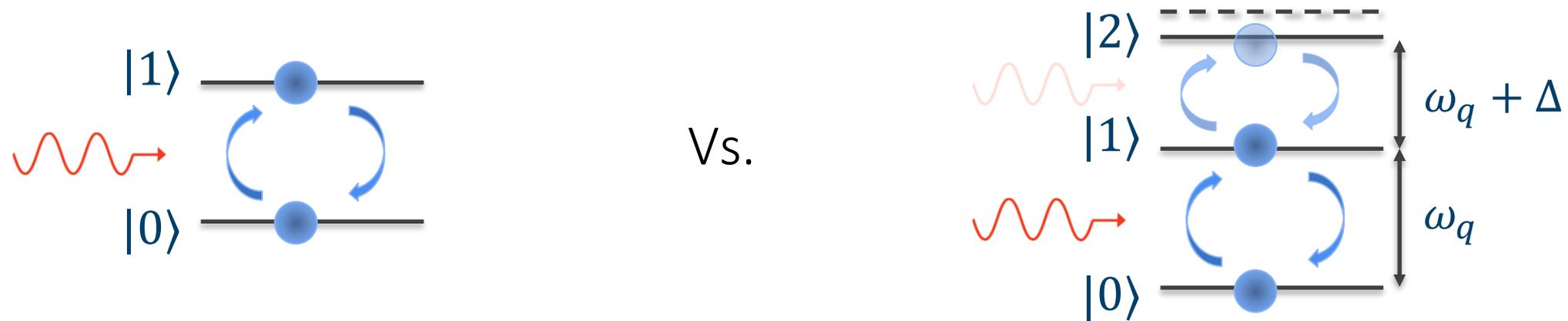
Advantage: γ can be adjusted in software by setting phase γ at the AWG!



Questions – constraints on pulses

A transmon resembles more an an-harmonic oscillator than a qubit.

In order to avoid excitation of the 2nd excited state, is a short pulse (large amplitude) or a long pulse (small amplitude) better suited?



DRAG pulses – Analytic pulse control

Qubit Hamiltonian:

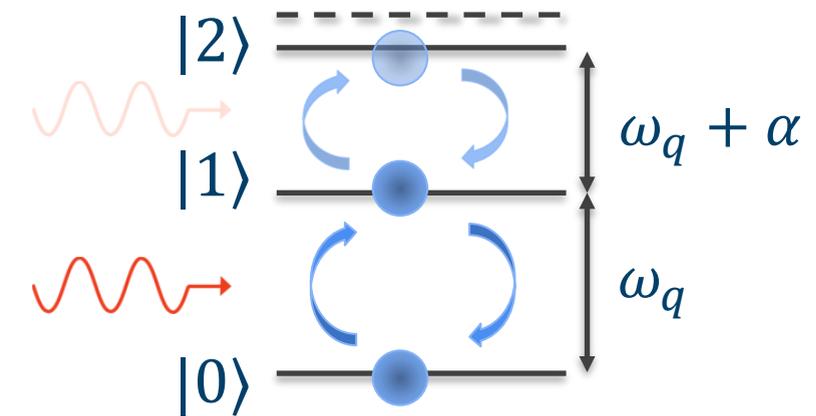
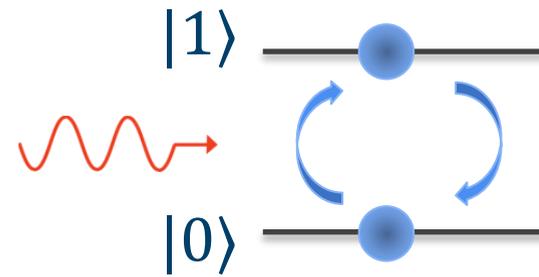
$$H/\hbar = \frac{\omega_q}{2} \sigma_z + A(t) \cos(\omega_d t + \phi_d) \sigma_x$$



Transmon Hamiltonian:

$$H/\hbar = \omega_{01} |1\rangle\langle 1| + (2\omega_{01} + \alpha) |2\rangle\langle 2| + A \cos(\omega_d t + \phi_d) \tilde{\sigma}_x$$

$$\text{with } \tilde{\sigma}_x = |0\rangle\langle 1| + \lambda |1\rangle\langle 2| + h.c.$$



→ drive acts also **off-resonantly** on the $|1\rangle\langle 2|$ transition

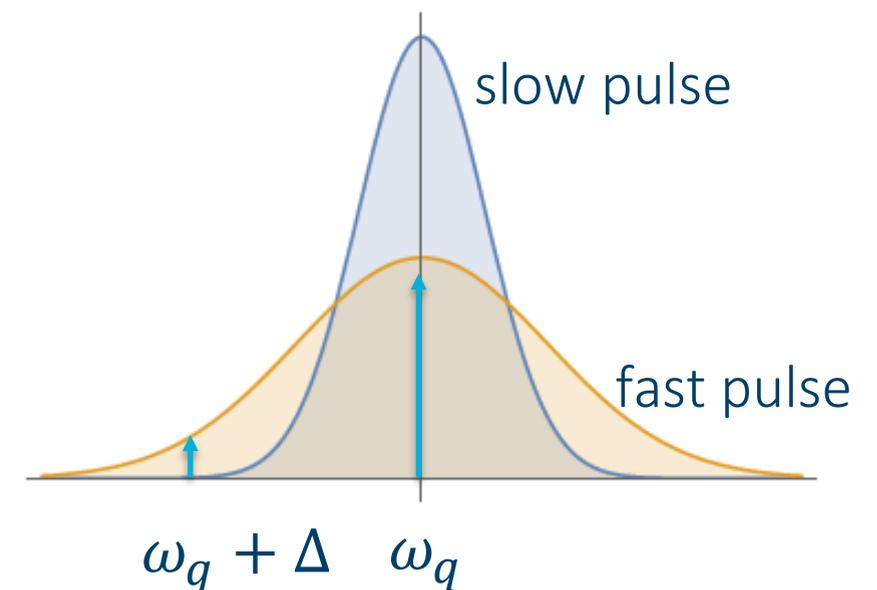
→ **leakage and phase-shifts** during the pulse

→ pulse control, e.g. by **analytic pulse shapes**:

DRAG (Derivative Removal by Adiabatic Gate)

[F. Motzoi et al., *PRL* **103**, 110501 (2009)]

or **numerical optimization of pulse shape**



Questions – constraints on pulses

Think about a realistic implementation of a qubit experiment.

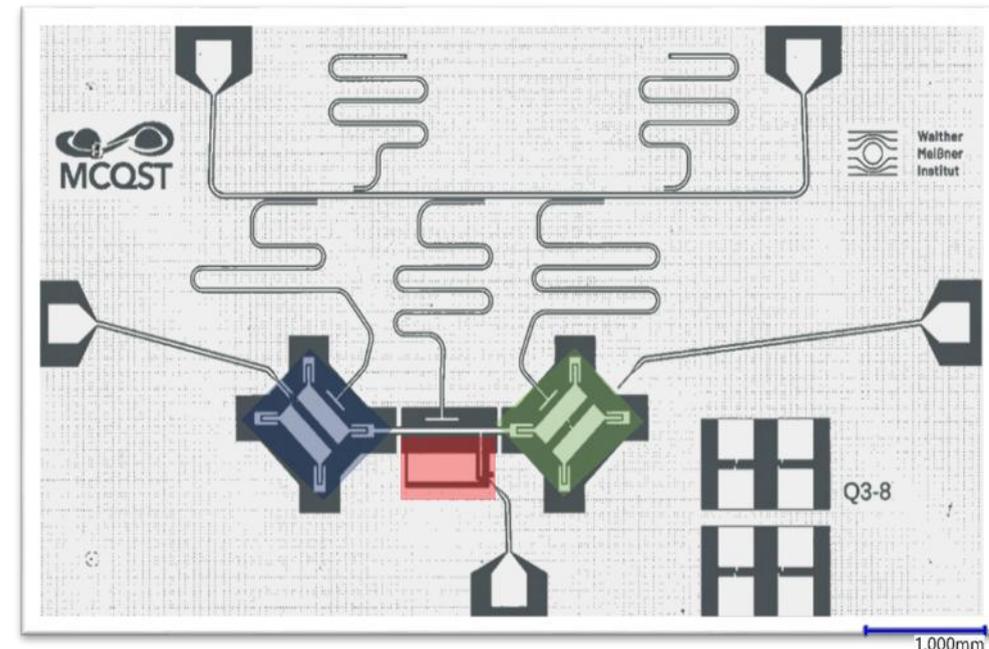
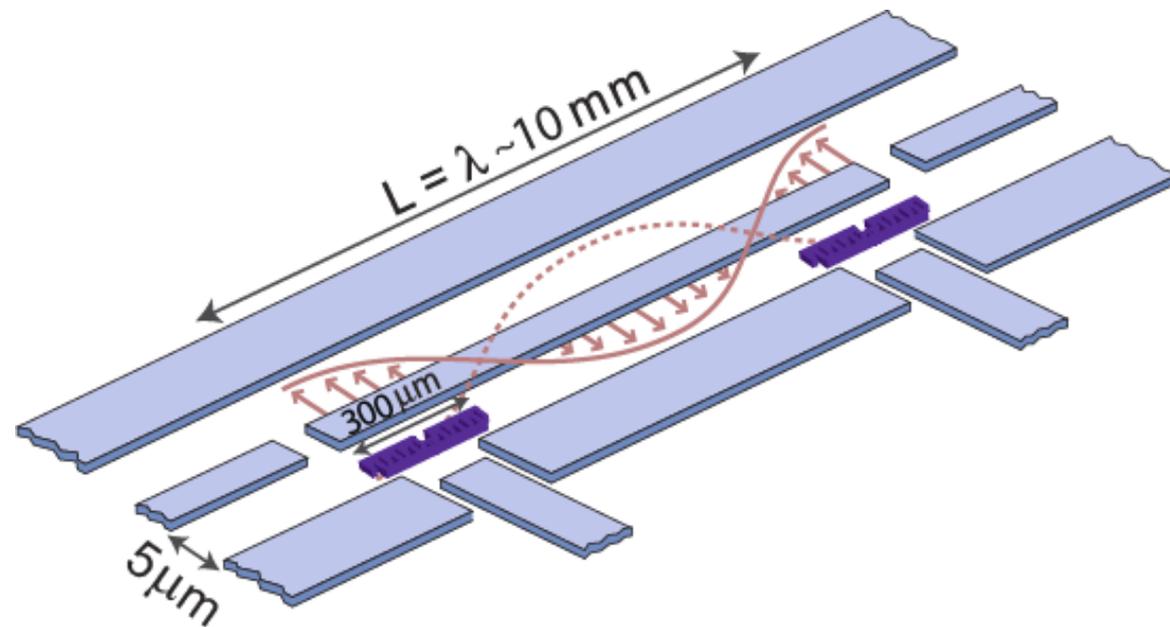
What constraints are prohibiting you as control scientist from exerting the perfect pulse/gate on the system? (2-3 min, discuss with neighbor, I'll collect input and we can discuss)

- a) **Bandwidth of pulses:** AWG support typically < 2.4 GS/s, mixers have bandwidth of ~ 500 MHz
- b) **Amplitude of pulses – dynamic range:** AWG have up to 16 bit with a maximal output voltage of 2 V
- c) **Response function of the system:** Cables, attenuators, filters, amplifier all have certain bandwidth constraints distorting the signal. This has to be taken into account for pulse shaping.
- d) **Frequency of carrier:** signal generators up to 20 GHz are affordable
- e) **Cross-talk:** signals on selected qubit affects other qubits \rightarrow off-resonant driving with weaker amplitude
- f) **Noise:** most challenging is $1/f$ noise, i.e. slow drifts
- g) For optimal control: **time delays for updating signals** with new parameter values
- h) Etc.

Two-Qubit Gates

2-qubit gates: entangling two qubits

(co-planar waveguide) resonator or coupler circuit can be used as a **quantum bus** to create **entangled** states:
→ instead of direct coupling via capacitance C_c , **in-direct / dispersive coupling J** mediated by resonant mode



©WMI

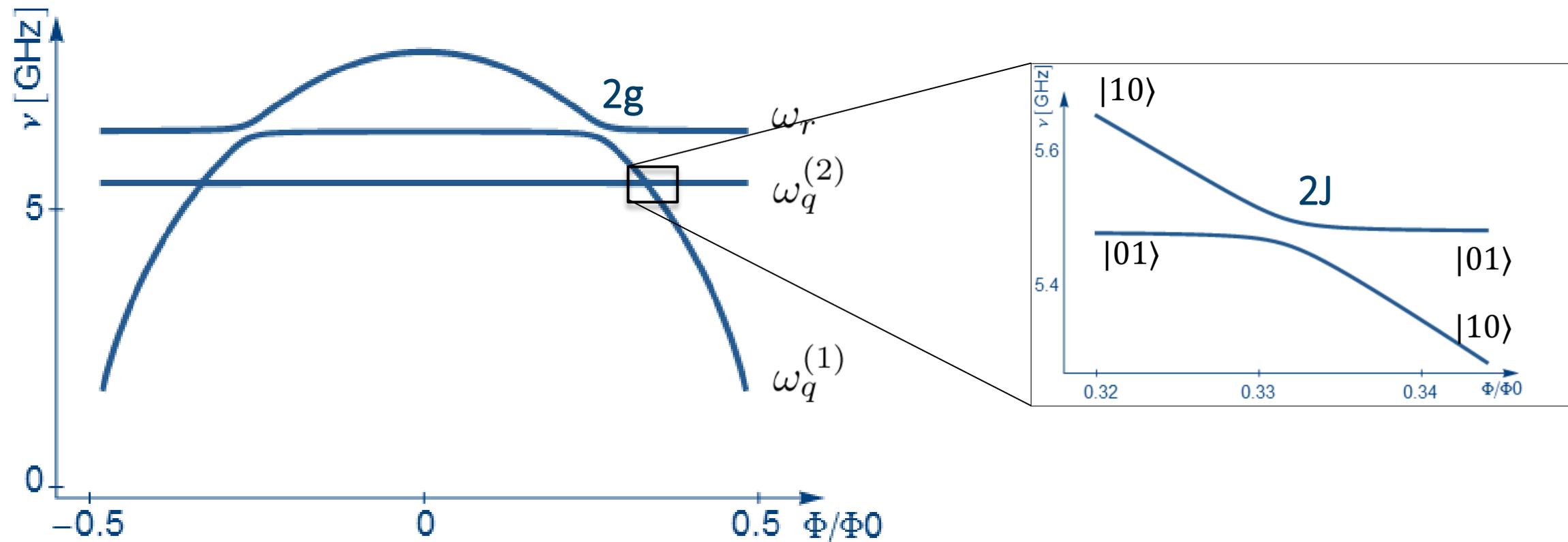
Dispersive two-qubit J-coupling – Energy levels

qubit 1: transition frequency tunable (for transmon: $\omega_{ge} \approx \sqrt{8E_C E_J} = \sqrt{8E_C E_{J,max} |\cos(\pi\Phi_{ext}/\phi_0)|}$)

qubit 2: constant frequency (e.g., 5 GHz)

direct coupling ($g \sim 100 - 200$ MHz)

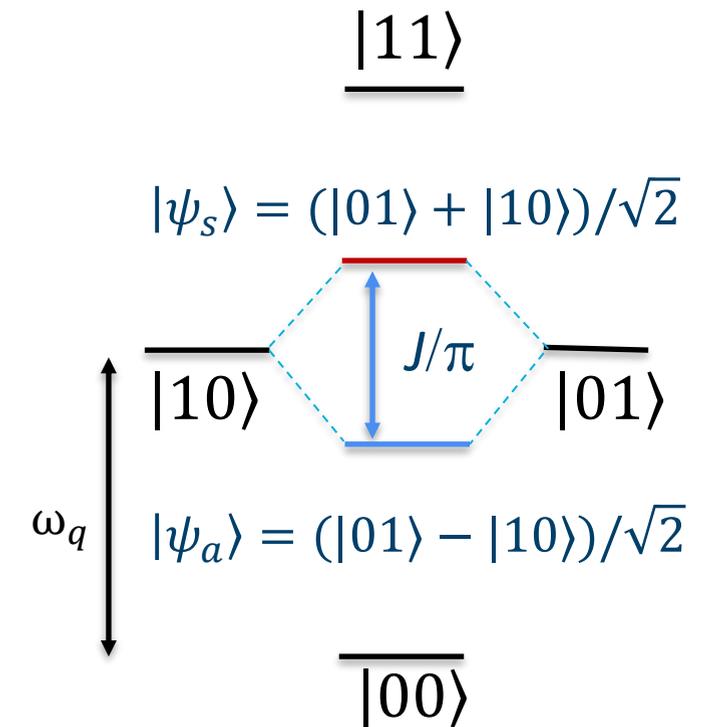
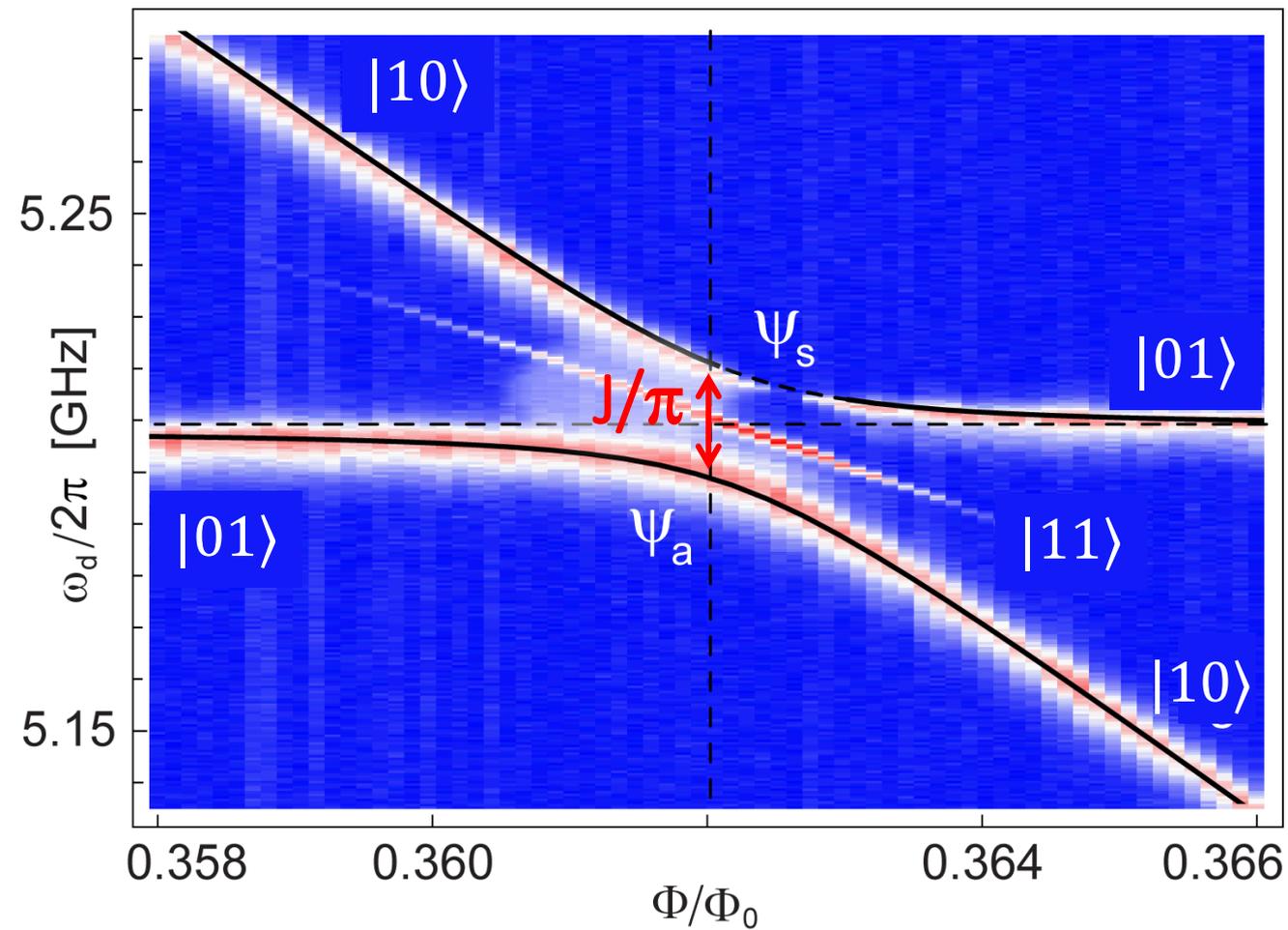
mediated J-coupling ($J \sim \frac{g^2}{\delta} \sim 10 - 20$ MHz, with $\delta = \omega_r - \omega_q^{(1,2)}$)



[Majer *et al.*, *Nature* **449** (2007)]

Avoided level crossing due to qubit-qubit coupling

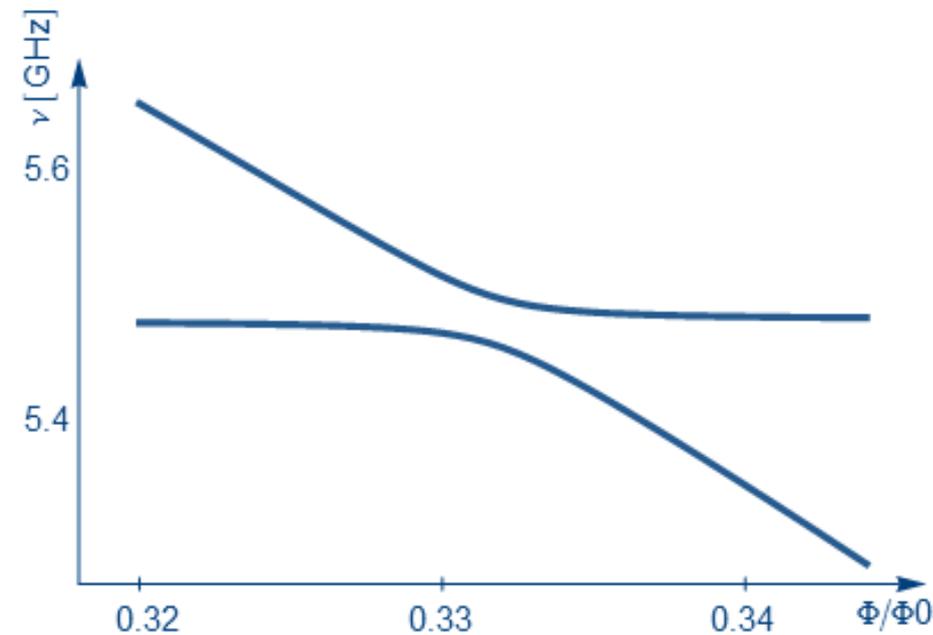
qubit A swept across resonance with fixed qubit B
cavity mediated coupling leads to an avoided crossing



[Filipp *et al.*, *PRA* **83**, 063827 (2011).]

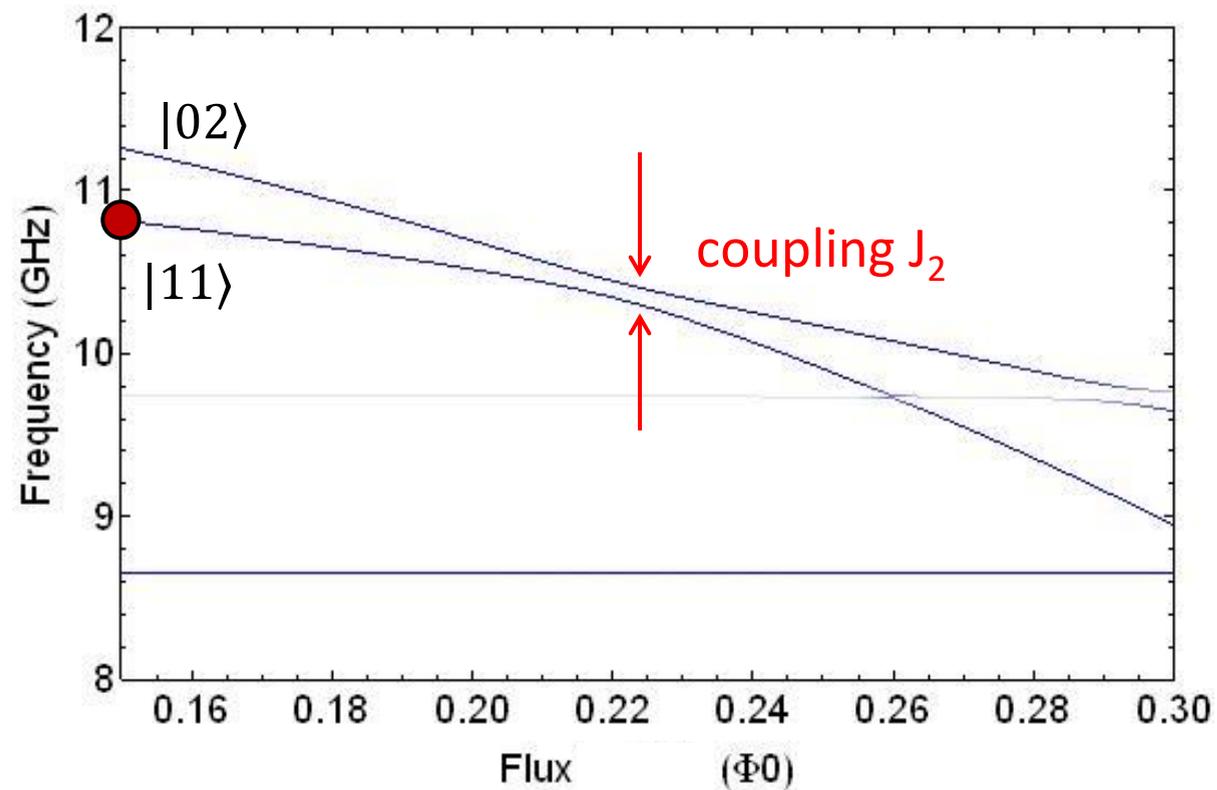
Adiabatic vs. non-adiabatic

What is the effect on the state if the energy is modified suddenly (non-adiabatically)? What is the effect in the slow (adiabatic) regime?



C-Phase gate using $11 \leftrightarrow 02/20$ transitions

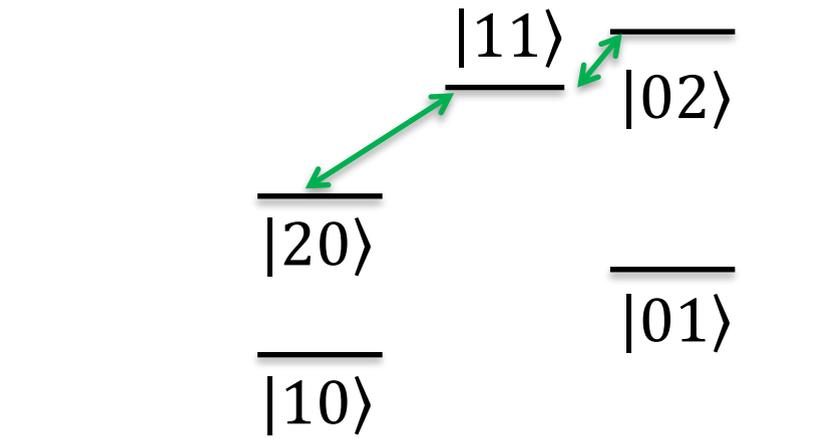
- $|11\rangle$ -level interacts with $|02\rangle$ -level
- coupling strength $J_2 \sim 20 - 40 \text{ MHz}$ ($g \sim 100 - 150 \text{ MHz}$) \rightarrow gate duration $\sim 40 \text{ ns}$
- fast, non-adiabatic tuning of qubits into resonance (adiabatic also possible)
- 2π - rotation after $t = \pi/J_2$
- $|11\rangle$ -state picks up phase $e^{i2\pi/2} = -1$



gate operation:

C-Phase = universal 2-qubit gate

$$\begin{aligned}
 |11\rangle &\longrightarrow -|11\rangle \\
 |01\rangle &\longrightarrow |01\rangle \\
 |10\rangle &\longrightarrow |10\rangle \\
 |00\rangle &\longrightarrow |00\rangle
 \end{aligned}$$



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

2-qubit gate: C-Phase gate using $|11\rangle \leftrightarrow |20\rangle$ transition

Similar to iSWAP gate, resonance condition between $|11\rangle - |20\rangle$

coupling Hamiltonian:

$$H_{\text{cphase}} = J_{20}|11\rangle\langle 20| + h.c. \text{ (or } J_{02}|11\rangle\langle 02| + h.c.)$$

Adiabatic:

slow, adiabatic change of frequency, no transition to $|02\rangle$
 selective energy shift of $|11\rangle$ state caused by coupling
 to $|20\rangle$ state leads to accumulation of phase $|11\rangle \rightarrow e^{iJ_{20}t}|11\rangle$

Non-adiabatic:

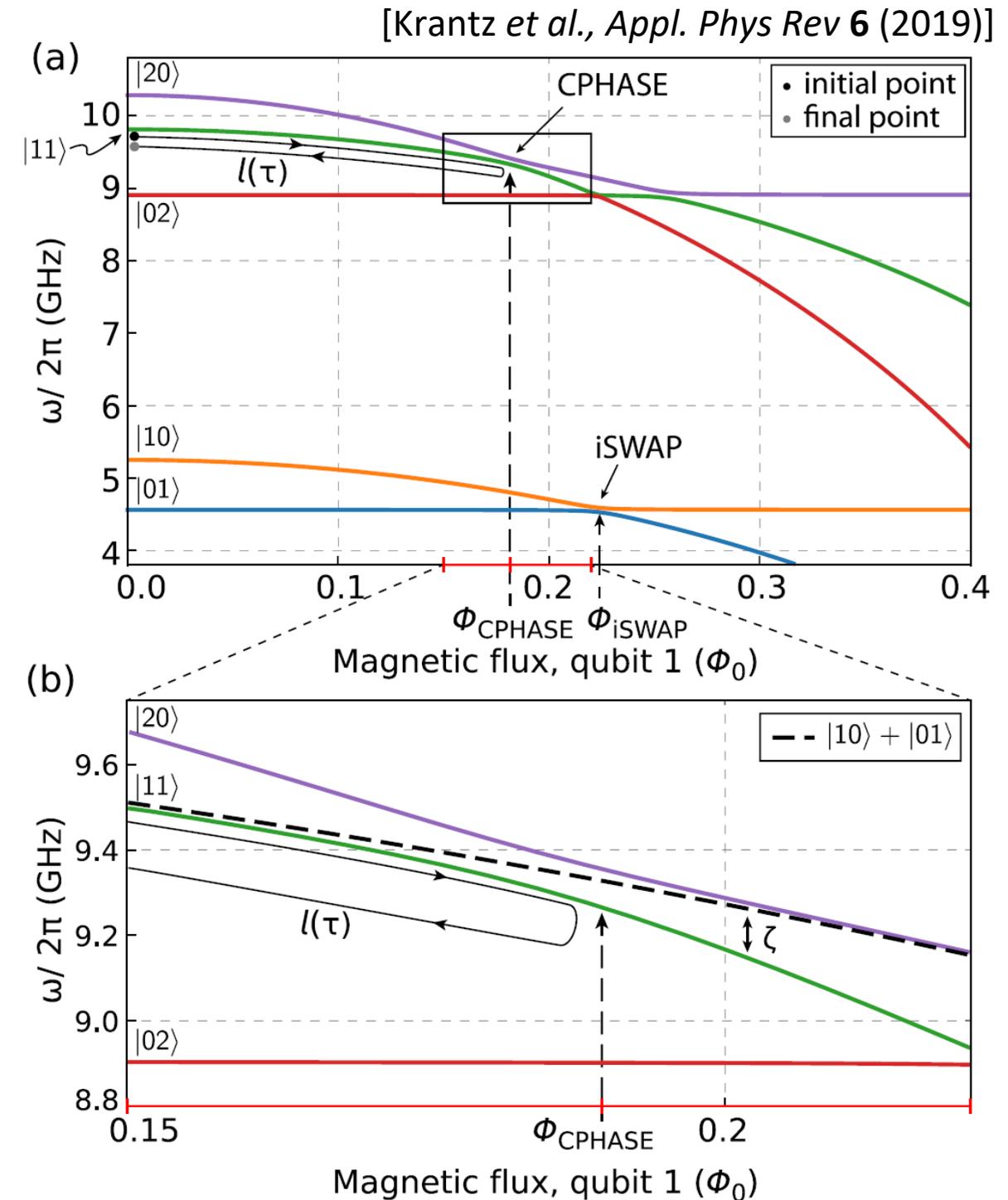
fast, non-adiabatic frequency change
 oscillation between states

$$|11\rangle \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi^+\rangle + |\psi^-\rangle) \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(e^{iJ_{20}t}|\psi^+\rangle + e^{-iJ_{20}t}|\psi^-\rangle)$$

rotation on Bloch sphere (basis $|\psi^\pm\rangle = (|11\rangle + |20\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$)

return to $(|\psi^+\rangle + |\psi^-\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ state after time $t = \pi/J_{20}$

non-adiabatic return: $|11\rangle$ picks up a minus sign $e^{i\pi} = -1$



2-qubit gate: C-Phase gate using $|11\rangle \leftrightarrow |20\rangle$ transition

resulting unitary operation (adiabatic version)
 (including phases acquired by $|10\rangle, |01\rangle, |11\rangle$ relative
 to ground state $|00\rangle$):

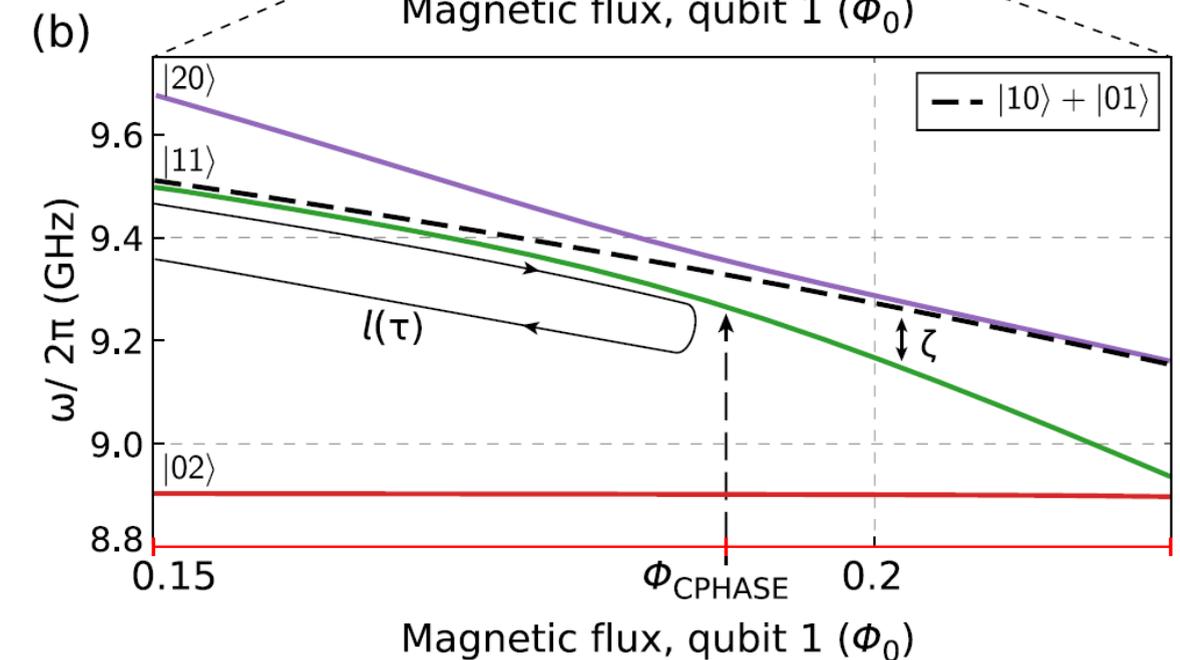
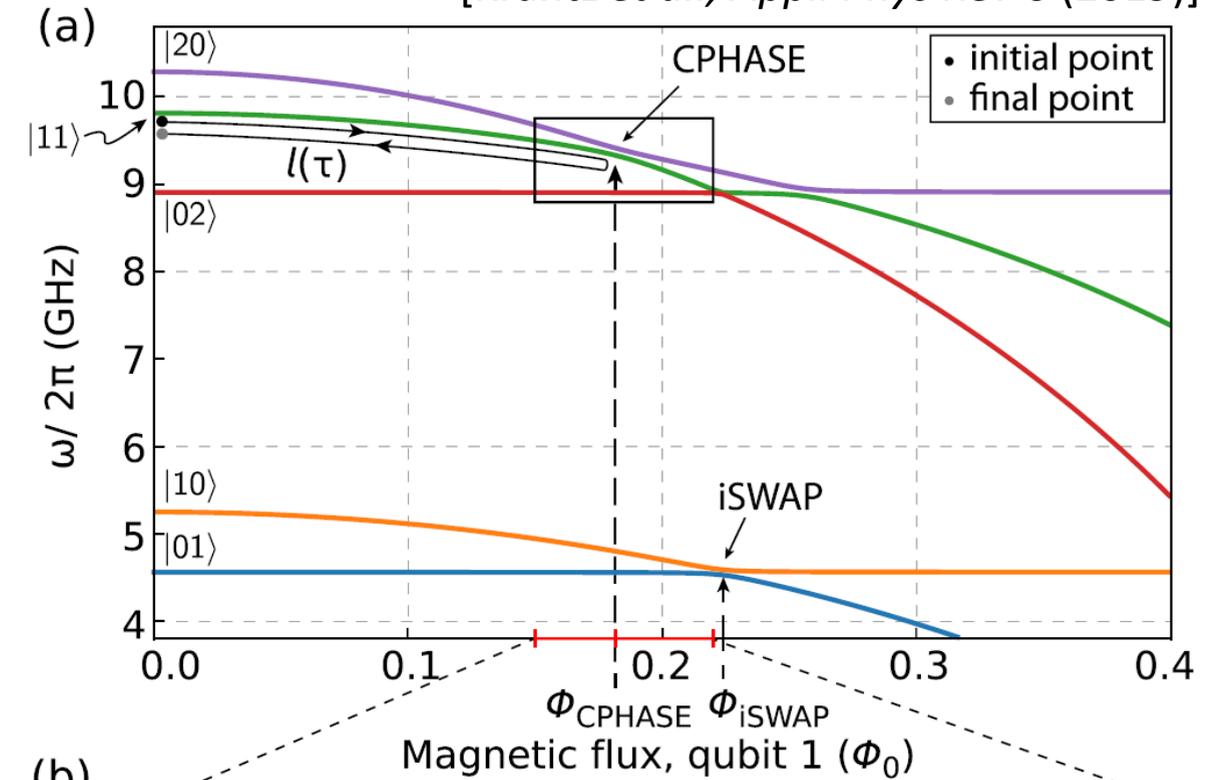
$$U_{ad} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\theta_{10}} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{i\theta_{01}} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i(\zeta t + \theta_{10} + \theta_{01})} \end{pmatrix}$$

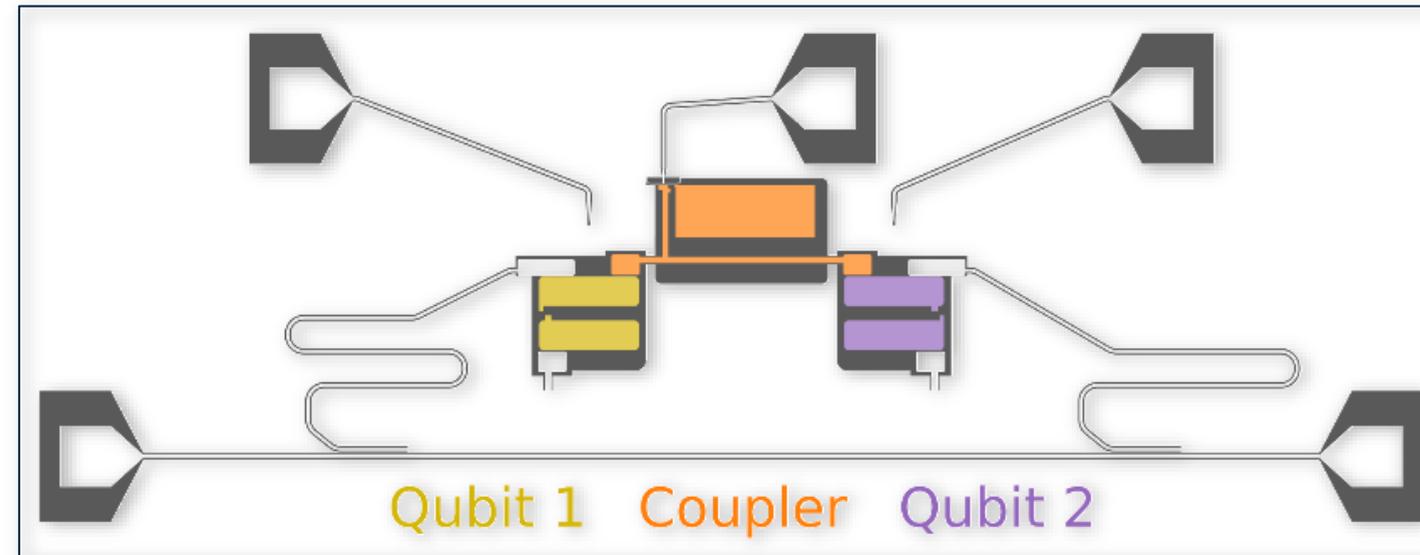
with frequency difference $\zeta = \omega_{11} - (\omega_{01} + \omega_{10})$

by choosing $\zeta t = \pi$ plus cancellation of single qubit phases
 (virtual Z-shifts after pulse):

$$U_{CPhase} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i\pi} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

[Krantz *et al.*, *Appl. Phys Rev* 6 (2019)]

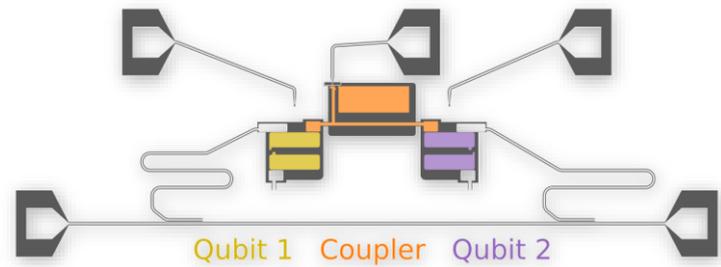




- **Fixed frequency** qubits with control via dedicated **drive lines**
- Two-qubit **CPHASE** gate by adiabatic flux control of **tunable coupler**

	Frequency ω	Anharmonicity α	T_1	T_2^{Echo}	T_2^*
Qubit 1	4.115 GHz	-261(1) MHz	52(4) μ s	111(41) μ s	23(4) μ s
Qubit 2	3.651 GHz	-275(1) MHz	103(20) μ s	54(11) μ s	5.6(5) μ s
Coupler	3.7 - 6.3 GHz	-124 (1) MHz	16(5) μ s	–	–

Two-qubit controlled phase gate @ WMI (N. Glaser)

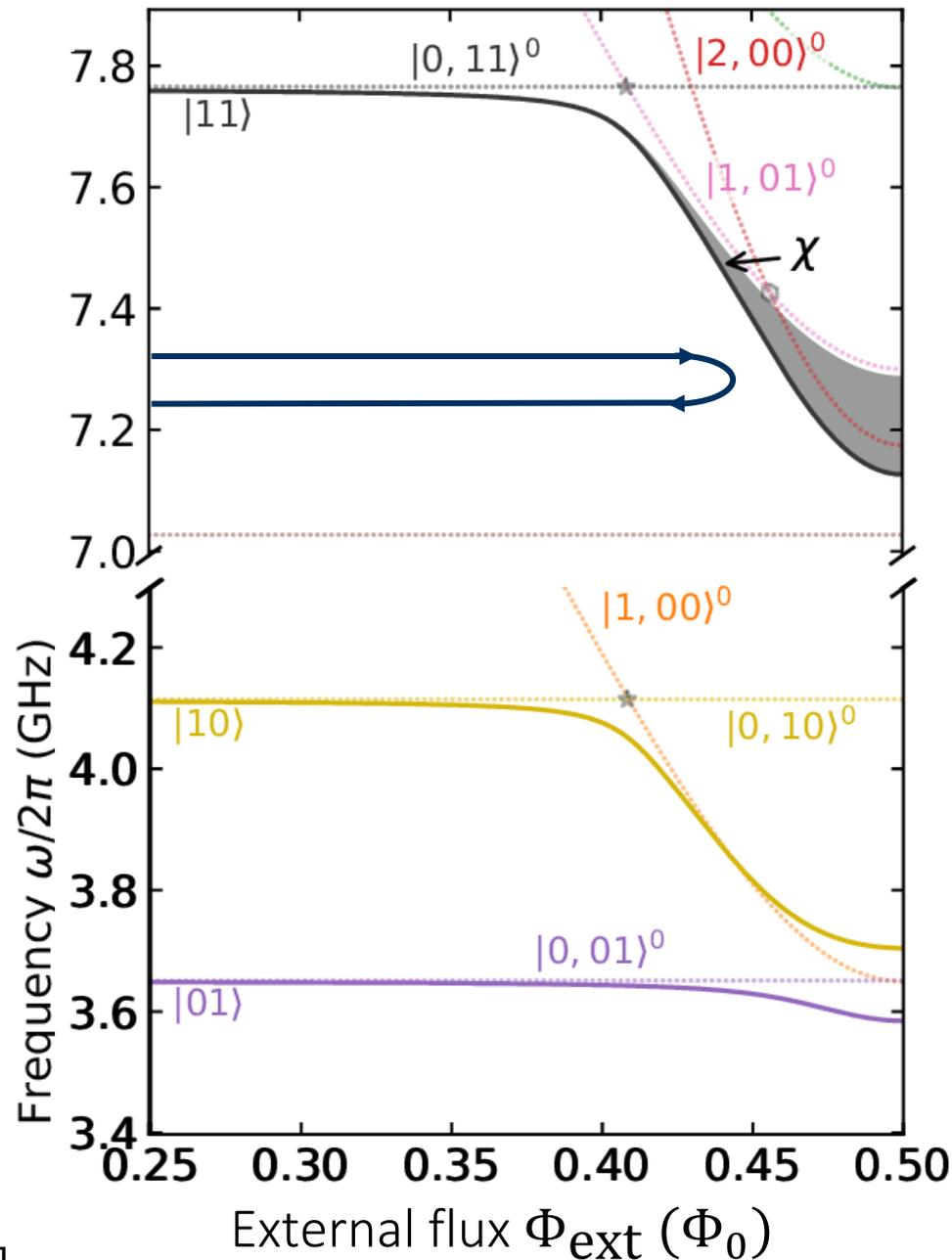


$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\alpha} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & e^{i\beta} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i(\varphi+\alpha+\beta)} \end{pmatrix}$$

with virtual Z rotations

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i\varphi} \end{pmatrix}$$

[M. C. Collodo *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **125**, 240502 (2020)
 Y. Xu *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **125**, 240503 (2020)
 J. Chu & F. Yan, *Physical Review Applied*, **16** (5), 054020 (2021).
 Stehlik, J. *et al.*, *Physical Review Letters*, **127** (8), 080505 (2021)]



$$\chi = \omega_{11} - (\omega_{01} + \omega_{10})$$

$$\varphi = \int_0^{t_p} \chi(\Phi_{\text{ext}}(\tau)) d\tau$$

adiabatic states: $|n_1 n_2\rangle$
 bare states: $|n_c, n_1 n_2\rangle^0$

Different pulse shapes: **optimize parameters for highest fidelity (numerical simulation)**

	#Parameters	Pulse shape	t_p ($\mathcal{F} > 99.9\%$)
Gaussian-square	3		51 ns
Fourier Series	5		15 ns
Piecewise-constant Using AWG limitations	22		9 ns

Trade-off between parameter count and gate time / fidelity

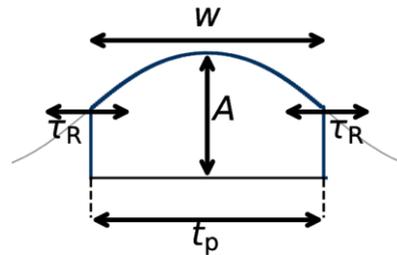
C³-toolset: N. Wittler, *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. Applied* **15**, 034080 (2021)

Two-qubit (C-Phase) gate optimized pulse shapes

Gaussian Square

- 3x Shape parameters
- 2x Z-Rotation

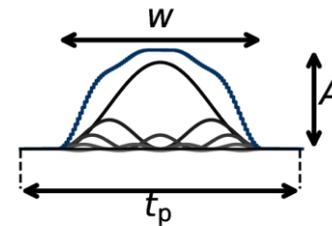
Convergence:
40 evolutions (40 min)



Fourier Series

- 5x Fourier parameter
- 1x Width
- 2x Z-Rotation

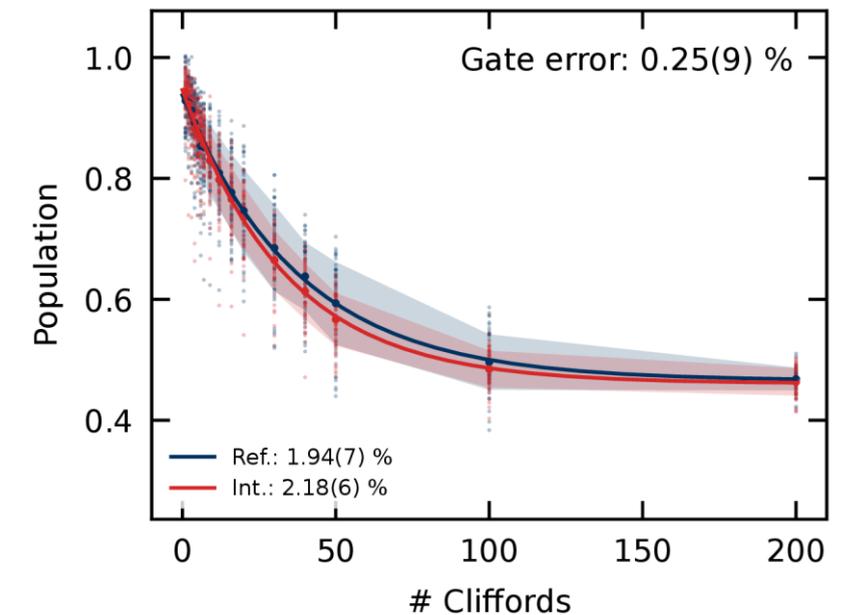
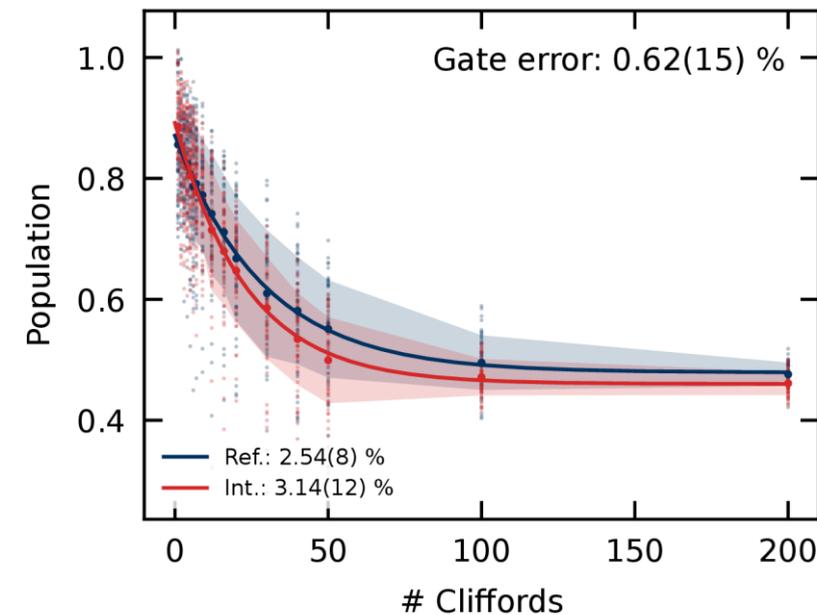
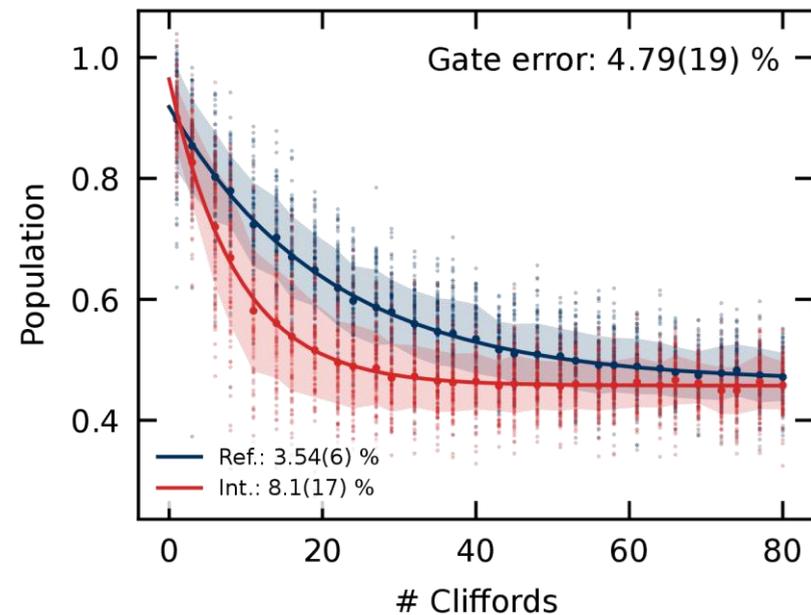
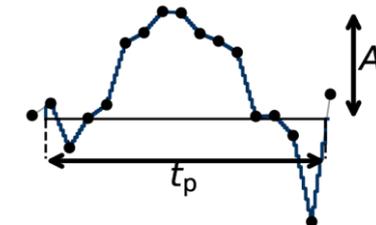
Convergence:
80 evolutions (80 min)



Linear Interpolation

- 17x Nodes
- 1x Amplitude, 1x Width
- 2x Z-Rotation

Convergence:
260 evolutions (250 min)



[N. Glaser *et al.*, in prep. (2024)]

Quantum Error Correction

The Universal Quantum Computing System

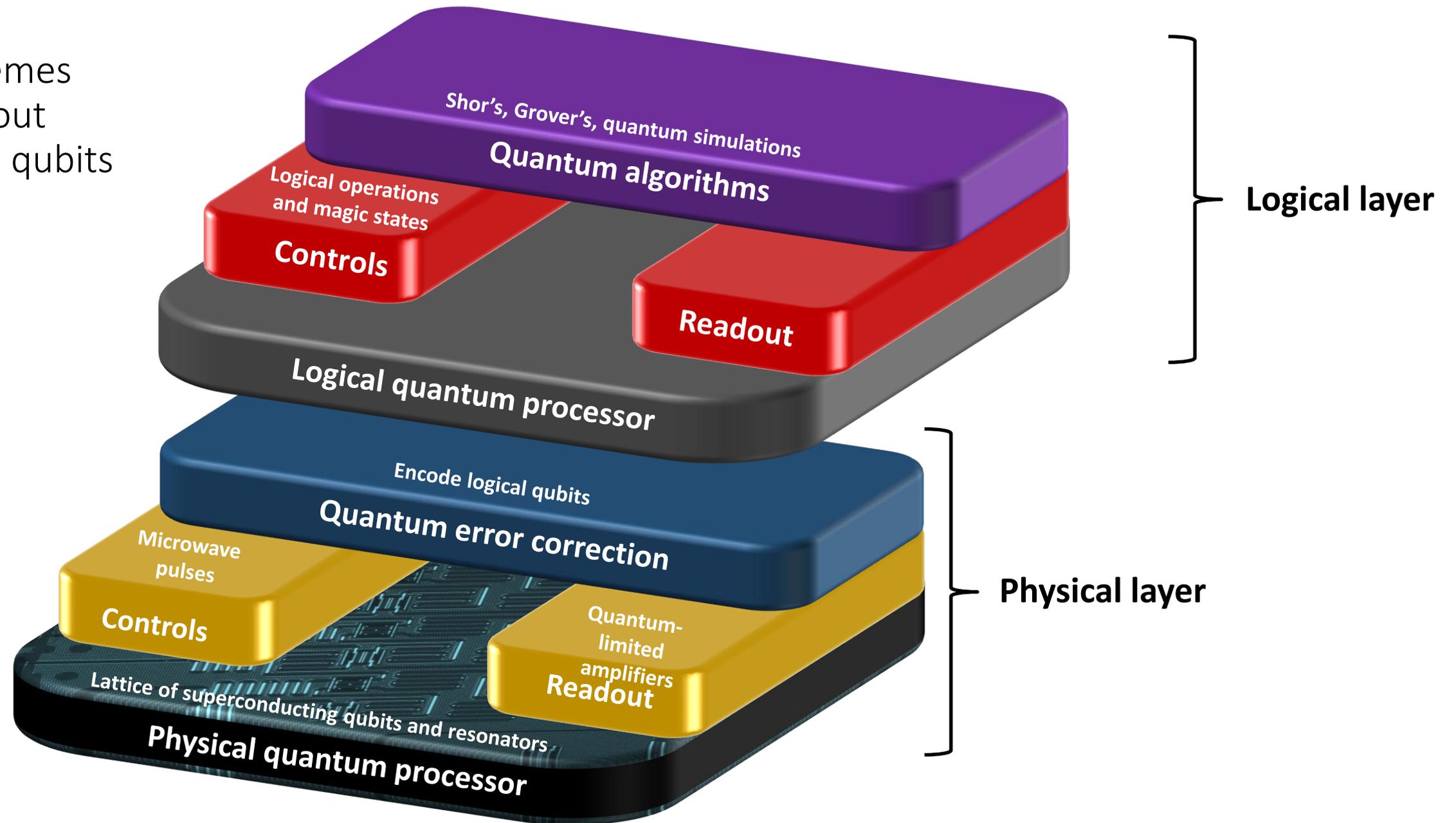
Idea:

use error correction schemes to make a 'logical' qubit out of several 'good' physical qubits

$$|0\rangle \rightarrow |00 \dots 0\rangle$$

$$|1\rangle \rightarrow |11 \dots 1\rangle$$

100-1000 x



[Gambetta, Chow, Steffen, *npj Quantum Information* 3, 2 (2017)]

Classical:

- encode bit value 0 and 1 in '*logical 0*' and '*logical 1*' using multiple bits (e.g., 3)
- assume **small error probability** p for a bit to flip its value
- **majority voting**: which value occurs more often determines logical state
(probability of ≥ 2 errors $p_e = 3p^2(1 - p) + p^3$:
 $p_e < p$ for $p < \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow$ error is reduced)

Why is the repetition code not applicable in QM?

No-cloning: encoding scheme needed

Errors are **analog:** different errors (bit-& phase-flip): must be detected simultaneously

Measurement destroys quantum information

Classical:

- encode bit value 0 and 1 in '*logical 0*' and '*logical 1*' using multiple bits (e.g. 3)

$$0 \rightarrow 000 \text{ \& } 1 \rightarrow 111$$

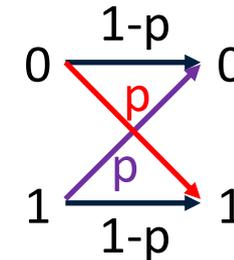
- assume **small error probability** p for a bit to flip its value

$$0 = 000 \rightarrow 001, 010, 100 \text{ or}$$

$$1 = 111 \rightarrow 110, 101, 011$$

- **majority voting**: which value occurs more often determines logical state

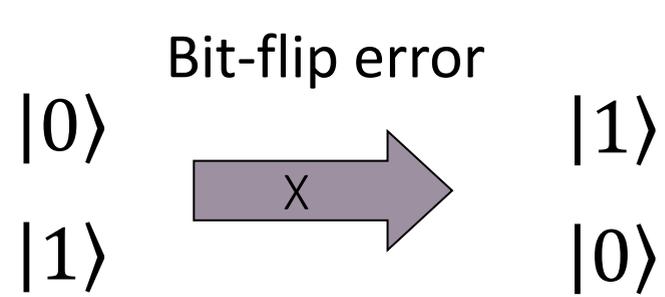
(probability of ≥ 2 errors $p_e = 3p^2(1 - p) + p^3$: $p_e < p$ for $p < \frac{1}{2}$ \rightarrow error is reduced)



Quantum:

- **No-cloning**: encoding scheme needed
- Errors are '**analog**': different errors (bit-& phase-flip): must be detected simultaneously
- **Measurement destroys** quantum information

Repetition Code: Bit-flip channel Encoding

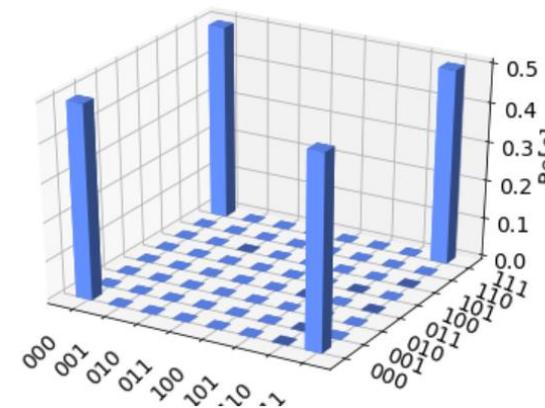
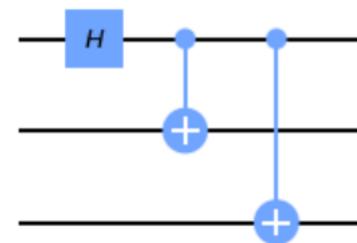
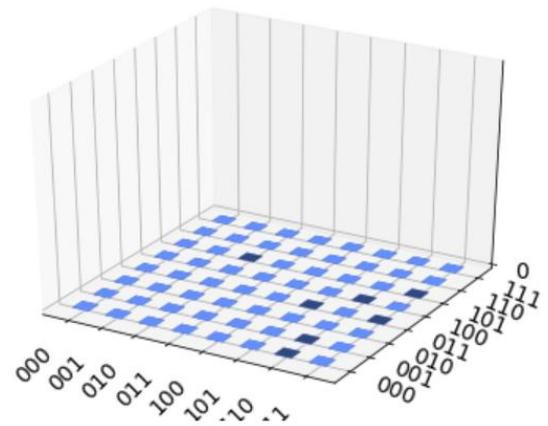
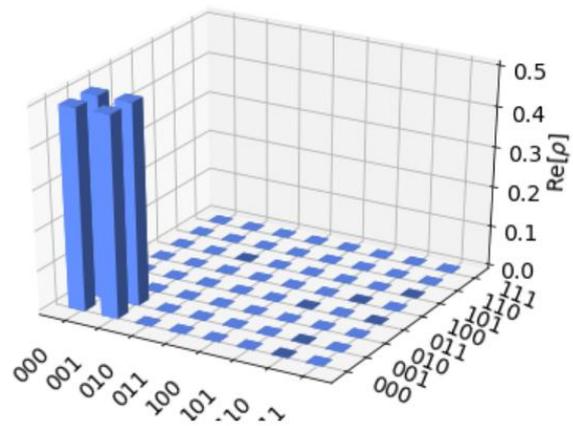


$$|0\rangle \rightarrow |0\rangle_L = |000\rangle$$

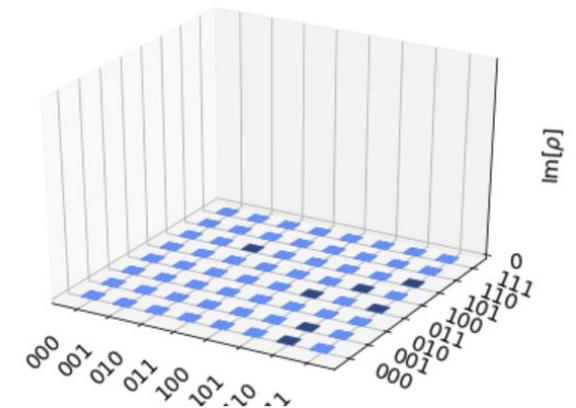
$$|1\rangle \rightarrow |1\rangle_L = |111\rangle$$

To detect error: encode 1 bit in multiple (3) bits

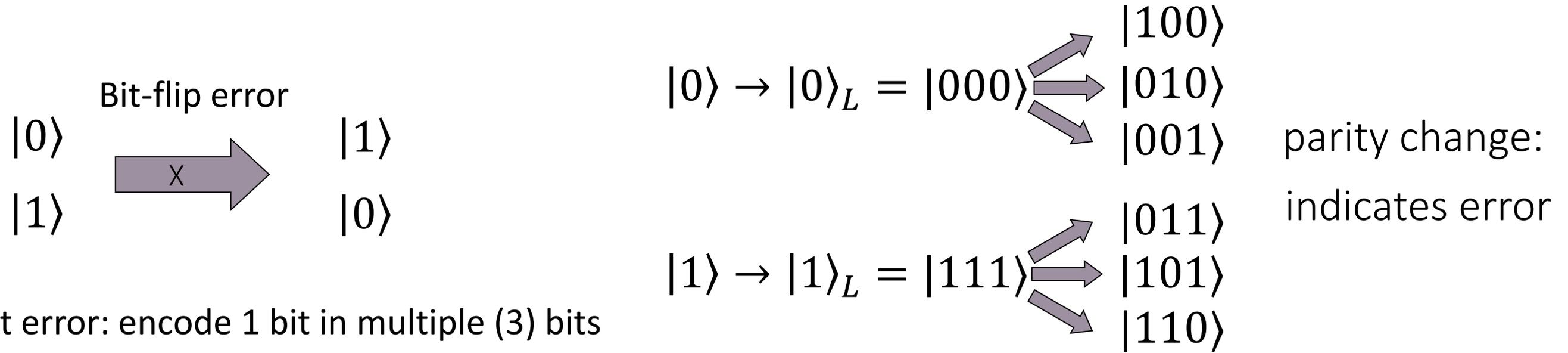
Superposition



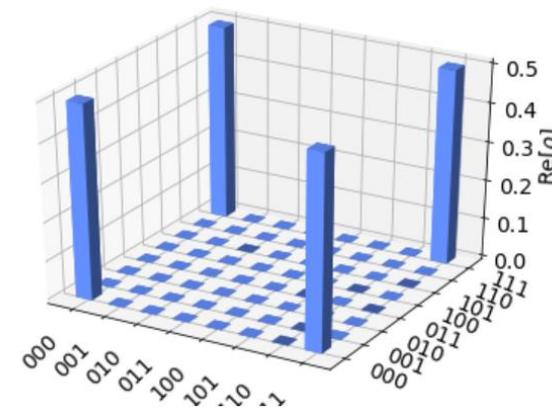
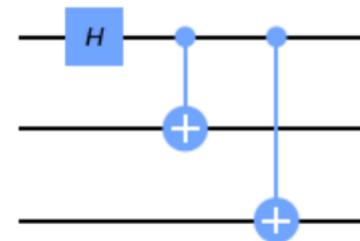
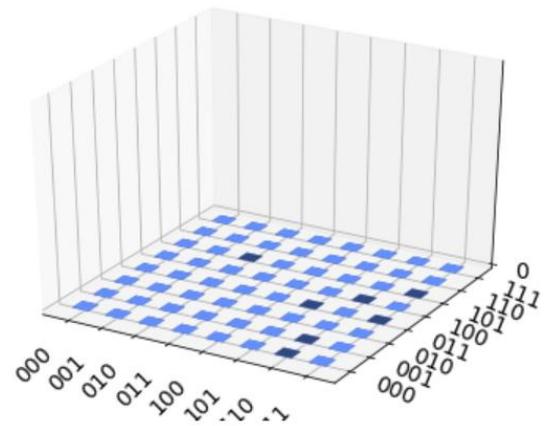
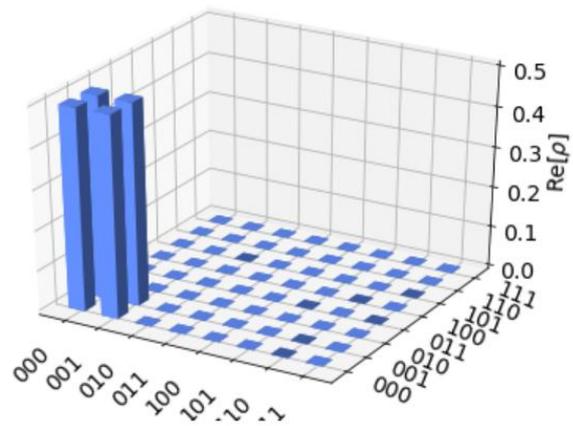
Logical superposition $|0\rangle_L + |1\rangle_L = |000\rangle + |111\rangle$



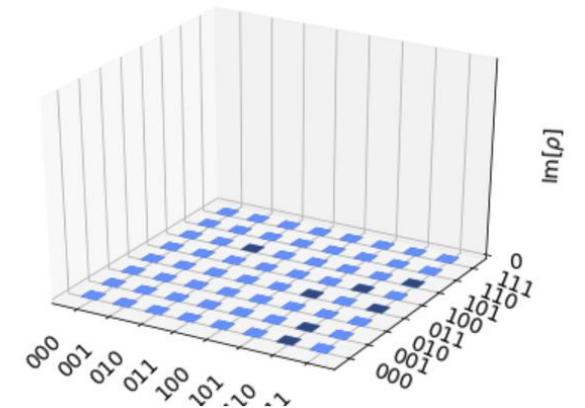
Repetition Code: Bit-flip channel Encoding



Superposition



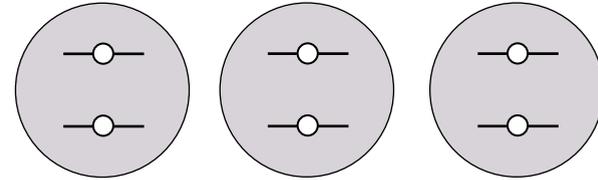
Logical superposition $|0\rangle_L + |1\rangle_L = |000\rangle + |111\rangle$



Repetition Code: Syndrome Measurement / Error Detection

measure Z_1Z_2 & Z_2Z_3 to identify all possible bit-flip errors

$$|\psi\rangle \propto |000\rangle + |111\rangle$$



$$\langle Z_1Z_2 \rangle = \langle \psi | Z_1Z_2 | \psi \rangle =$$

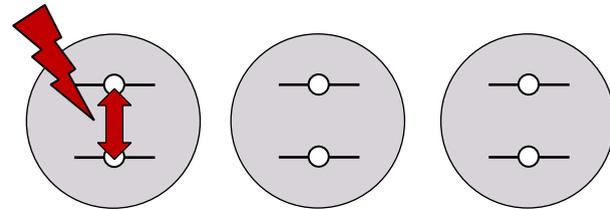
$$\langle 000 | (-1) \cdot (-1) | 000 \rangle + \langle 111 | 1 \cdot 1 | 111 \rangle = \mathbf{1}$$

$$\langle Z_2Z_3 \rangle = \langle \psi | Z_2Z_3 | \psi \rangle =$$

$$\langle 000 | (-1) \cdot (-1) | 000 \rangle + \langle 111 | 1 \cdot 1 | 111 \rangle = \mathbf{1}$$

Bit-flip error qubit 1:

$$|100\rangle + |011\rangle$$

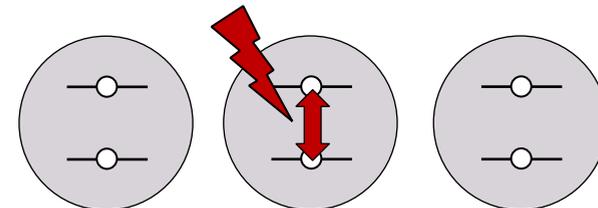


$$\langle Z_1Z_2 \rangle = \langle \psi | Z_1Z_2 | \psi \rangle = 1 \cdot (-1) + (-1) \cdot 1 = \mathbf{-1}$$

$$\langle Z_2Z_3 \rangle = \langle \psi | Z_2Z_3 | \psi \rangle = (-1) \cdot (-1) + 1 \cdot 1 = \mathbf{1}$$

Bit-flip error qubit 2:

$$|010\rangle + |101\rangle$$

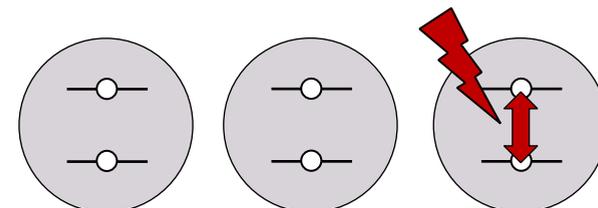


$$\langle Z_1Z_2 \rangle = \mathbf{-1}$$

$$\langle Z_2Z_3 \rangle = \mathbf{-1}$$

Bit-flip error qubit 3:

$$|001\rangle + |110\rangle$$



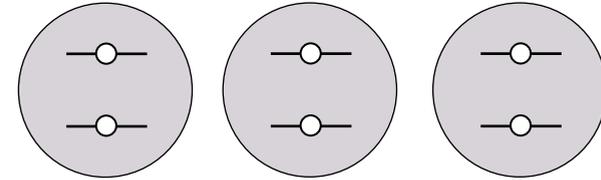
$$\langle Z_1Z_2 \rangle = \mathbf{1}$$

$$\langle Z_2Z_3 \rangle = \mathbf{-1}$$

Repetition Code: Syndrome Measurement / Error Detection

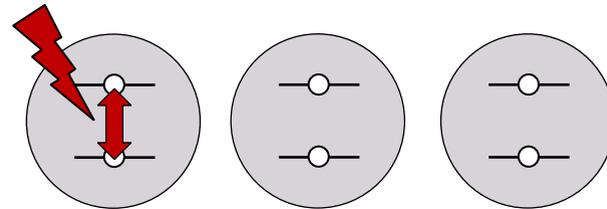
measure Z_1Z_2 & Z_2Z_3 to identify all possible bit-flip errors

$$|\psi\rangle \propto |000\rangle + |111\rangle$$



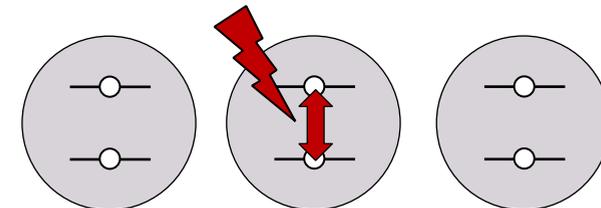
Bit-flip error qubit 1:

$$|100\rangle + |011\rangle$$



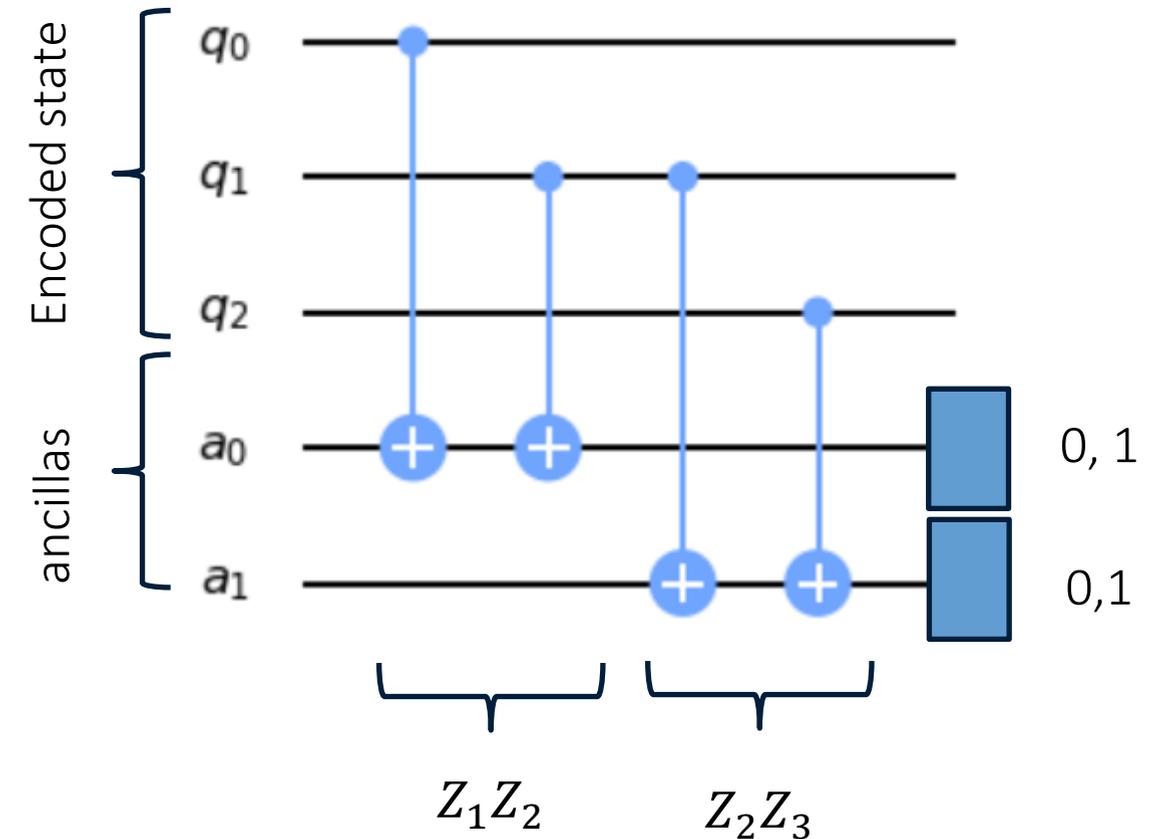
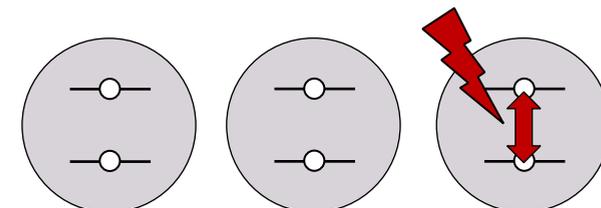
Bit-flip error qubit 2:

$$|100\rangle + |011\rangle$$



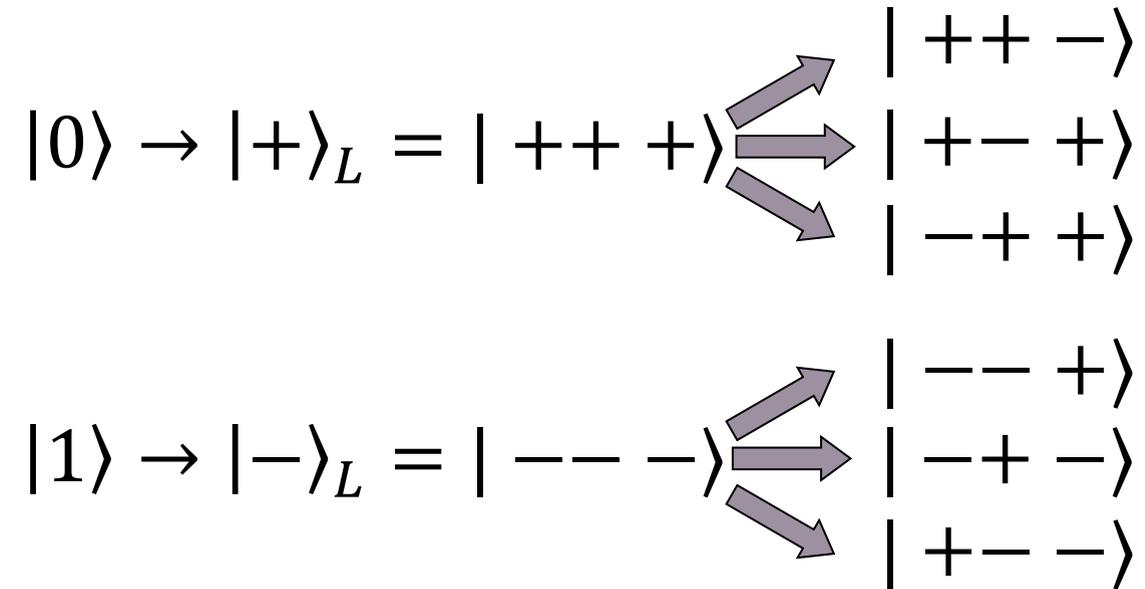
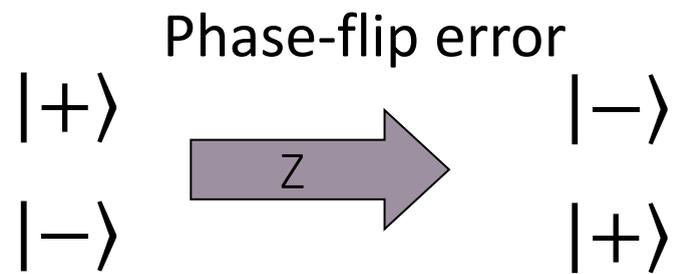
Bit-flip error qubit 3:

$$|100\rangle + |011\rangle$$

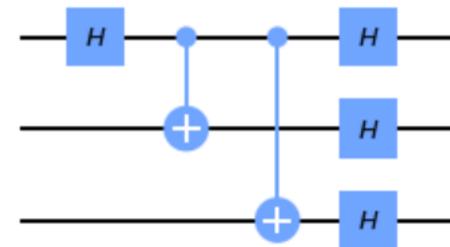


Superposition is not destroyed,
only information about error is extracted!

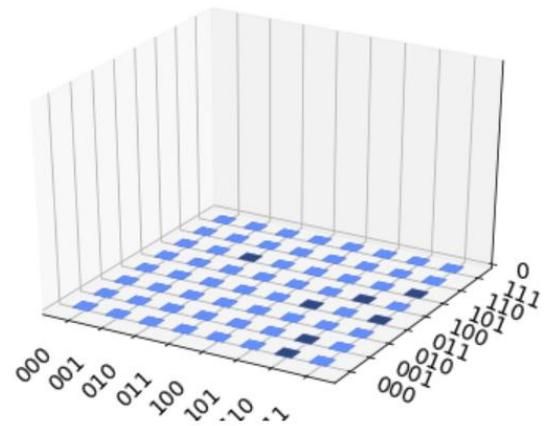
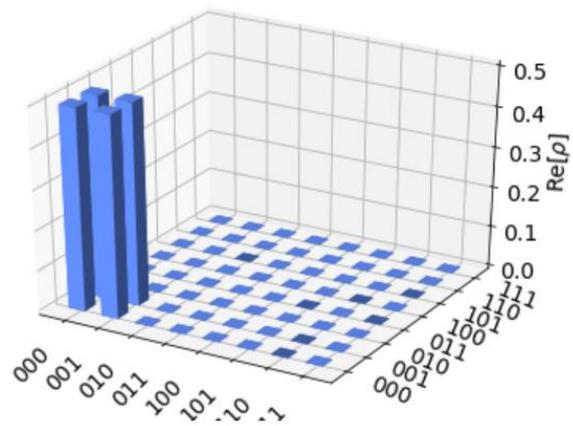
Repetition Code: Phase-flip channel Encoding



To detect error: encode 1 bit in multiple (3) bits

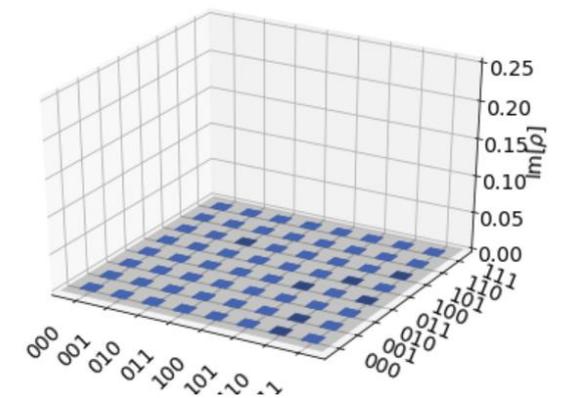
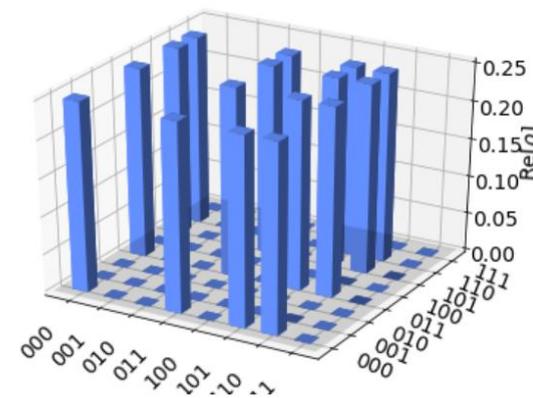


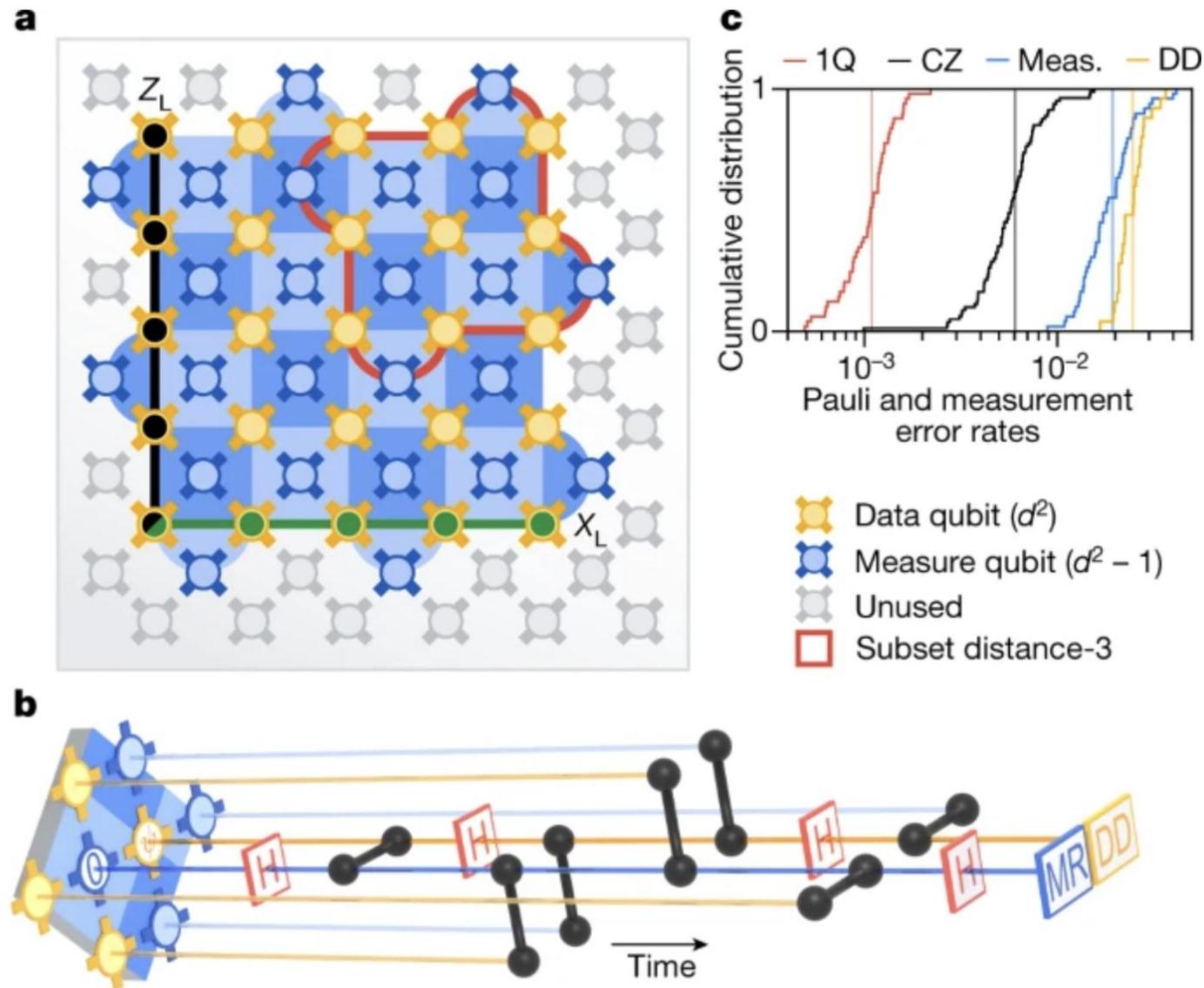
Superposition



Logical superposition

$$|0\rangle_L + |1\rangle_L = |+++ \rangle + |-- - \rangle$$

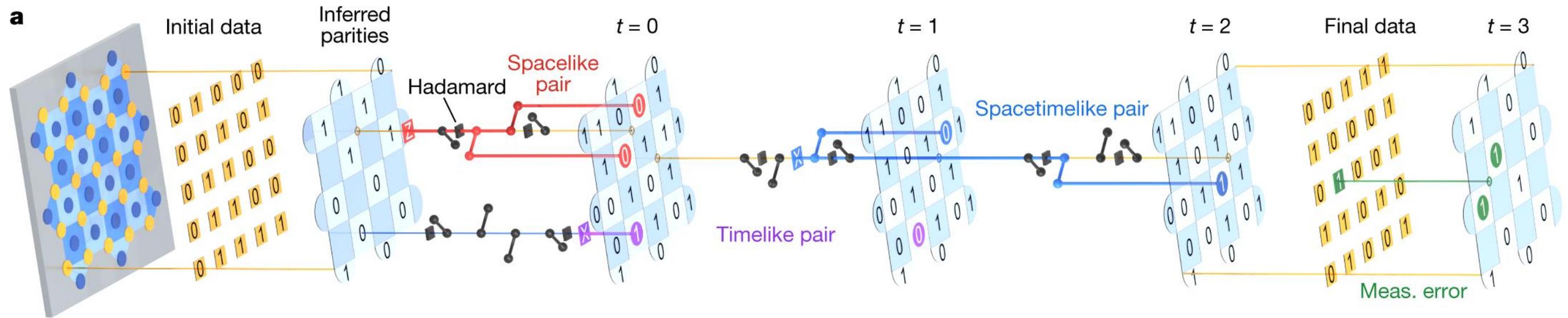




- 72-qubit Sycamore processor (a)
- $T_1 = 20\mu s$, $T_{2,CPMG} = 30\mu s$
- distance-3 & distance-5 surface code
- 49 qubits (25 data, 24 measure) for distance 5
- measure X (b - dark blue) & Z stabilizers (b - light blue)
- Cycle duration: 921 ns
(25ns single-qubit gates, 34ns two-qubit gates, 500ns measurement, 160ns reset)

Error detection cycle

Illustration of a surface code experiment with different types of errors happening



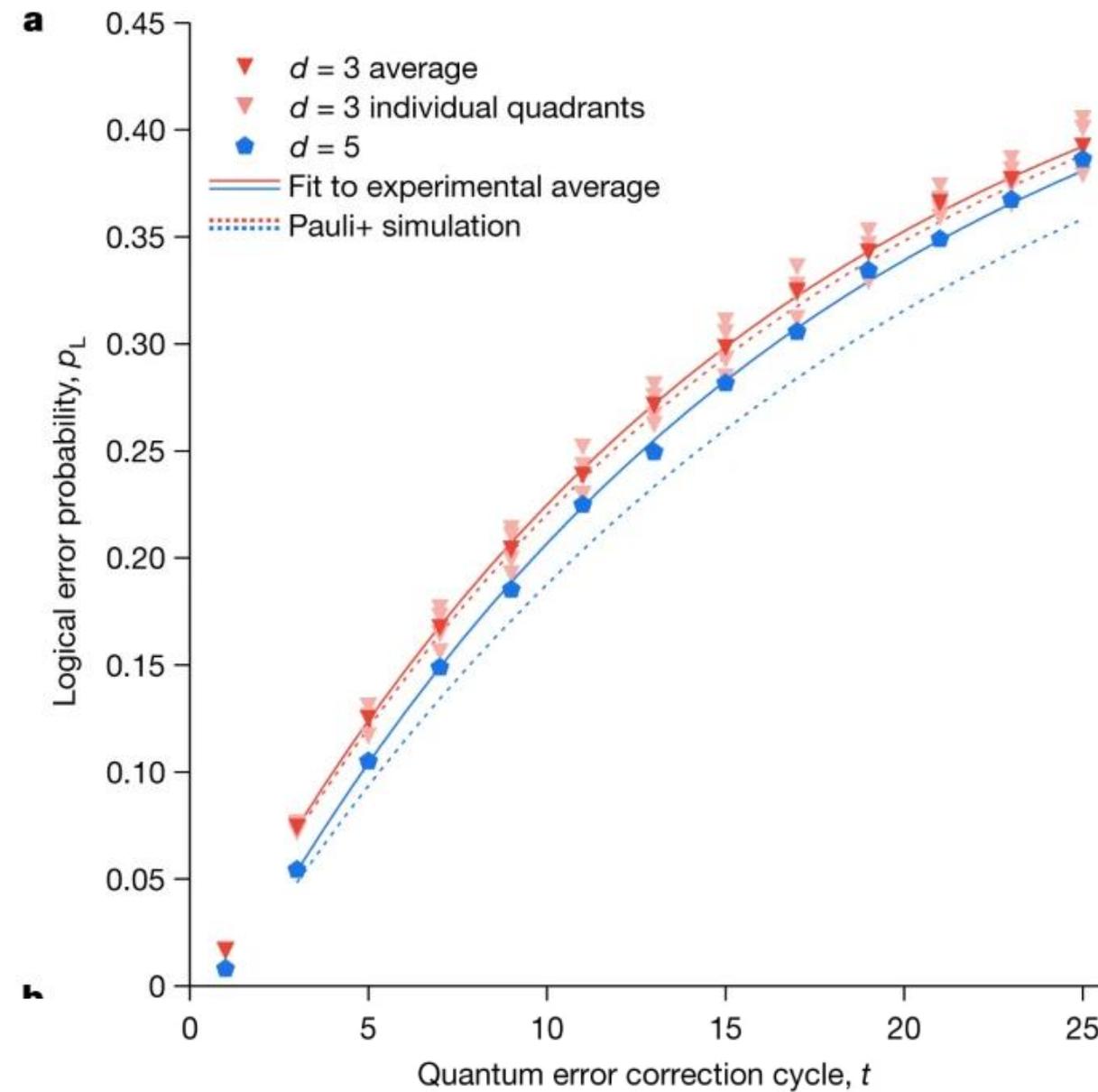
(some) Detection pairs:

1. Z error on data qubit (red) – spacelike pair
2. Measurement error on measurement qubit (purple) – timelike pair
3. X error during CZ gate (blue) – spacetime pair
4. Measurement error on data qubit (green) – detected in final Z parities
5. Etc... (more complex patterns for Y errors)

Logical error:

instance succeeds if the corrected logical measurement agrees with the known initial state, otherwise a logical error has occurred (with probability p_L)

Result: first indication that
distance-5 code logical error (2.914)
is (a bit) smaller than
distance-3 code logical error (3.028)!



Challenges ahead

Challenges ahead (Hardware centric)

Scaling: *guarantee performance at scale*

cross-coupling and cross-talk, uniformity & reproducibility,
scalable control, I/O, size of qubits, thermal budget

Coherence: *maximize lifetime of quantum states*

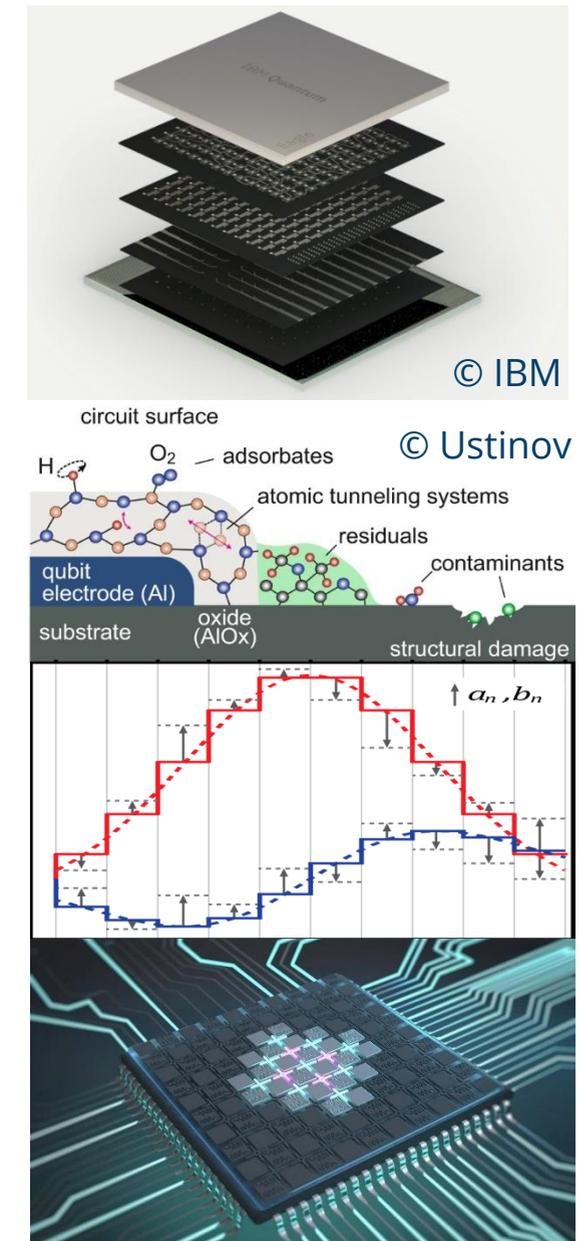
identification of loss channels and noise sources
(two-level fluctuators, quasi-particles and ionizing radiation, B-field
fluctuations), mitigation (by design, by choice of materials, by fabrication)

Control & readout: *coherence-limited high-fidelity gates*

pulse optimization, benchmarking sequences,
multi-qubit operations & extended gate sets

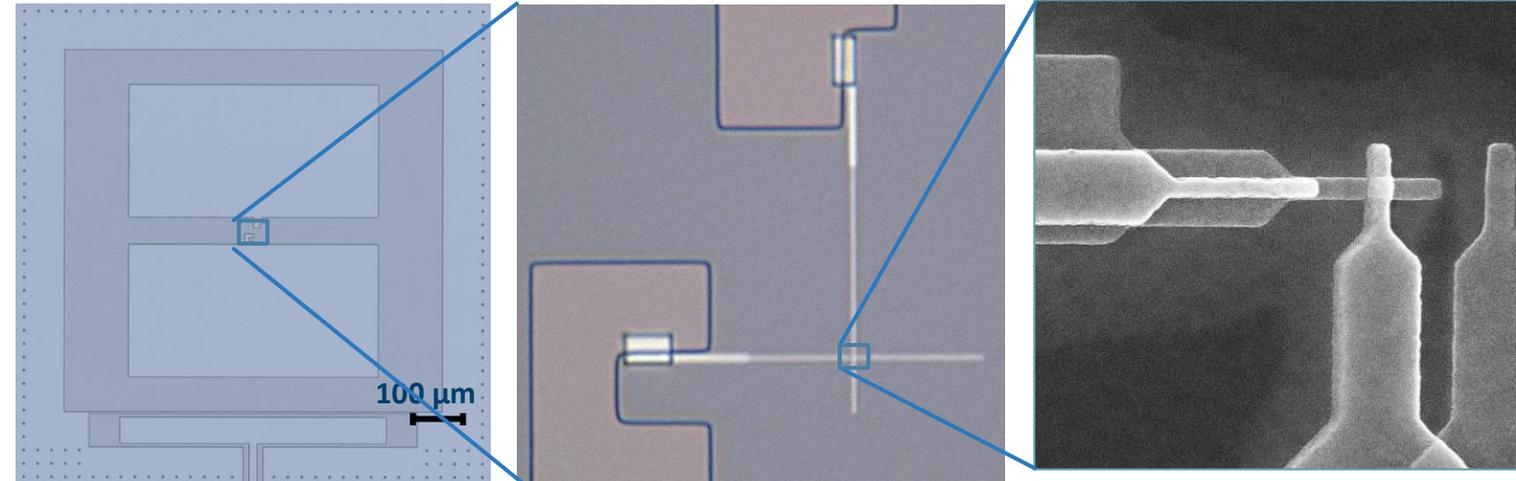
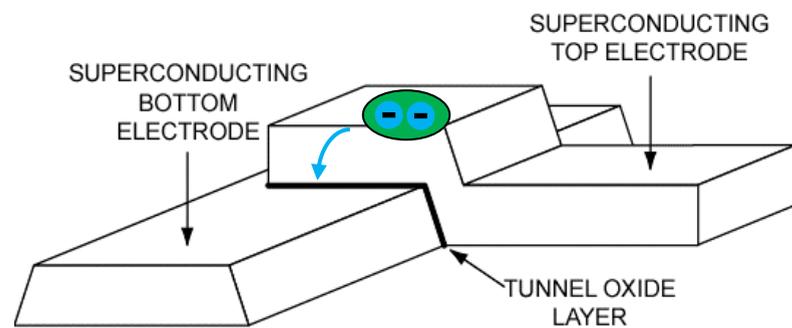
System: *guarantee stable operation conditions*

automated calibration & bring-up, run-time environment,
characterization & verification, quantum/classical integration,
(cryogenic) electronics



Scaling: Reproducibility of Josephson junctions

Josephson junction circuit = qubit



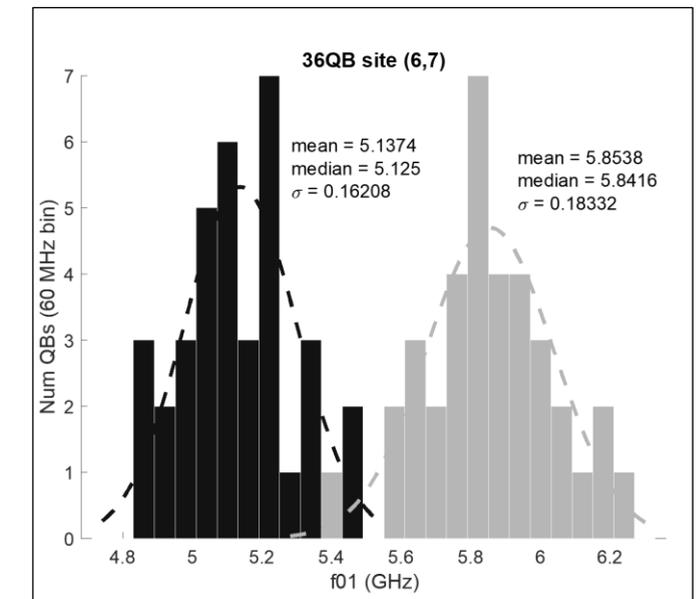
aluminum
~ 1nm barrier, Al_2O_3
aluminum

Qubit frequency: $\omega_q \approx \sqrt{8 E_J E_C} - E_C$ around 5 – 6 GHz

(charging energy E_C ; Josephson energy $E_J = \phi_0 I_C$; critical current $I_C \propto A/d$)

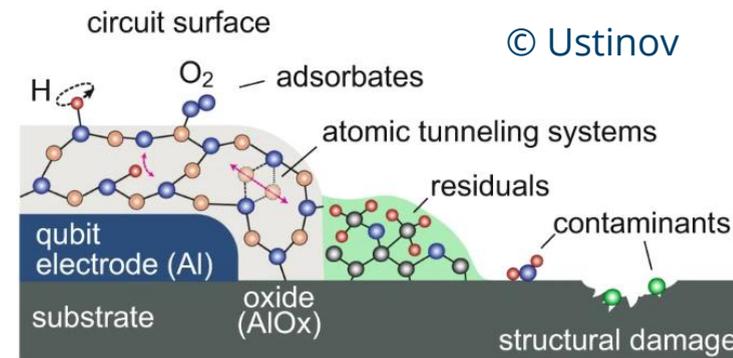
Reproducibility: currently 150 – 200 MHz spread caused by variations of E_J caused (most likely) by lithography uncertainties

Mitigation: improved fabrication, ‘retro-fitting’ of junctions



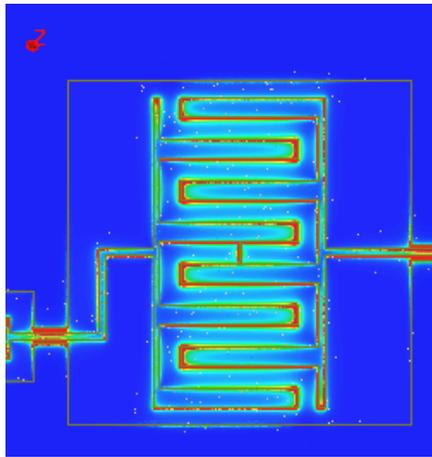
Coherence: Intrinsic loss (T_1)

Origin:
defects and adsorbates (two-level fluctuators)
(mostly) at interfaces

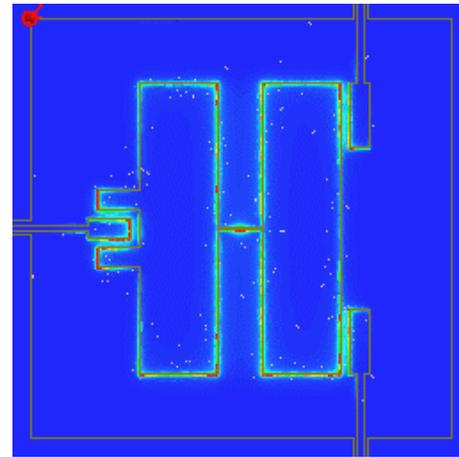


Strategy 'design': minimize e-field density on interfaces

Strategy 'fabrication': improve technology

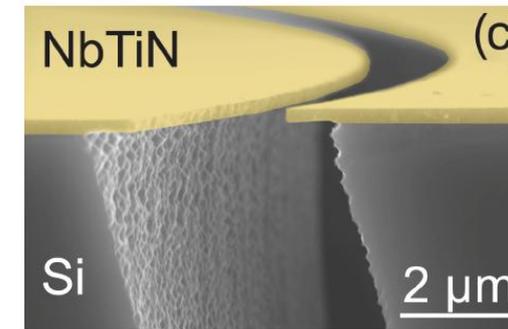


$Q \approx 200 - 500k$
 $T_1 \approx 5 - 10\mu s$



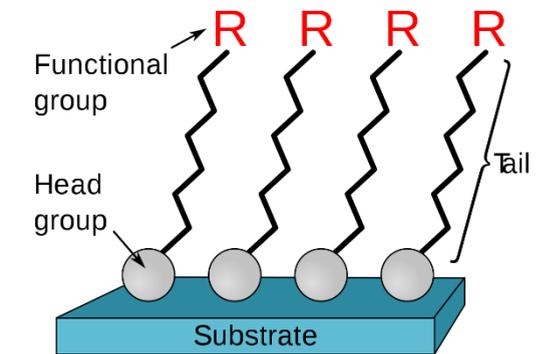
$Q \approx 1.5 - 2.4M$
 $T_1 \approx 40 - 80\mu s$

[Wenner 2011; Geerlings 2012; Gambetta 2017]



avoid lossy
interfaces (trenches, ...)

© Bruno et al 2015

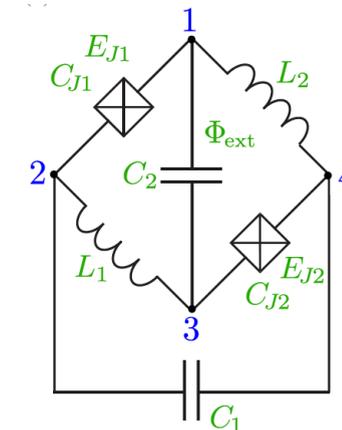
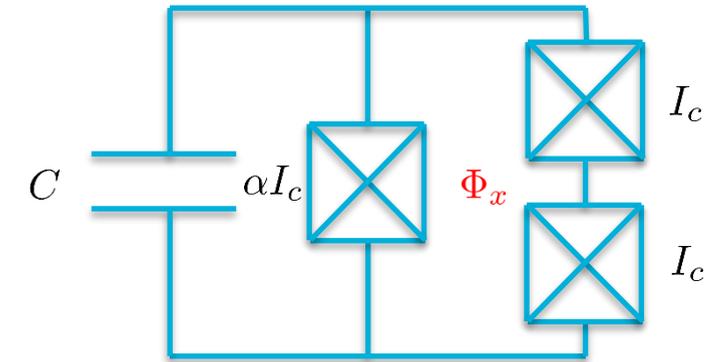
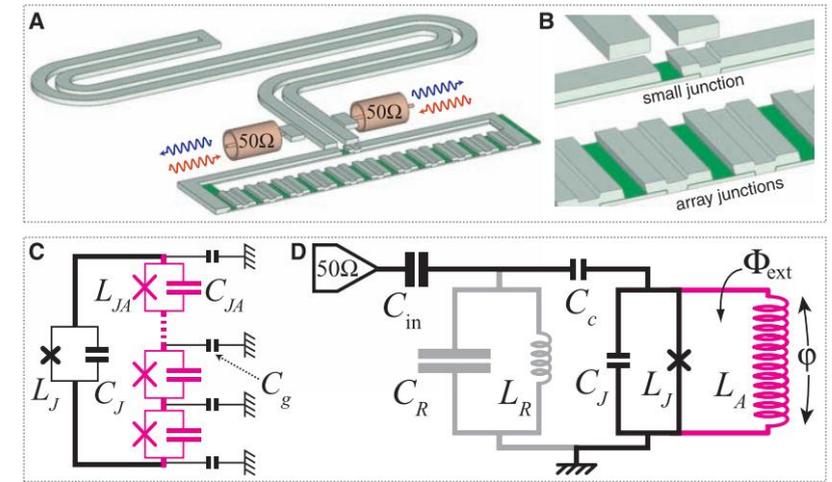
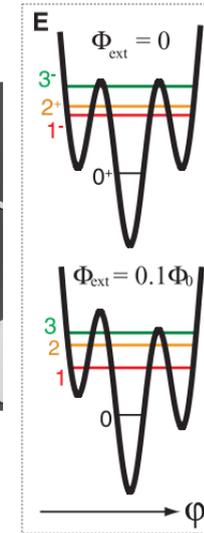
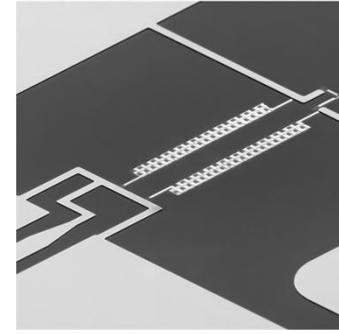


surface treatment
(cleaning, passivation,...)

© Wikipedia

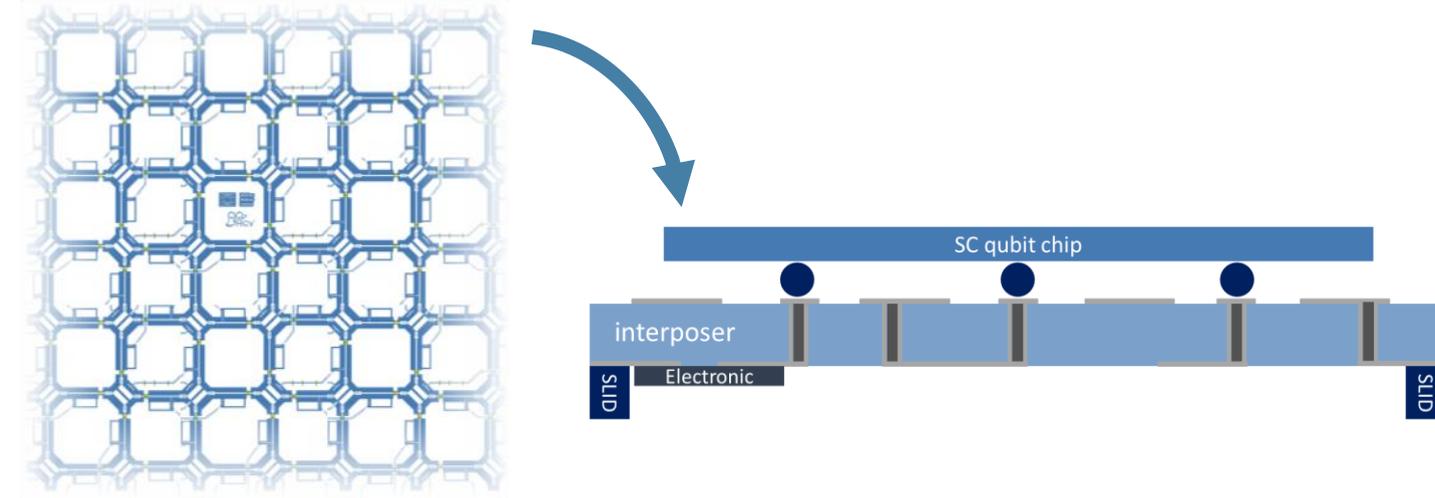
Novel types of qubits

- Fluxonium:
[Manucharyan *et al.*, *Science* **326**, 113 (2009)]
single small JJ shunted by a large inductance
- Capacitively-Shunted Flux qubit (CSFQ):
[Steffen *et al.*, *PRL* **105**, 100502 (2010); Yan *et al.* *Nat Comm* **7** (2016)]
Flux-qubit with 3-junction loop,
capacitively shunted to avoid charge noise
- $0 - \pi$ qubit
[Brooks *et al.*, *Phys. Rev. A* **87**, 52306 (2013)]
symmetry protected against relaxation and dephasing
- 'your new qubit'...

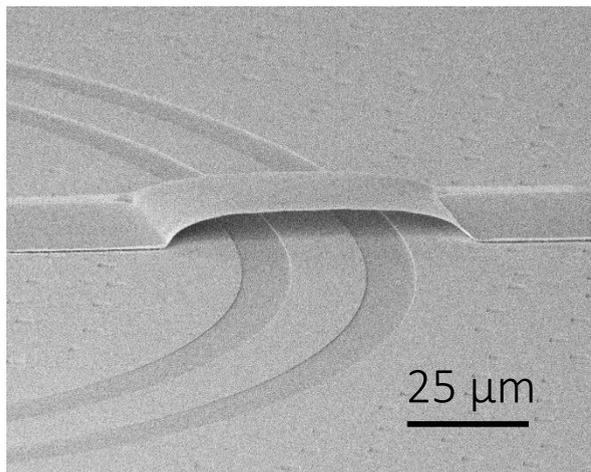


Requirement for scalability:

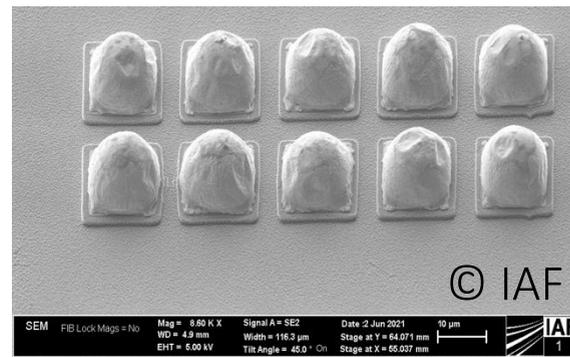
- addressability of all qubits (3-5 controls per qubit)
→ would require $> 10^6$ signal lines for universal QC
- reduction of modes in large chips
- reduction of cross-talk



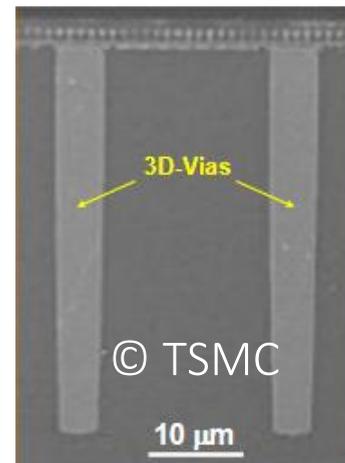
Technologies in fabrication:



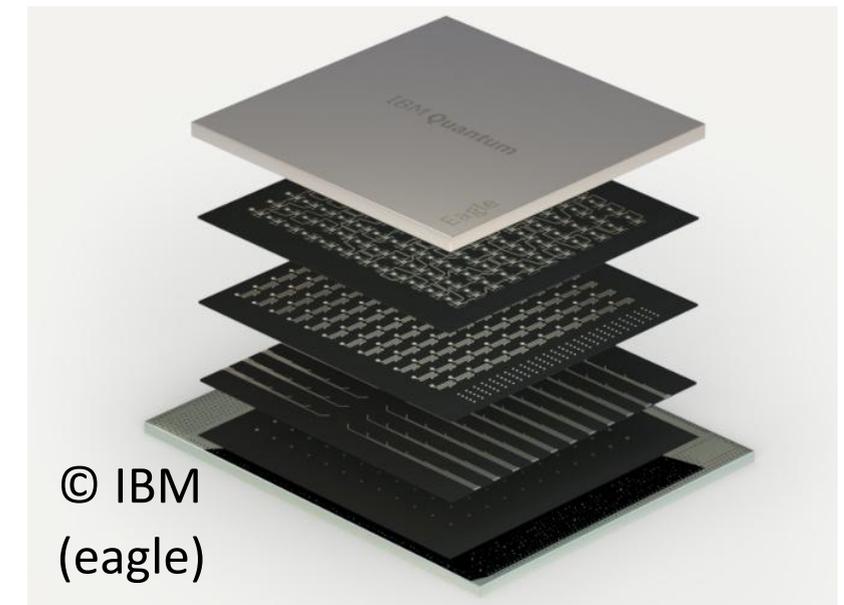
Airbridges



Bump-bonds
(flip-chip)

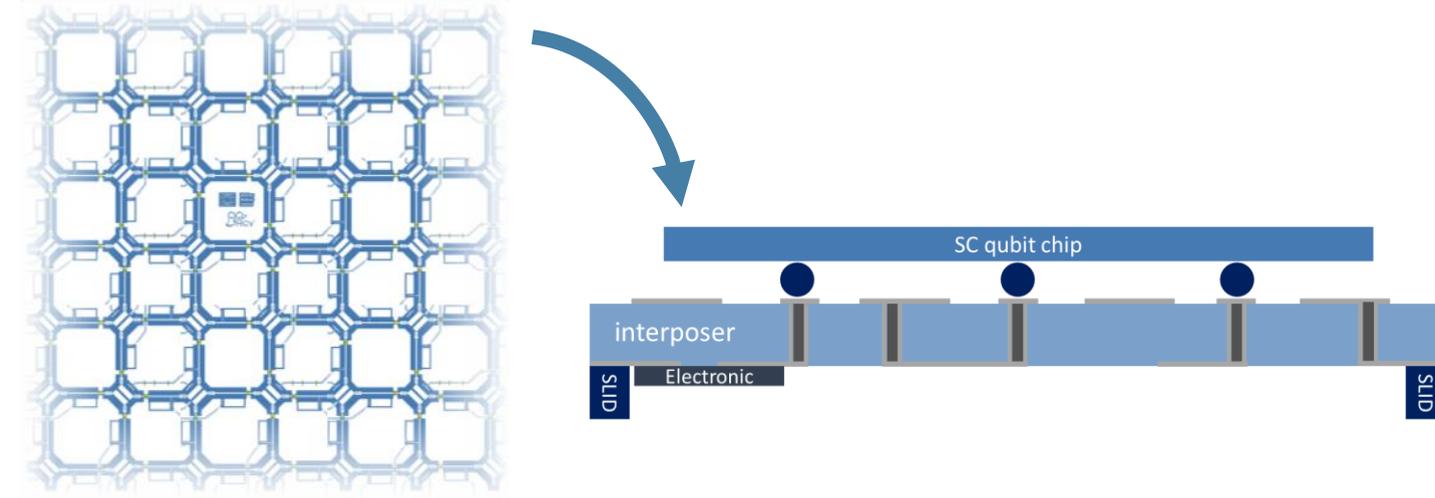


Thru-silicon vias



Requirement for scalability:

- addressability of all qubits (3-5 controls per qubit)
→ would require $> 10^6$ signal lines for universal QC
- reduction of modes in large chips
- reduction of cross-talk

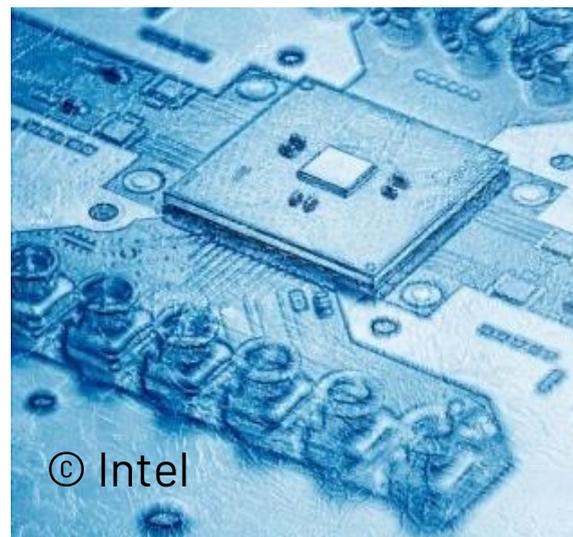


Technologies for I/O:



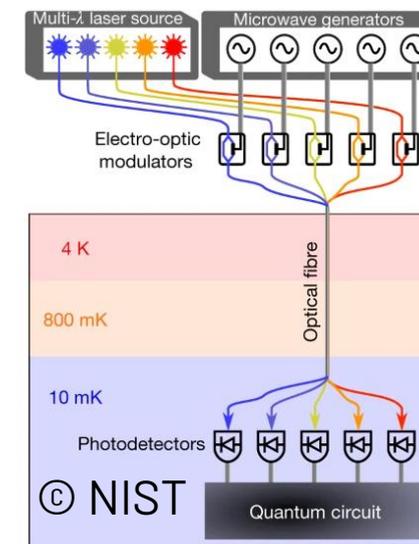
© Bluefors

High-density wiring

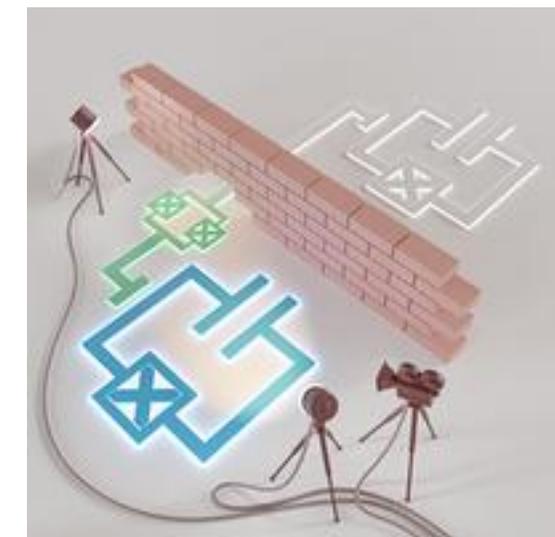


© Intel

Cryogenic electronics



Optical links



'control' qubits

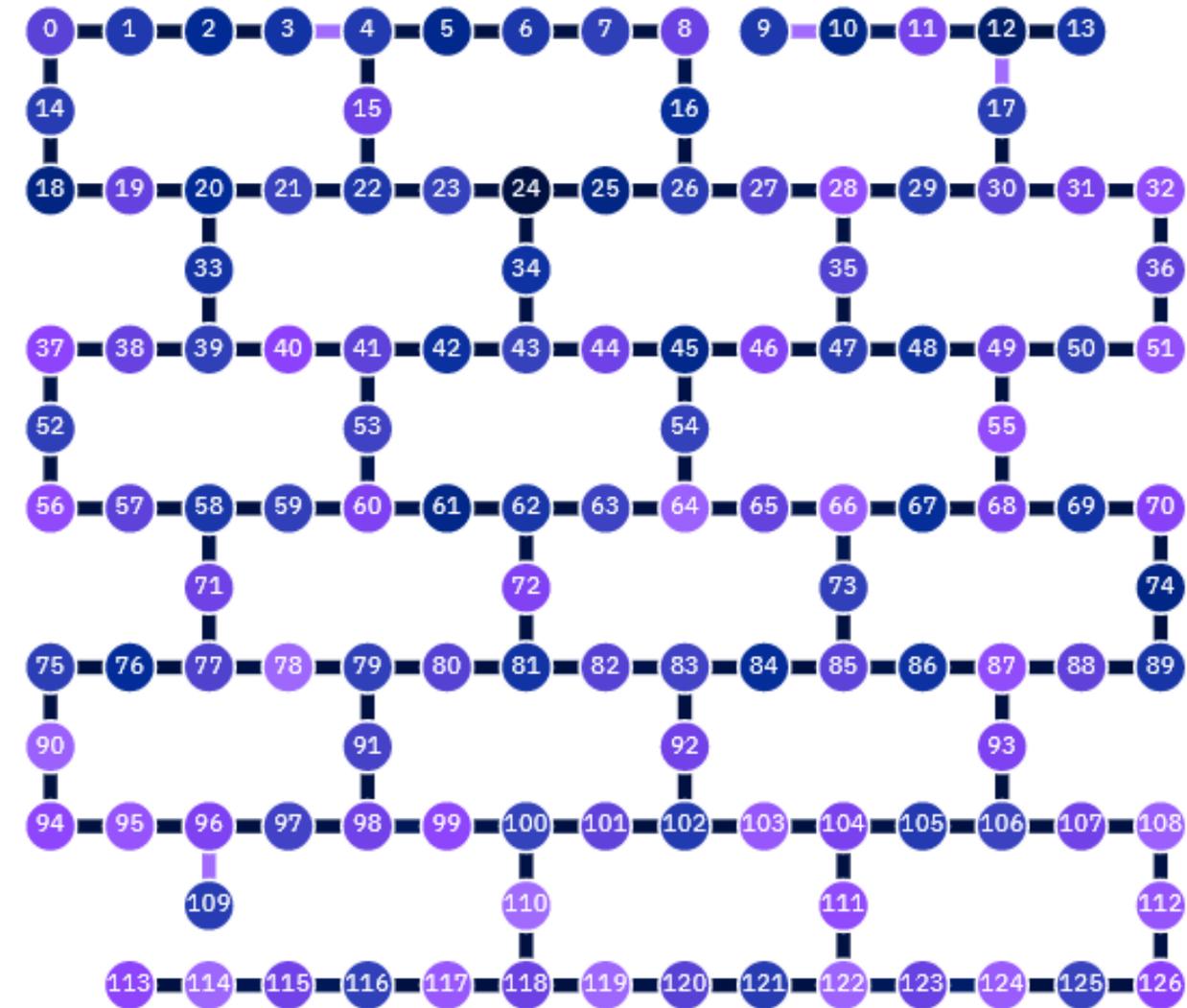
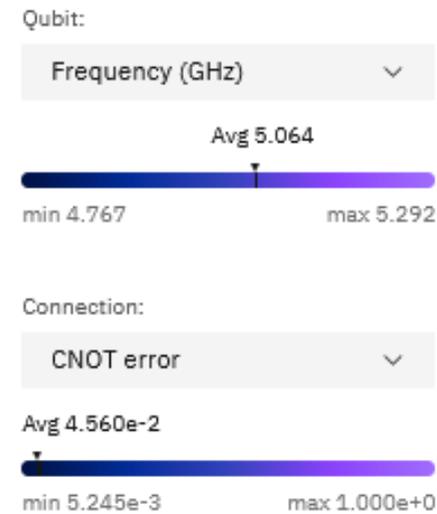
Challenge: **Guarantee excellent performance across entire chip**

Parameters:

- qubit frequency
- qubit coherence (T_1 , T_2)
- control cross-talk
- single-qubit gate fidelity
- two-qubit gate fidelity
- readout fidelity

Requires:

- reproducible and uniform fabrication
- efficient calibration and control tools
- scalable (microwave) design methods
- fast and scalable electronics
- excellent shielding
- ...

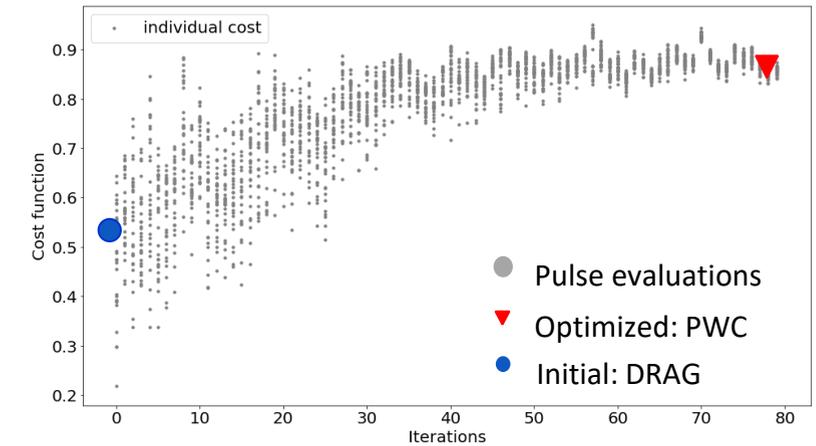
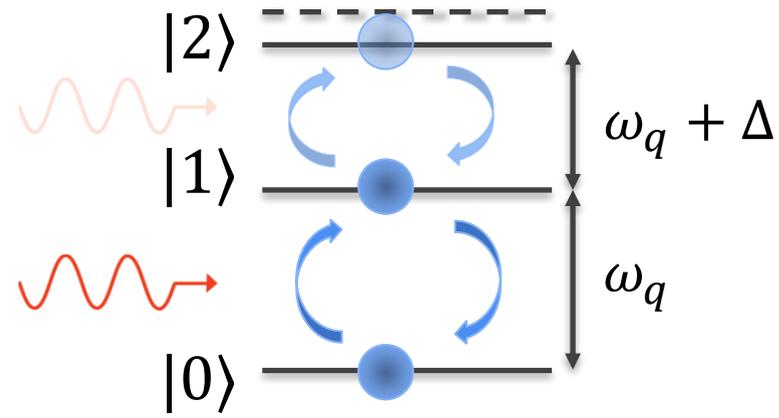


IBM 127 qubit chip 'Washington'

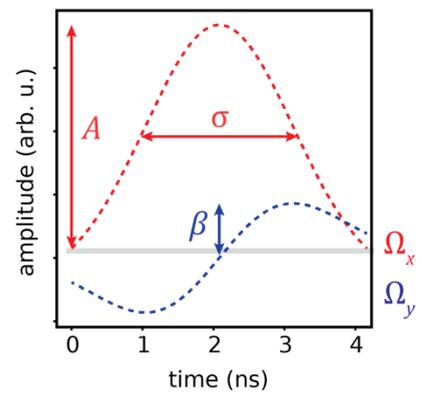
Optimal Control for high-fidelity pulses and efficient bring-up

Pulse control to avoid coherent errors
(leakage, cross-talk, stark shifts,...)

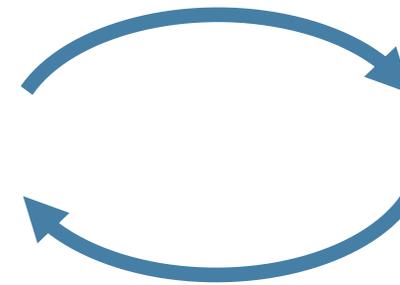
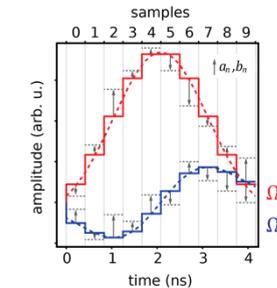
Challenge: qubit-specific pulses



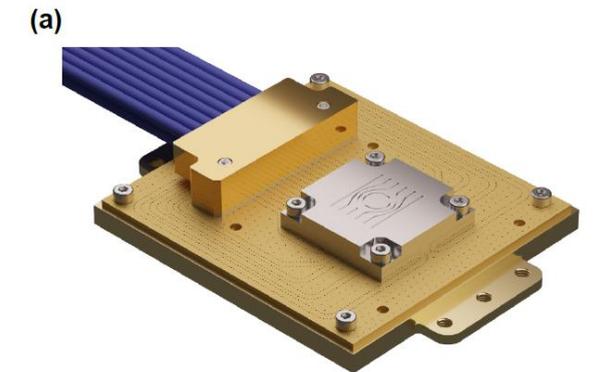
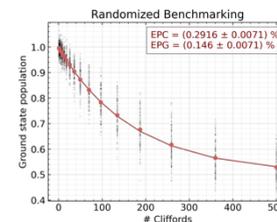
pulse design:
analytical/numerical
control pulses



adjust pulse
(gradient free
optimization)



measure fidelity
(randomized benchmarking)



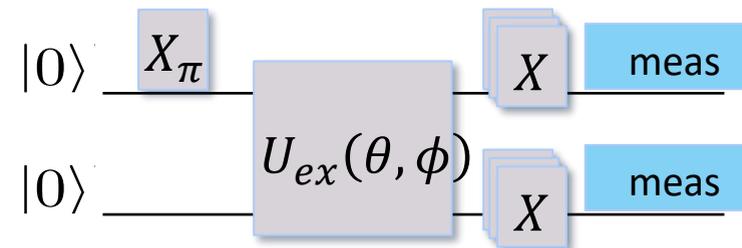
[Egger, Wilhelm 2014; Werninghaus 2021]

Hybrid quantum/classical computing:

efficient interfaces for fast optimization (VQE, QAOA) and fast feedback/reset (error correction)

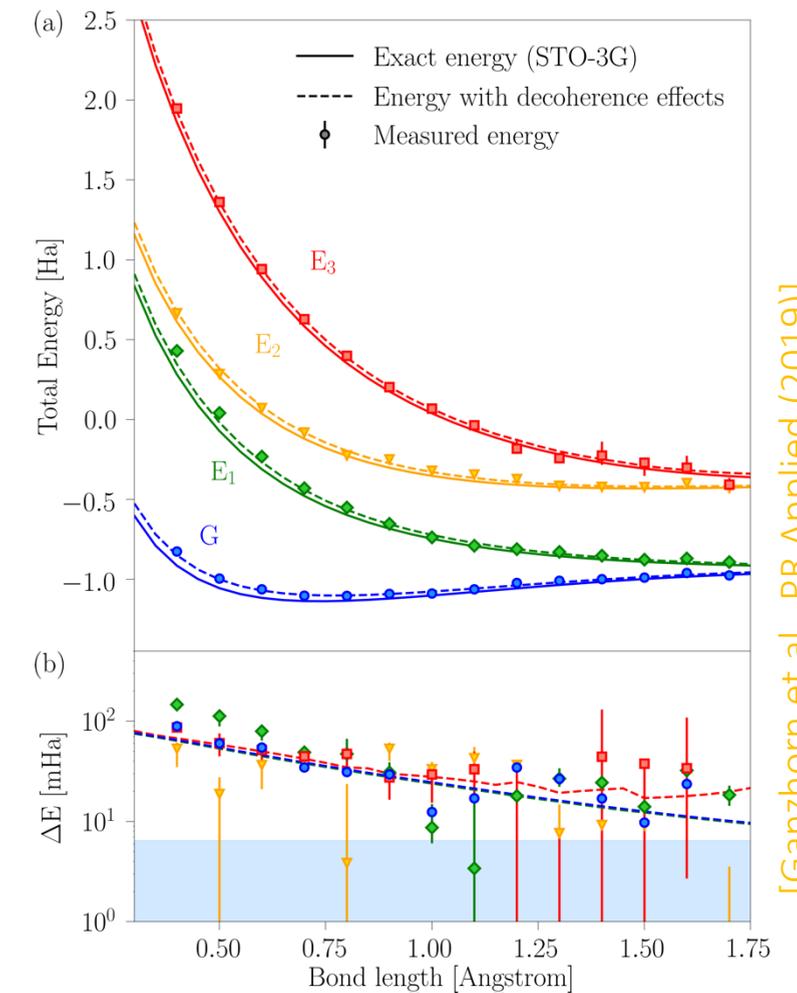
e.g. variational quantum eigensolver (VQE)

minimize energy function $E = \langle \psi(\theta) | H_{mol} | \psi(\theta) \rangle \rightarrow min.$



Challenges:

- Fast updates of pulses, real-time optimization
- High repetition rates
- System stability
- Fast measurement-based feedback (for EC)



[Ganzhorn et al., PR Applied (2019)]

Goal:

Build computers based on quantum physics to solve problems that are otherwise intractable

Roadmap:

Small-scale (Quantum advantage)

- Research level demonstrations
- Verify chemistry and error correction principles
- Demonstrate ‘Quantum advantage’

Medium-scale (approximate QC)

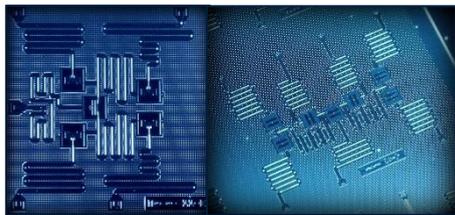
- Develop “Hardware-efficient” apps
 - Chemical configurations
 - Optimization
 - Hybrid quantum-classical computers
- No full error correction available

Large-scale (Universal QC)

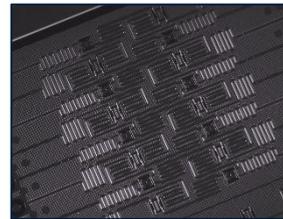
Known and proven speed-up:

- Factoring
- quantum molecular simulations
- Speed-up machine learning

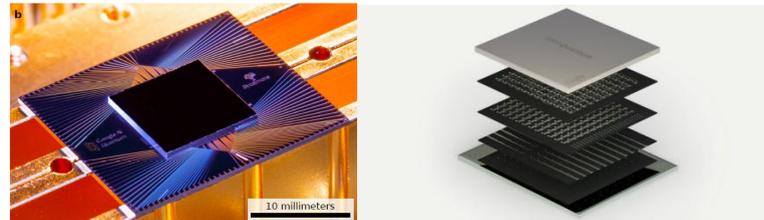
Enable secure cloud computing



5-8 qubits



16-20 qubits



50-100+ qubits



10^5 - 10^6 qubits

- [Steve Girvin's Les Houches Lecture Notes](https://sites.google.com/site/stevenmgirvin/girvin-les-houches-lecture-notes-drafts):
<https://sites.google.com/site/stevenmgirvin/girvin-les-houches-lecture-notes-drafts>
- P. Krantz et al. 'A quantum engineer's guide to superconducting qubits'. [Applied Physics Reviews](https://arxiv.org/abs/1904.06560) **6**, 021318 (2019),
<https://arxiv.org/abs/1904.06560>
- Nielsen & Chuang, 'Quantum Computation and Quantum Information'. Cambridge Univ. Press.
- 'Learn Quantum Computation with Qiskit', <https://qiskit.org/textbook/preface.html>.
- [Preskill lecture notes](http://www.theory.caltech.edu/people/preskill/ph229/): <http://www.theory.caltech.edu/people/preskill/ph229/>
- A. Blais et al. 'Circuit Quantum Electrodynamics', <https://arxiv.org/abs/2005.12667>; [Rev. Mod. Phys.](https://arxiv.org/abs/2005.12667) **93**, 25005 (2021)
- M. Kjaergaard, Superconducting Qubits: Current State of Play Annual Review of Condensed Matter Physics: Vol. 11:369–395, (2020), <https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.13641>

Any questions?

Quantum Computing: From Theory to Practice

THANK YOU!

KSETA 2026

Lecturer:

Benjamin Lienhard