QIC710/CS768/CO681/PH767/AM871 Introduction to Quantum Information Processing (F14)
Assignment 2
Due date: October 9, 2014

1. The "all-one-or-one-in-three" search problem. Consider the query problem defined as follows. One is given a black box computing a function $f:\{0,1,2\} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ such that either $f$ is 1 on all inputs (i.e., $f(0)=f(1)=f(2)=1$ ) or $f$ takes on the value 1 at a single input from $\{0,1,2\}$. The goal is to determine which of these four possibilities $f$ is. The four possibilities are shown by the following tables (where we are using a binary encoding of $\{0,1,2\}$ as $\{00,01,10\}$ ):

| $x$ | $f_{\text {all }}(x)$ | $x$ | $f_{0}(x)$ | $x$ | $f_{1}(x)$ | $x$ | $f_{2}(x)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 00 | 1 | 00 | 1 | 00 | 0 | 00 | 0 |
| 01 | 1 | 01 | 0 | 01 | 1 | 01 | 0 |
| 10 | 1 | 10 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 10 | 1 |
| 11 | 1 | 11 | 1 | 11 | 1 | 11 | 1 |

What is the last row, with the "out of range" input 11? It arises because of the binary encoding: 2-bit strings can also take on this value. We'll allow $f$ to be queried at 11 and we'll set $f(11)=1$ (though we could have chosen 0 ). Note that one obtains no information about which function $f$ is by learning the value of $f(11)$ (since it's always 1 ).
(a) How many queries are necessary and sufficient to solve this problem by a classical algorithm? Your answer should consist of an optimal classical algorithm as well as a proof that the problem cannot be solved with fewer queries.
(b) Give a quantum algorithm that solves the problem with a single query to $f$.
(c) What if we changed the out-of-range value from 1 to 0 ? In other words, if we changed each of the above functions $f$ so that $f(11)=0$. Is it possible to adapt your 1-query algorithm in part (b) to work in this case? Why or why not?
2. Quantum Fourier transform. Let $F_{N}$ denote the $N$-dimensional Fourier transform

$$
F_{N}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\
1 & \omega & \omega^{2} & \cdots & \omega^{N-1} \\
1 & \omega^{2} & \omega^{4} & \cdots & \omega^{2(N-1)} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
1 & \omega^{N-1} & \omega^{2(N-1)} & \cdots & \omega^{(N-1)^{2}}
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { where } \omega=e^{2 \pi i / N} \quad(i=\sqrt{-1})
$$

(an $N \times N$ matrix, whose entry in position $j k$ is $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}\left(e^{2 \pi i / N}\right)^{j k}$ for $j, k \in\{0,1, \ldots, N-1\}$ ).
(a) As a warm-up exercise, show that, for all $j \in\{1,2, \ldots, N-1\}, \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \omega^{j k}=0$.
(b) Show that, for $F_{N}$, all rows are vectors of length 1, and any two rows are orthogonal.
(c) What is $\left(F_{N}\right)^{2}$ ? The matrix has a very simple form.
3. Distinguishing between pairs of unitaries. In each case, you are given a black box gate that computes one of the two given unitaries, but you are not told which one. It is chosen uniformly: each is selected with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Your goal is to guess which of the two unitaries it is with as high a probability as you can. To help you do this, you can create any one-qubit quantum state, apply the black box gate to this qubit, and then measure the answer in some basis (that is, you can apply a unitary of your choosing and then measure in the computational basis). You can only use the black-box gate once.
For example, consider the case where the two unitaries are $I=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$ and $Z=\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1\end{array}\right)$. In this case, setting the initial state to $|+\rangle$, applying the black-box unitary, followed by $H$ and measuring yields 0 in the first case and 1 in the second case. So this is a perfect distinguishing procedure (it succeeds with probability 1 ).

Give the best distinguishing procedure (i.e., highest success probability) you can find in each case below. You do not have to prove optimality.
(a) $H=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1\end{array}\right)$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}\right) \quad$ (the latter is a rotation by $\pi / 4$ ).
(b) $I$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{rr}1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1\end{array}\right)$.
(c) $I$ and $H$.
(Hint: in two out of the above three cases there is a perfect distinguishing procedure.)
4. Constructing a Toffoli gate out of two-qubit gates. The Toffoli gate (controlled-controlled-NOT) is a 3 -qubit gate, and here we show how to implement it with 2 -qubit gates. The construction is given by the following quantum circuit

where

$$
V=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\omega & \bar{\omega} \\
\bar{\omega} & \omega
\end{array}\right), \quad \text { with } \omega=e^{i \pi / 4} \text { and } \bar{\omega}=e^{-i \pi / 4} \text { ( } \omega \text { 's conjugate). }
$$

We could verify this by multiplying $8 \times 8$ matrices; however, we take a simpler approach.
(a) Show that $V^{2}=X$ (this means $V$ is a square root of NOT).
(b) Prove each of the following, where $|\psi\rangle=\alpha|0\rangle+\beta|1\rangle$ is an arbitrary 1-qubit state:
i. The circuit maps $|00\rangle|\psi\rangle$ maps to $|00\rangle|\psi\rangle$.
ii. The circuit maps $|01\rangle|\psi\rangle$ maps to $|01\rangle|\psi\rangle$.
iii. The circuit maps $|10\rangle|\psi\rangle$ maps to $|10\rangle|\psi\rangle$.
iv. The circuit maps $|11\rangle|\psi\rangle$ maps to $|11\rangle V^{2}|\psi\rangle$.
(c) Based on parts (a) and (b), write down the $8 \times 8$ unitary matrix that the above circuit computes.
5. A version of Simon's problem modulo $p$. Let $p$ be some large prime number $\left(2^{n-1}<\right.$ $p<2^{n}$ ) and assume that we are given a black box computing $f: \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ that is promised to have the property: $f\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)=f\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right)$ if and only if $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)-\left(b_{1}, b_{2}\right) \in S$, where $S=\left\{k\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right): k \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}\right\}$ for some unknown $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p}$. Note that $S$ does not uniquely determine ( $r_{1}, r_{2}$ ), because (for example) ( $2 r_{1}, 2 r_{2}$ ) also generates $S$.
Note: for this question, assume that $\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right) \neq(0,0)$.
Also, assume that we have a good implementation of $F_{p}$, the quantum Fourier transform modulo $p$, and its inverse $\left(F_{p}\right)^{\dagger}$. Technically, $F_{p}$ can be defined in a qubit setting as an $n$-qubit unitary operation (where on the basis states that are out of range, namely $|a\rangle$ with $a \in\left\{p, \ldots, 2^{n}-1\right\}$, some other arbitrary unitary operation is applied).
(a) Describe and analyze a quantum algorithm that makes a single query to the black box for $f$ and produces an $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right) \in \mathbb{Z}_{p} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ with uniform probability conditioned on $\left(s_{1}, s_{2}\right) \cdot\left(r_{1}, r_{2}\right)=0$.
(b) Show how, after one instance of the process in part (a), a non-zero multiple of ( $r_{1}, r_{2}$ ) can be efficiently determined with high probability.

