

Introduction to Quantum Information Processing

QIC 710 / CS 678 / PH 767 / CO 681 / AM 871

Lectures 4 (2013)

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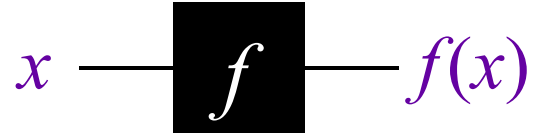
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Simple quantum algorithms in the query scenario

Query scenario

Input: a function f , given as a black box (a.k.a. oracle)



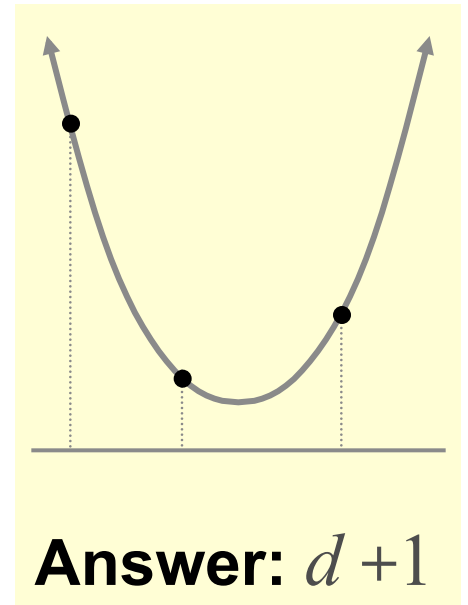
Goal: determine some information about f making as few queries to f (and other operations) as possible

Example: polynomial interpolation

Let: $f(x) = c_0 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \dots + c_dx^d$

Goal: determine $c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_d$

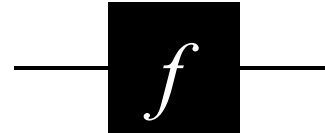
Question: How many f -queries does one require for this?



Deutsch's problem

Deutsch's problem

Let $f: \{0,1\} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$



There are **four** possibilities:

x	$f_1(x)$
0	0
1	0

x	$f_2(x)$
0	1
1	1

x	$f_3(x)$
0	0
1	1

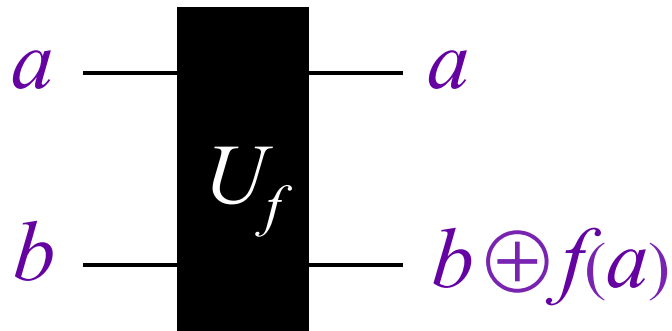
x	$f_4(x)$
0	1
1	0

Goal: determine whether or not $f(0) = f(1)$ (i.e. $f(0) \oplus f(1)$)

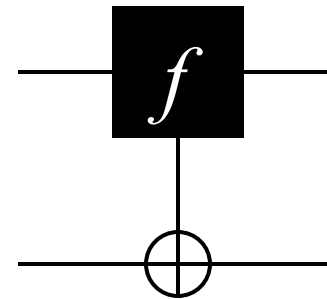
Any classical method requires **two** queries

What about a quantum method?

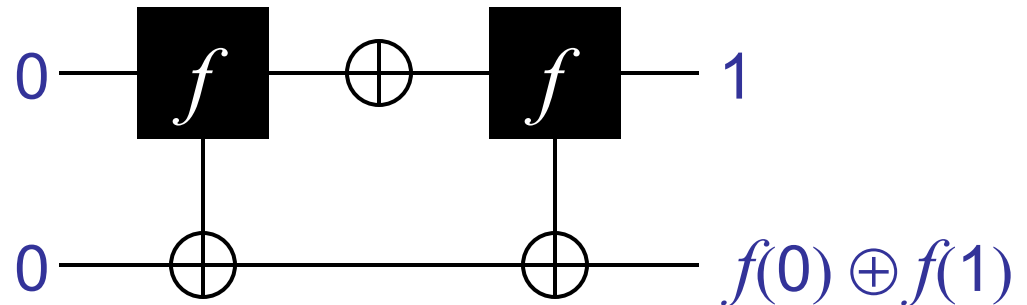
Reversible black box for f



alternate
notation:

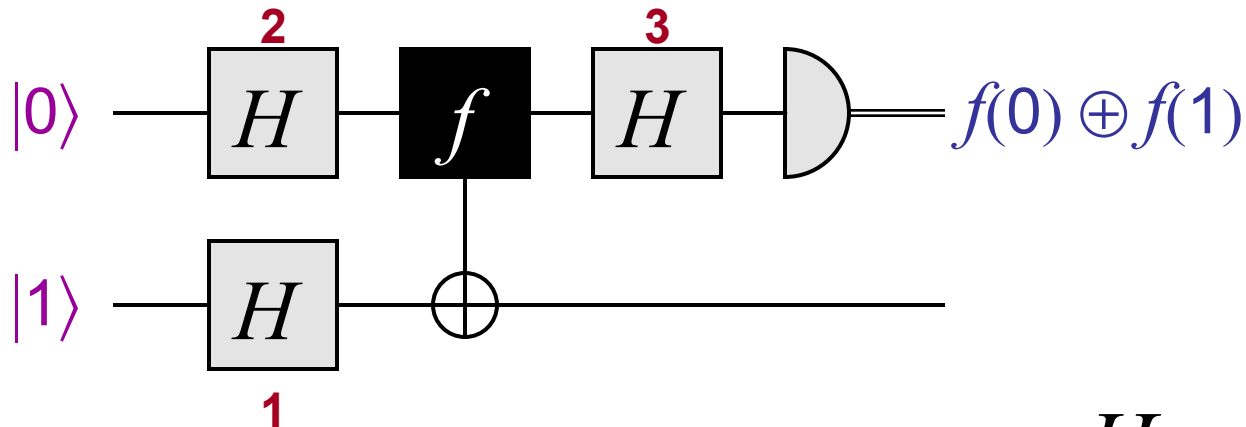


A classical algorithm:
(still requires 2 queries)



2 queries + 1 auxiliary operation

Quantum algorithm for Deutsch



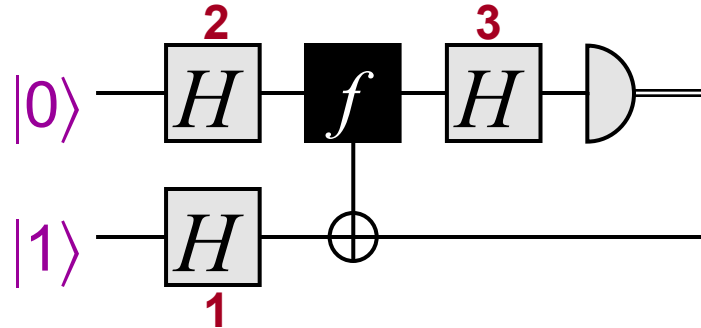
1 query + 4 auxiliary operations

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

How does this algorithm work?

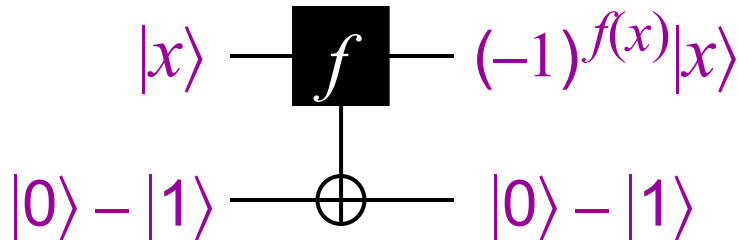
Each of the three H operations can be seen as playing a different role ...

Quantum algorithm (1)



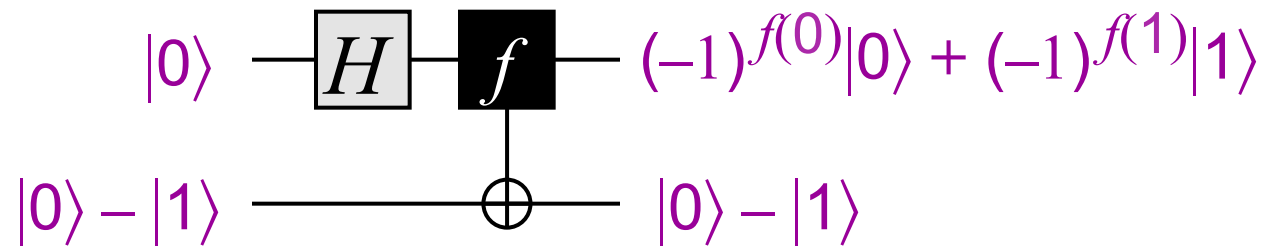
1. Creates the state $|0\rangle - |1\rangle$, which is an eigenvector of
- $$\begin{cases} \mathbf{NOT} & \text{with eigenvalue } -1 \\ \mathbf{I} & \text{with eigenvalue } +1 \end{cases}$$

This causes f to induce a **phase shift** of $(-1)^{f(x)}$ to $|x\rangle$



Quantum algorithm (2)

2. Causes f to be queried *in superposition* (at $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$)



x	$f_1(x)$
0	0
1	0

x	$f_2(x)$
0	1
1	1

x	$f_3(x)$
0	0
1	1

x	$f_4(x)$
0	1
1	0

$$\underbrace{\begin{matrix} x & f_1(x) \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{matrix}}_{\pm(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)}$$

$$\underbrace{\begin{matrix} x & f_3(x) \\ 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{matrix}}_{\pm(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)}$$

Quantum algorithm (3)

3. Distinguishes between $\pm(|0\rangle + |1\rangle)$ and $\pm(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$

$$\pm(|0\rangle + |1\rangle) \xleftrightarrow{H} \pm|0\rangle$$

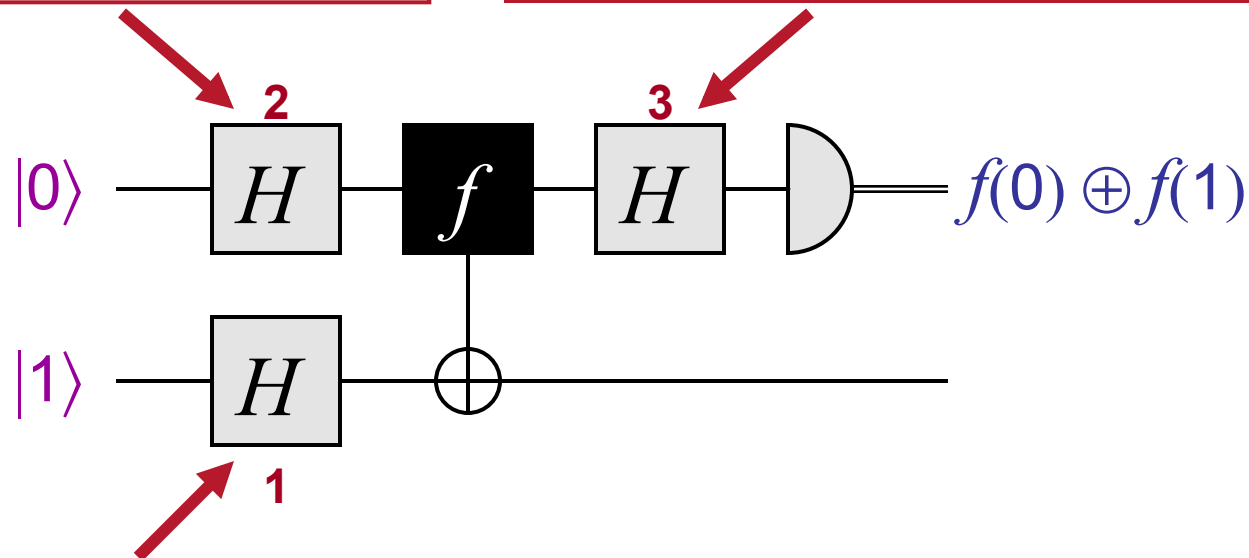
$$\pm(|0\rangle - |1\rangle) \xleftrightarrow{H} \pm|1\rangle$$

Summary of Deutsch's algorithm

Makes only one query, whereas two are needed classically

produces superpositions of inputs to f : $|0\rangle + |1\rangle$

extracts phase differences from $(-1)^{f(0)}|0\rangle + (-1)^{f(1)}|1\rangle$



constructs eigenvector so f -queries induce phases: $|x\rangle \rightarrow (-1)^{f(x)}|x\rangle$

One-out-of-four search

One-out-of-four search

Let $f: \{0,1\}^2 \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ have the property that there is exactly one $x \in \{0,1\}^2$ for which $f(x) = 1$

Four possibilities:

x	$f_{00}(x)$	x	$f_{01}(x)$	x	$f_{10}(x)$	x	$f_{11}(x)$
00	1	00	0	00	0	00	0
01	0	01	1	01	0	01	0
10	0	10	0	10	1	10	0
11	0	11	0	11	0	11	1

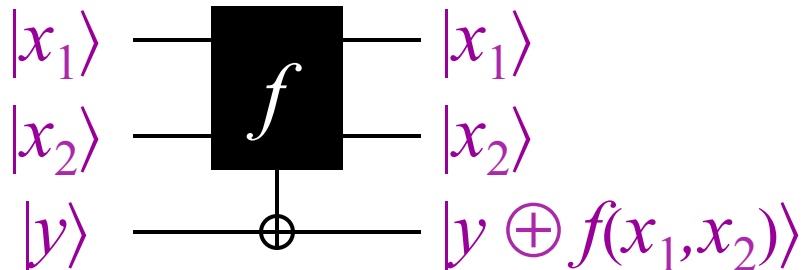
Goal: find $x \in \{0,1\}^2$ for which $f(x) = 1$

What is the minimum number of queries **classically**? _____

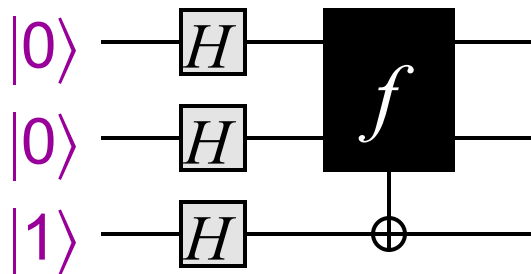
Quantumly? _____

Quantum algorithm (I)

Black box for 1-4 search:



Start by creating phases in superposition of all inputs to f :



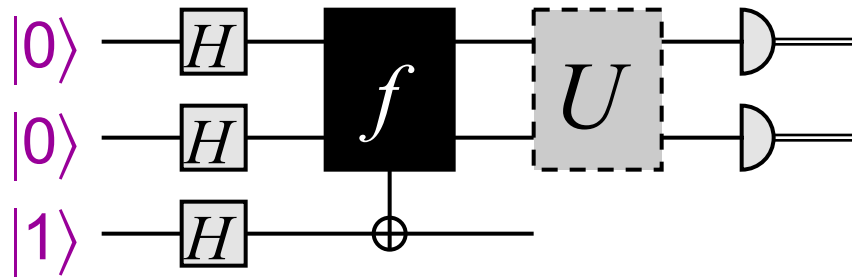
Input state to query?

$$(|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle)(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Output state of query?

$$((-1)^{f(00)}|00\rangle + (-1)^{f(01)}|01\rangle + (-1)^{f(10)}|10\rangle + (-1)^{f(11)}|11\rangle)(|0\rangle - |1\rangle)$$

Quantum algorithm (II)



\leftarrow Apply the U that maps
 $\leftarrow |\psi_{00}\rangle, |\psi_{01}\rangle, |\psi_{10}\rangle, |\psi_{11}\rangle$ to
 $\leftarrow |00\rangle, |01\rangle, |10\rangle, |11\rangle$ (resp.)

Output state of the first two qubits in the four cases:

Case of f_{00} ? $|\psi_{00}\rangle = -|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle$

Case of f_{01} ? $|\psi_{01}\rangle = +|00\rangle - |01\rangle + |10\rangle + |11\rangle$

Case of f_{10} ? $|\psi_{10}\rangle = +|00\rangle + |01\rangle - |10\rangle + |11\rangle$

Case of f_{11} ? $|\psi_{11}\rangle = +|00\rangle + |01\rangle + |10\rangle - |11\rangle$

What noteworthy property do these states have? **Orthogonal!**

Exercise: simulate the above U in terms of H , CNOT and NOT gates

one-out-of- N search?

Natural question: what about search problems in spaces larger than ***four*** (and without uniqueness conditions)?

For spaces of size ***eight*** (say), the previous method breaks down—the state vectors will not be orthogonal

Later on, we'll see how to search a space of size N with $O(\sqrt{N})$ queries ...

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Constant vs. balanced

Constant vs. balanced

Let $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ be either constant or balanced, where

- **constant** means $f(x) = 0$ for all x , or $f(x) = 1$ for all x
- **balanced** means $\sum_x f(x) = 2^{n-1}$

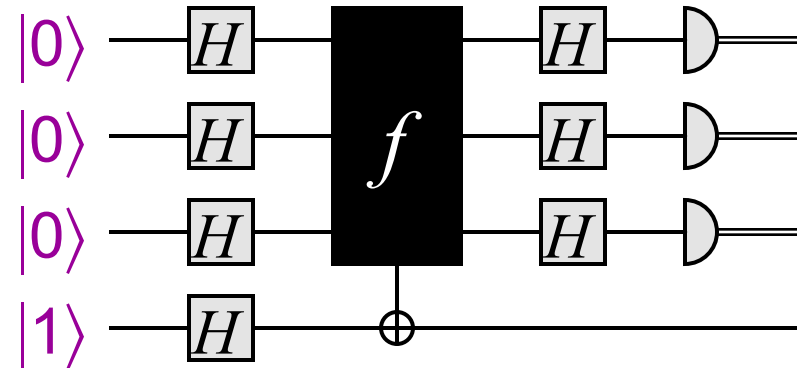
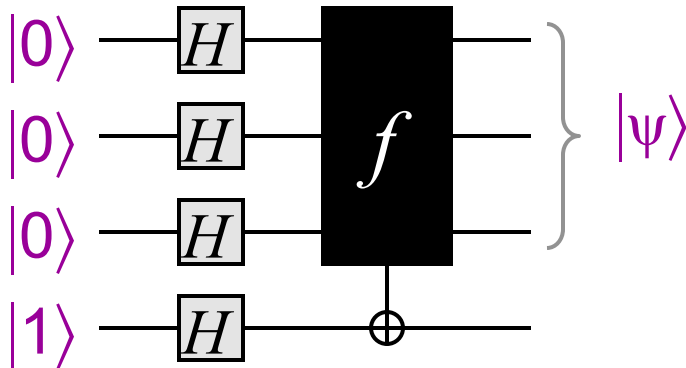
Goal: determine whether f is constant or balanced

How many queries are there needed **classically**? _____

Example: if $f(0000) = f(0001) = f(0010) = \dots = f(0111) = 0$
then it still could be either

Quantumly? _____

Quantum algorithm



Constant case: $|\psi\rangle = \pm \sum_x |x\rangle$ **Why?**

Balanced case: $|\psi\rangle$ is **orthogonal** to $\pm \sum_x |x\rangle$ **Why?**

How to distinguish between the cases? What is $H^{\otimes n}|\psi\rangle$?

Constant case: $H^{\otimes n}|\psi\rangle = \pm |00\dots 0\rangle$

Balanced case: $H^{\otimes n}|\psi\rangle$ is orthogonal to $|0\dots 00\rangle$

Last step of the algorithm: if the measured result is **000** then output “constant”, otherwise output “balanced”

Probabilistic *classical* algorithm solving constant vs balanced

But here's a classical procedure that makes only **2** queries and performs fairly well probabilistically:

1. pick $x_1, x_2 \in \{0,1\}^n$ randomly
2. if $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ then output balanced else output constant

What happens if f is constant? The algorithm always succeeds

What happens if f is balanced? Succeeds with probability $1/2$

By repeating the above procedure k times:

$2k$ queries and one-sided error probability $(1/2)^k$

Therefore, for large n , $\ll 2^n$ queries are likely sufficient

$$H \otimes H \otimes \dots \otimes H$$

About $H \otimes H \otimes \dots \otimes H = H^{\otimes n}$

Theorem: for $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, $H^{\otimes n}|x\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{n/2}} \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle$
where $x \cdot y = x_1 y_1 \oplus \dots \oplus x_n y_n$

Example: $H \otimes H = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} +1 & +1 & +1 & +1 \\ +1 & -1 & +1 & -1 \\ +1 & +1 & -1 & -1 \\ +1 & -1 & -1 & +1 \end{bmatrix}$

Pf: For all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, $H|x\rangle = |0\rangle + (-1)^x |1\rangle = \sum_y (-1)^{xy} |y\rangle$

Thus, $H^{\otimes n}|x_1 \dots x_n\rangle = \left(\sum_{y_1} (-1)^{x_1 y_1} |y_1\rangle \right) \dots \left(\sum_{y_n} (-1)^{x_n y_n} |y_n\rangle \right)$
 $= \sum_y (-1)^{x_1 y_1 \oplus \dots \oplus x_n y_n} |y_1 \dots y_n\rangle \quad \blacksquare$

Simon's problem

Quantum vs. classical separations

black-box problem	quantum	classical
constant vs. balanced	1 (query)	2 (queries)
1-out-of-4 search	1	3
constant vs. balanced	1	$\frac{1}{2} 2^n + 1$
Simon's problem		

(only for exact)
(probabilistic)

Simon's problem

Let $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ have the property that there exists an $r \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $f(x) = f(y)$ iff $x \oplus y = r$ or $x = y$

Example:

x	$f(x)$
000	011
001	101
010	000
011	010
100	101
101	011
110	010
111	000

What is r in this case? _____

Answer: $r = 101$

A classical algorithm for Simon

Search for a **collision**, an $x \neq y$ such that $f(x) = f(y)$

1. Choose $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \{0,1\}^n$ randomly (independently)
2. For all $i \neq j$, if $f(x_i) = f(x_j)$ then output $x_i \oplus x_j$ and halt

A hard case is where r is chosen randomly from $\{0,1\}^n - \{0^n\}$ and then the “table” for f is filled out randomly subject to the structure implied by r

How big does k have to be for the probability of a collision to be a constant, such as $3/4$?

Answer: order $2^{n/2}$ (each (x_i, x_j) collides with prob. $O(2^{-n})$)

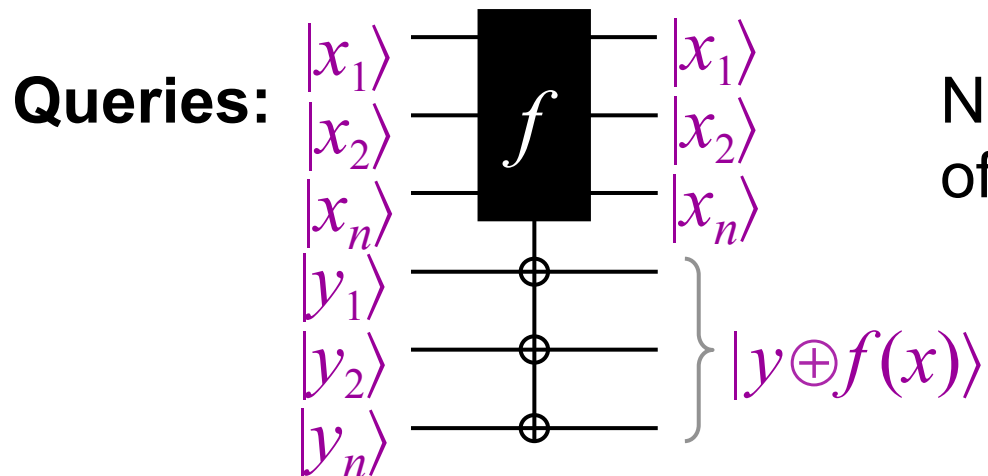
Classical lower bound

Theorem: *any* classical algorithm solving Simon's problem must make $\Omega(2^{n/2})$ queries

Proof is omitted here—note that the performance analysis of the previous algorithm does **not** imply the theorem

... how can we know that there isn't a **different** algorithm that performs better?

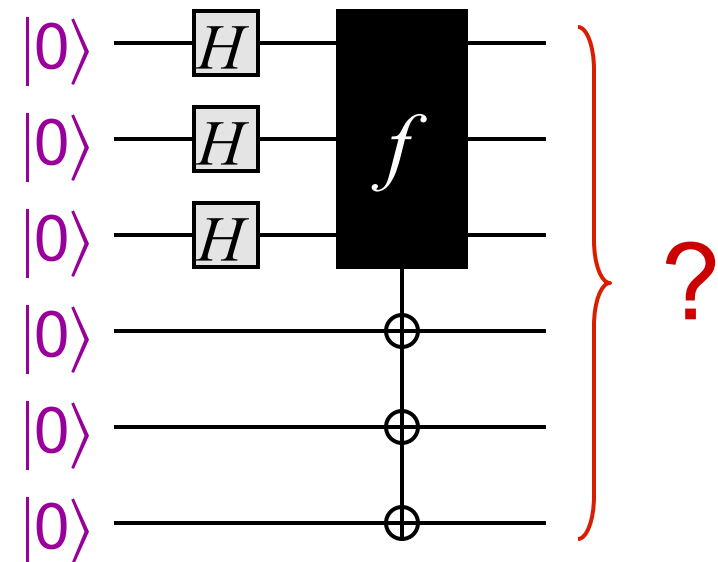
A quantum algorithm for Simon I



Not clear what *eigenvector* of target registers is ...

Proposed start of quantum algorithm: query all values of f in superposition

What is the output state of this circuit?



A quantum algorithm for Simon II

Answer: the output state is $\sum_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle$

Let $T \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$ be such that **one** element from each matched pair is in T (assume $r \neq 00\dots 0$)

Example: could take $T = \{000, 001, 011, 111\}$

Then the output state can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{x \in T} |x\rangle |f(x)\rangle + |x \oplus r\rangle |f(x \oplus r)\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x \in T} (|x\rangle + |x \oplus r\rangle) |f(x)\rangle \end{aligned}$$

x	$f(x)$
000	011
001	101
010	000
011	010
100	101
101	011
110	010
111	000

A quantum algorithm for Simon III

Measuring the second register yields $|x\rangle + |x \oplus r\rangle$ in the first register, for a random $x \in T$

How can we use this to obtain **some** information about r ?

Try applying $H^{\otimes n}$ to the state, yielding:

$$\sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot y} |y\rangle + \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{(x \oplus r) \cdot y} |y\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{y \in \{0,1\}^n} (-1)^{x \cdot y} (1 + (-1)^{r \cdot y}) |y\rangle$$

Measuring this state yields y with prob. $\begin{cases} (1/2)^{n-1} & \text{if } r \cdot y = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } r \cdot y \neq 0 \end{cases}$

A quantum algorithm for Simon IV

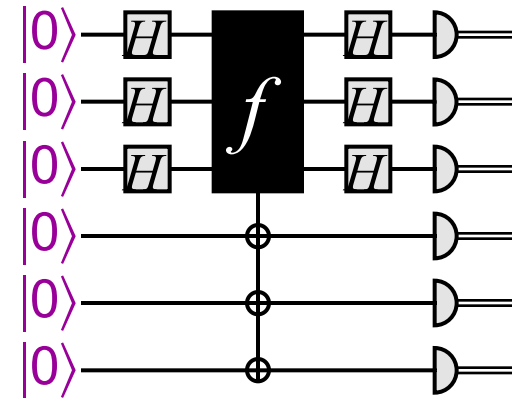
Executing this algorithm $k = O(n)$ times yields random $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $r \cdot y_1 = r \cdot y_2 = \dots = r \cdot y_n = 0$

How does this help?

This is a system of k linear equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} & \cdots & y_{1n} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & \cdots & y_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{k1} & y_{k2} & \cdots & y_{kn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ \vdots \\ r_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

With high probability, there is a unique non-zero solution that is r (which can be efficiently found by linear algebra)



Conclusion of Simon's algorithm

- Any classical algorithm has to query the black box $\Omega(2^{n/2})$ times, even to succeed with probability $\frac{3}{4}$
- There is a quantum algorithm that queries the black box only $O(n)$ times, performs only $O(n^3)$ auxiliary operations (for the Hadamards, measurements, and linear algebra), and succeeds with probability $\frac{3}{4}$